

THE INDIAN YEAR BOOK 1935-36

VOLUME XXII

*A Statistical and Historical Annual of The Indian
Empire, with an Explanation of the Principal
Topics of the day.*

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CALENDAR FOR 1935.

JANUARY.

Sun.	6	13	20	27
M.	7	14	21	28
Tu.	1	8	15	22
W.	2	9	16	23
Th.	3	10	17	24
F.	4	11	18	25
S.	5	12	19	26

JULY.

Sun.	7	14	21	28
M.	1	8	15	22
Tu.	2	9	16	23
W.	3	10	17	24
Th.	4	11	18	25
F.	5	12	19	26
S.	6	13	20	27

FEBRUARY.

Sun.	3	10	17	24
M.	4	11	18	25
Tu.	5	12	19	26
W.	6	13	20	27
Th.	7	14	21	28
F.	1	8	15	22
S.	2	9	16	23

AUGUST.

Sun.	4	11	18	25
M.	5	12	19	26
Tu.	6	13	20	27
W.	7	14	21	28
Th.	1	8	15	22
F.	2	9	16	23
S.	3	10	17	24

MARCH.

Sun.	3	10	17	24	31
M.	4	11	18	25	
Tu.	5	12	19	26	
W.	6	13	20	27	
Th.	7	14	21	28	
F.	1	8	15	22	29
S.	2	9	16	23	30

SEPTEMBER.

Sun.	1	8	15	22	29
M.	2	9	16	23	30
Tu.	3	10	17	24	
W.	4	11	18	25	
Th.	5	12	19	26	
F.	6	13	20	27	
S.	7	14	21	28	

APRIL.

Sun...	4	7	14	21	28	廿
M...	1	8	15	22	29	廿一
Tu...	2	9	16	23	30	廿二
W...	3	10	17	24		廿三
Th...	4	11	18	25		廿四
F...	5	12	19	26		廿五
S...	6	13	20	27		廿六

OCTOBER.

Sun.	6	13	20	27	
M.	7	14	21	28	
Tu.	1	8	15	22	29
W.	2	9	16	23	30
Th.	3	10	17	24	31
F.	4	11	18	25	
S.	5	12	19	26	

MAY.

Sun...	1	5	12	19	26	33
M...	2	6	13	20	27	34
Tu...	3	7	14	21	28	35
W...	4	8	15	22	29	36
Th...	5	9	16	23	30	37
F...	6	10	17	24	31	38
S...	7	11	18	25	32	39

NOVEMBER.

Sun...	日	3	10	17	24	日
M...	月	4	11	18	25	月
Tu...	二	5	12	19	26	二
W...	三	6	13	20	27	三
Th...	四	7	14	21	28	四
F...	五	8	15	22	29	五
S...	六	9	16	23	30	六

JUNE.

Sun.	2	9	16	23	30
M.	3	10	17	24	
Tu.	4	11	18	25	
W.	5	12	19	26	
Th.	6	13	20	27	
F.	7	14	21	28	
S.	1	8	15	22	29

DECEMBER.

Sun.	1	8	15	22	29
M.	2	9	16	23	30
Tu.	3	10	17	24	31
W.	4	11	18	25	
Th.	5	12	19	26	
F.	6	13	20	27	
S.	7	14	21	28	

Phases of the Moon—JANUARY 31 Days.

● New Moon 5th, 10h 50m A M ○ Full Moon 19th, 9h 11m. . .
 ☾ First Quarter ..12th, 2h 25m A M ☾ Last Quarter .. 24th, 1h 20m A M

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Noon				
			Sunrise A M		Sunset P M		True Noon. P M				Moon-rise A M Moon-set P M			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	D	S
Tuesday ..	1	1	7	12	6	12	0	42	3	4	2	26	25 6	21 5
Wednesday	2	2	7	12	6	13	0	42	4	5	3	17	26 6	21 6
Thursday	3	3	7	13	6	13	0	43	5	8	4	16	27 6	22 6
Friday	4	4	7	13	6	14	0	43	6	12	5	21	28 6	22 49
Saturday	5	5	7	13	6	15	0	44	7	13	6	20	29 6	22 41
Sunday ..	6	6	7	13	6	15	0	44	8	8	7	37	1 1	22 36
Monday	7	7	7	14	6	16	0	45	8	58	8	12	2 1	22 29
Tuesday	8	8	7	14	6	17	0	45	9	48	9	45	3 1	22 21
Wednesday	9	9	7	14	6	17	0	46	10	46	10	44	4 1	22 13
Thursday	10	10	7	14	6	18	0	46	11	5	11	42	5 1	22 5
Friday ..	11	11	7	14	6	18	0	46	11	45			6 1	21 56
Saturday	12	12	7	15	6	19	0	46	0	25	0	30	7 1	21 47
Sunday ..	13	13	7	15	6	20	0	47	1	7	1	37	8 1	21 37
Monday	14	14	7	15	6	21	0	47	1	53	2	34	9 1	21 27
Tuesday	15	15	7	15	6	22	0	48	2	41	3	32	10 1	21 17
Wednesday	16	16	7	15	6	22	0	48	3	33	4	28	11 1	21 6
Thursday	17	17	7	15	6	23	0	48	4	26	5	21	12 1	20 51
Friday	18	18	7	15	6	24	0	49	5	21	6	10	13 1	20 43
Saturday	19	19	7	15	6	25	0	49	6	14	6	55	14 1	20 31
Sunday ..	20	20	7	15	6	25	0	49	7	6	7	36	15 1	20 18
Monday ..	21	21	7	15	6	26	0	50	7	55	8	13	16 1	20 5
Tuesday	22	22	7	15	6	27	0	50	8	14	8	47	17 1	19 52
Wednesday	23	23	7	15	6	27	0	50	9	32	9	20	18 1	19 38
Thursday	24	24	7	15	6	28	0	50	10	10	9	53	19 1	19 24
Friday ..	25	25	7	15	6	29	0	51	11	9	10	25	20 1	19 10
Saturday	26	26	7	15	6	29	0	51	11	59	10	50	21 1	18 55
Sunday	27	27	7	14	6	29	0	51			11	36	22 1	18 30
Monday ..	28	28	7	14	6	30	0	51	0	52	0	17	23 1	18 25
Tuesday	29	29	7	14	6	30	0	52	1	40	1	4	24 1	18 9
Wednesday	30	30	7	14	6	31	0	52	2	50	1	58	25 1	17 53
Thursday	31	31	7	14	6	31	0	52	3	52	2	58	26 1	17 37

Phases of the Moon—FEBRUARY 28 Days.

● New York, N.Y., 10/10/54 10:45 PM
) First Q. 10:45 PM 10:45 PM 10:45 PM

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Year	Indian Standard Time												Moon's Age at Noon	Declination at Noon
			h	m	s	h	m	s	h	m	s	h	m	s		
Friday	1	37	7	17	0	21	0	32	4	0	4	4	27 1	17 20		
Saturday	2	38	7	18	0	22	0	33	5	0	5	12	28 1	17 7		
Sunday	3	39	7	19	0	23	0	34	6	0	6	19	29 1	16 46		
Monday	4	40	7	20	0	24	0	35	7	0	7	26	30 6	16 28		
Tuesday	5	41	7	21	0	25	0	36	8	0	8	28	31 6	16 11		
Wednesday	6	42	7	22	0	26	0	37	9	0	9	23	32 6	15 52		
Thursday	7	43	7	23	0	27	0	38	10	0	10	28	33 6	15 34		
Friday	8	44	7	24	0	28	0	39	11	0	11	28	34 6	15 15		
Saturday	9	45	7	25	0	29	0	40	12	0	12	28	35 6	14 56		
Sunday	10	46	7	26	0	30	0	41	13	0	13	27	36 6	14 37		
Monday	11	47	7	27	0	31	0	42	14	0	14	25	37 6	14 18		
Tuesday	12	48	7	28	0	32	0	43	15	0	15	23	38 6	13 58		
Wednesday	13	49	7	29	0	33	0	44	16	0	16	17	39 6	13 38		
Thursday	14	50	7	30	0	34	0	45	17	0	17	10	40 6	13 18		
Friday	15	51	7	31	0	35	0	46	18	0	18	54	41 6	12 58		
Saturday	16	52	7	32	0	36	0	47	19	0	19	75	42 6	12 38		
Sunday	17	53	7	33	0	37	0	48	20	0	20	14	43 6	12 17		
Monday	18	54	7	34	0	38	0	49	21	0	21	40	44 6	11 56		
Tuesday	19	55	7	35	0	39	0	50	22	0	22	22	45 6	11 36		
Wednesday	20	56	7	36	0	40	0	51	23	0	23	55	46 6	11 17		
Thursday	21	57	7	37	0	41	0	52	24	0	24	27	47 6	10 52		
Friday	22	58	7	38	0	42	0	53	25	0	25	0	48 6	10 30		
Saturday	23	59	7	39	0	43	0	54	26	0	26	36	49 6	10 8		
Sunday	24	60	7	40	0	44	0	55	27	0	27	15	50 6	9 47		
Monday	25	61	7	41	0	45	0	56	28	0	28	50	51 6	9 25		
Tuesday	26	62	7	42	0	46	0	57	29	0	29	48	52 6	8 2		
Wednesday	27	63	7	43	0	47	0	58	30	0	30	44	53 6	8 40		
Thursday	28	64	7	44	0	48	0	59	31	0	31	15	54 6	8 17		

Phases of the Moon—MARCH 31 Days.

○ New Moon .. 5th, 8h 10m. A.M.
 ☾ First Quarter .. 12th, 6h 0m A.M.

○ Full Moon .. 20th 11h. 1m. A.M.
 ☾ Last Quarter .. 28th, 2h, 21m A.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time					Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise A.M.	Sunset P.M.	True Noon P.M.	Moon-rise A.M.	Moon-set P.M.		
			H M	H M.	H M	H M	H M.	D.	S
Friday ..	1	60	6 52	6 44	0 51	3 35	2 49	25 6	7 55
Saturday	2	61	6 58	6 45	0 51	4 28	3 56	26 6	7 32
Sunday ..	3	62	6 57	6 45	0 51	5 18	5 1	27 6	7 9
Monday ..	4	63	6 56	6 45	0 51	6 4	6 5	28 6	6 46
Tuesday ..	5	64	6 56	6 46	0 51	6 48	7 8	29 6	6 23
Wednesday	6	65	6 55	6 46	0 50	7 31	8 10	1 2	5 59
Thursday	7	66	6 54	6 47	0 50	8 13	9 12	2 2	5 36
Friday	8	67	6 53	6 47	0 50	8 56	10 13	3 2	5 13
Saturday	9	68	6 53	6 47	0 50	9 43	11 14	4 2	4 50
Sunday	10	69	6 52	6 48	0 49	10 32	..	5 2	4 26
Monday ..	11	70	6 51	6 48	0 49	11 23	0 13	6 2	4 3
Tuesday ..	12	71	6 50	6 48	0 49	0 16	1 10	7 2	3 39
Wednesday	13	72	6 49	6 48	0 49	1 10	2 3	8 2	3 16
Thursday	14	73	6 49	6 49	0 49	2 4	2 51	9 2	2 52
Friday	15	74	6 48	6 49	0 49	2 57	3 34	10 2	2 28
Saturday..	16	75	6 47	6 49	0 48	3 47	4 14	11 2	2 5
Sunday ..	17	76	6 46	6 49	0 48	4 37	4 50	12 2	1 41
Monday ..	18	77	6 45	6 49	0 48	5 25	5 23	13 2	1 17
Tuesday ..	19	78	6 44	6 50	0 47	6 12	5 56	14 2	0 54
Wednesday	20	79	6 43	6 50	0 47	7 0	6 29	15 2	0 30
Thursday	21	80	6 42	6 50	0 47	7 50	7 2	16 2	0 6
Friday ..	22	81	6 41	6 50	0 46	8 42	7 37	17 2	0 17
Saturday	23	82	6 40	6 51	0 46	9 36	8 16	18 2	0 41
Sunday ..	24	83	6 39	6 51	0 46	10 33	8 58	19 2	1 5
Monday ..	25	84	6 39	6 51	0 45	11 30	9 45	20 2	1 28
Tuesday ..	26	85	6 38	6 51	0 45	..	10 38	21 2	1 52
Wednesday	27	86	6 38	6 51	0 45	0 29	11 35	22 2	2 15
Thursday	28	87	6 37	6 52	0 45	1 25	0 37	23 2	2 39
Friday ..	29	88	6 36	6 52	0 44	2 18	1 40	24 2	3 2
Saturday	30	89	6 35	6 52	0 44	3 8	2 43	25 2	2 26
Sunday ..	31	90	6 34	6 52	0 44	3 55	3 46	26 2	3 49

Phases of the Moon—APRIL 30 Days.

● New Moon . . . 3rd, 5h 41m P M ○ Full Moon 19th, 2h. 40m A.M
 > First Quarter 10th, 11h 12m. P M ☾ Last Quarter . . . 26th, 9h 50m A M

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time.					Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. P M.	Sunset P M	True Noon P M	Moon-rise A M	Moon-set P M		
			H M	H M	H M.	H M	H M.	D.	N.
Monday . .	1	91	6 33	6 53	0 43	4 38	4 48	27 2	4 12
Tuesday ..	2	92	6 33	6 53	0 43	5 21	5 50	28 2	4 36
Wednesday .	3	93	6 32	6 53	0 42	6 3	6 51	29.2	4 50
Thursday .	4	94	6 31	6 53	0 42	6 45	7 53	0 8	5 22
Friday ..	5	95	6 30	6 54	0 42	7 32	8 55	1 8	5 45
Saturday .	6	96	6 29	6 54	0 42	8 20	9 57	2.8	6 8
Sunday ..	7	97	6 28	6 54	0 41	9 12	10 57	3 8	6 30
Monday .	8	98	6 28	6 54	0 41	10 6	11 53	4 8	6 53
Tuesday .	9	99	6 27	6 54	0 41	11 2		5 8	7 15
Wednesday ..	10	100	6 26	6 55	0 40	11 57	0 44	6 8	7 38
Thursday	11	101	6 25	6 55	0 40	0 50	1 30	7.8	8 0
Friday .	12	102	6 24	6 55	0 40	1 42	2 11	8 8	8 22
Saturday	13	103	6 23	6 55	0 40	2 31	2 49	9 8	8 44
Sunday .	14	104	6 22	6 56	0 39	3 20	3 23	10 8	9 6
Monday .	15	105	6 21	6 56	0 39	4 8	3 56	11 8	9 27
Tuesday ..	16	106	6 20	6 56	0 39	4 56	4 29	12 8	9 49
Wednesday	17	107	6 19	6 57	0 38	5 45	5 2	13 8	10 10
Thursday ..	18	108	6 19	6 57	0 38	6 37	5 37	14 8	10 31
Friday .	19	109	6 18	6 57	0 38	7 30	6 14	15 8	10 52
Saturday .	20	110	6 17	6 57	0 38	8 27	6 56	16.8	11 13
Sunday ..	21	111	6 16	6 57	0 38	9 25	7 43	17 8	11 34
Monday ..	22	112	6 15	6 58	0 37	10 23	8 34	18.8	11 54
Tuesday ..	23	113	6 14	6 58	0 37	11 21	9 31	19 8	12 14
Wednesday ..	24	114	6 14	6 58	0 37		10 31	20.8	12 34
Thursday .	25	115	6 13	6 59	0 37	0 14	11 33	21.8	12 54
Friday ..	26	116	6 13	6 59	0 37	0 54	0 35	22.8	13 14
Saturday .	27	117	6 13	6 59	0 36	1 51	1 36	23.8	13 33
Sunday ..	28	118	6 12	7 0	0 36	2 34	2 35	24.8	13 53
Monday ..	29	119	6 12	7 0	0 36	3 15	3 35	25 8	14 11
Tuesday ..	30	120	6 12	7 0	0 36	3 55	4 34	26.8	14 39

Phases of the Moon—MAY 31 Days.

● New Moon 3rd, 5h 4m. 19 1902 21, 22c 8w
 ☾ First Quarter . . . 10th, 5h 21m 19 1902 21, 22c 8w

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month	Day of the Year.	Sun, Mon, Tue, Wed, Thur, Fri, Sat, Sun, Mon, Tue, Wed, Thur											
			Sunrise	Sunset	Moonrise	Moonset	Sunrise	Sunset	Moonrise	Moonset	Sunrise	Sunset	Moonrise	Moonset
Wednesday	1	121	6 11 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36	6 11 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36	6 11 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36
Thursday	2	122	6 11 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36	6 11 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36	6 11 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36
Friday ..	3	123	6 10 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36	6 10 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36	6 10 7	1 0 36	1 0 36	1 0 36
Saturday ..	4	124	6 10 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35	6 10 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35	6 10 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35
Sunday ..	5	125	6 9 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35	6 9 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35	6 9 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35
Monday ..	6	126	6 9 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35	6 9 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35	6 9 7	2 0 35	2 0 35	2 0 35
Tuesday ..	7	127	6 8 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34	6 8 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34	6 8 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34
Wednesday	8	128	6 7 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34	6 7 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34	6 7 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34
Thursday..	9	129	6 7 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34	6 7 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34	6 7 7	3 0 34	3 0 34	3 0 34
Friday ..	10	130	6 6 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33	6 6 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33	6 6 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33
Saturday	11	131	6 6 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33	6 6 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33	6 6 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33
Sunday .	12	132	6 5 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33	6 5 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33	6 5 7	4 0 33	4 0 33	4 0 33
Monday ..	13	133	6 5 7	5 0 32	5 0 32	5 0 32	6 5 7	5 0 32	5 0 32	5 0 32	6 5 7	5 0 32	5 0 32	5 0 32
Tuesday ..	14	134	6 5 7	5 0 32	5 0 32	5 0 32	6 5 7	5 0 32	5 0 32	5 0 32	6 5 7	5 0 32	5 0 32	5 0 32
Wednesday	15	135	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31
Thursday	16	136	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31
Friday ..	17	137	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 4 7	6 0 31	6 0 31	6 0 31
Saturday..	18	138	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30
Sunday ..	19	139	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30
Monday ..	20	140	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30	6 3 7	7 0 30	7 0 30	7 0 30
Tuesday ..	21	141	6 2 7	8 0 29	8 0 29	8 0 29	6 2 7	8 0 29	8 0 29	8 0 29	6 2 7	8 0 29	8 0 29	8 0 29
Wednesday	22	142	6 2 7	8 0 29	8 0 29	8 0 29	6 2 7	8 0 29	8 0 29	8 0 29	6 2 7	8 0 29	8 0 29	8 0 29
Thursday	23	143	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28
Friday ..	24	144	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28
Saturday..	25	145	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28	6 2 7	9 0 28	9 0 28	9 0 28
Sunday ..	26	146	6 2 7	10 0 27	10 0 27	10 0 27	6 2 7	10 0 27	10 0 27	10 0 27	6 2 7	10 0 27	10 0 27	10 0 27
Monday ..	27	147	6 2 7	10 0 27	10 0 27	10 0 27	6 2 7	10 0 27	10 0 27	10 0 27	6 2 7	10 0 27	10 0 27	10 0 27
Tuesday ..	28	148	6 2 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26	6 2 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26	6 2 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26
Wednesday	29	149	6 1 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26	6 1 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26	6 1 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26
Thursday	30	150	6 1 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26	6 1 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26	6 1 7	11 0 26	11 0 26	11 0 26
Friday ..	31	151	6 1 7	12 0 25	12 0 25	12 0 25	6 1 7	12 0 25	12 0 25	12 0 25	6 1 7	12 0 25	12 0 25	12 0 25

Phases of the Moon—JUNE 30 Days.

● New Moon 1st, 1h. 22m P M ○ Full Moon 17th, 1h 50m A M.
 ☾ First Quarter 9th, 11h 19m A M ☾ Last Quarter 28rd, 7h 51m P M

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time								Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise A M		Sunset P M		True Noon P M		Moonrise	Moonset		
			H	M	H	M.	H	M	A M	P M	D	N.
Saturday .	1	152	6	1	7	12	0	36	5 40	7 26	29 4	21 56
Sunday .	2	153	6	1	7	12	0	36	6 36	8 22	1 0	22 4
Monday .	3	154	6	1	7	13	0	37	7 33	9 13	2 0	22 12
Tuesday .	4	155	6	1	7	13	0	37	8 29	9 59	3 0	22 20
Wednesday .	5	156	6	1	7	14	0	37	9 23	10 42	4 0	22 27
Thursday .	6	157	6	1	7	14	0	37	10 15	11 19	5 0	22 34
Friday .	7	158	6	1	7	14	0	37	11 5	11 53	6 0	22 40
Saturday .	8	159	6	1	7	15	0	37	11 53 P M		7 0	22 46
Sunday ..	9	160	6	1	7	15	0	38	0 41	A M 0 26	8 0	22 52
Monday ..	10	161	6	1	7	15	0	38	1 29	0 59	9 0	22 57
Tuesday ..	11	162	6	1	7	16	0	38	2 18	1 32	10 0	23 2
Wednesday ..	12	163	6	1	7	16	0	38	3 10	2 7	11 0	23 6
Thursday ..	13	164	6	1	7	16	0	38	4 4	2 45	12 0	23 10
Friday ..	14	165	6	1	7	17	0	39	5 1	3 28	13 0	23 13
Saturday..	15	166	6	1	7	17	0	39	6 1	4 17	14 0	23 16
Sunday ..	16	167	6	1	7	17	0	39	7 2	5 11	15 0	23 19
Monday ..	17	168	6	1	7	17	0	39	8 0	6 11	16 0	23 22
Tuesday .	18	169	6	2	7	18	0	39	8 55	7 14	17 0	23 23
Wednesday .	19	170	6	2	7	18	0	40	9 46	8 19	18 0	23 25
Thursday ..	20	171	6	2	7	18	0	40	10 31	9 22	19 0	23 26
Friday ..	21	172	6	2	7	18	0	40	11 14	11 24	20 0	23 27
Saturday ..	22	173	6	3	7	19	0	40	11 54 A M	11 23 P M	21 0	23 27
Sunday ..	23	174	6	3	7	19	0	41		0 21	22 0	23 27
Monday ..	24	175	6	3	7	19	0	41	0 34	1 19	23 0	23 26
Tuesday .	25	176	6	3	7	19	0	41	1 15	2 18	24 0	23 25
Wednesday .	26	177	6	3	7	19	0	41	1 57	3 17	25 0	23 24
Thursday .	27	178	6	4	7	19	0	41	2 44	4 17	26 0	23 22
Friday ..	28	179	6	4	7	20	0	42	3 34	5 16	27 0	23 20
Saturday..	29	180	6	4	7	20	0	42	4 26	6 13	28 0	23 17
Sunday	30	181	6	4	7	20	0	42	5 22	7 6	29 0	23 14

Phases of the Moon—SEPTEMBER 30 Days.

☾ First Quarter 6th, 7h. 56m. A.M. ☾ Last Quarter 19th, 7h 53m. P.M.
 ○ Full Moon 13th, 1h. 48m. A.M. ● New Moon 27th, 10h. 59m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time.						Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon				
			Sunrise A M		Sunset. P M		True Noon P M				Moon-rise. A M		Moon-set P M	
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.	N
Sunday ..	1	244	6	23	6	55	0	30	8	40	8	30	3 3	8 36
Monday ..	2	245	6	24	6	54	0	30	9	30	9	16	4 3	8 15
Tuesday ..	3	246	6	24	6	53	0	38	10	20	9	56	5 3	7 53
Wednesday ..	4	247	6	24	6	52	0	38	11	23	10	40	6 3	7 31
Thursday ..	5	248	6	24	6	51	0	38	0	10	11	20	7 3	7 9
Friday ..	6	249	6	25	6	50	0	37	1	16			8 3	6 46
Saturday ..	7	250	6	25	6	50	0	37	2	12	A M 0	23	9 3	6 24
Sunday ..	8	251	6	25	6	49	0	37	3	6	1	23	10 3	6 2
Monday ..	9	252	6	25	6	48	0	36	3	58	2	25	11 3	5 30
Tuesday ..	10	253	6	25	6	47	0	36	4	16	3	20	12 3	5 17
Wednesday ..	11	254	6	25	6	46	0	36	5	32	4	33	13 3	4 54
Thursday ..	12	255	6	25	6	45	0	35	6	16	5	36	14 3	4 31
Friday ..	13	256	6	26	6	44	0	35	7	0	6	40	15 3	4 8
Saturday ..	14	257	6	26	6	43	0	35	7	44	7	43	16 3	3 15
Sunday ..	15	258	6	26	6	43	0	34	8	31	8	46	17 3	3 22
Monday ..	16	259	6	26	6	42	0	34	9	20	9	49	18 3	2 59
Tuesday ..	17	260	6	26	6	41	0	33	10	12	10	52	19 3	2 36
Wednesday ..	18	261	6	27	6	40	0	33	11	0	11	54	20 3	2 13
Thursday ..	19	262	6	27	6	39	0	33			P M 0	52	21 3	1 49
Friday ..	20	263	6	27	6	38	0	32	A M 0	2	1	44	22 3	1 26
Saturday ..	21	264	6	27	6	37	0	32	0	58	2	32	23 3	1 3
Sunday ..	22	265	6	27	6	36	0	32	1	52	3	14	24 3	0 40
Monday ..	23	266	6	27	6	36	0	31	2	44	3	53	25 3	0 16
Tuesday ..	24	267	6	27	6	35	0	31	3	35	4	28	26 3	0 5
Wednesday ..	25	268	6	28	6	34	0	31	4	23	5	2	27 3	0 30
Thursday ..	26	269	6	28	6	33	0	30	5	11	5	35	28 3	0 54
Friday ..	27	270	6	28	6	32	0	30	5	58	6	7	29 3	1 17
Saturday ..	28	271	6	28	6	31	0	30	6	46	6	41	0 0	1 41
Sunday ..	29	272	6	29	6	30	0	29	7	35	7	17	1 0	2 4
Monday ..	30	273	6	29	6	29	0	29	8	26	7	56	2 0	2 27

Phases of the Moon—OCTOBER 31 Days.

☾ First Quarter 5th, 7h 10m P M ☾ Last Quarter . 19th, 11h 6m A M
 ○ Full Moon . 12th, 10h 9m A M ● New Moon . 27th, 3h 45m P M

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon				
			Sunrise A M		Sunset P M		True Noon P M				Moon-rise A M		Moon-set P M	
			H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	D.	S.
Tuesday	1	274	6	29	6	29	0	29	9	18	8	38	3 6	2 50
Wednesday	2	275	6	29	6	28	0	29	10	13	9	25	4 6	3 14
Thursday	3	276	6	30	6	27	0	29	11	9	10	17	5 6	3 37
Friday	4	277	6	30	6	26	0	28	0	4	11	14	6 6	4 0
Saturday	5	278	6	30	6	26	0	28	0	57			7 6	4 24
Sunday	6	279	6	30	6	25	0	28	1	49	A M 0	13	8 6	4 47
Monday	7	280	6	31	6	24	0	28	2	37	1	15	9 6	5 10
Tuesday	8	281	6	31	6	23	0	27	3	22	2	16	10 6	5 33
Wednesday	9	282	6	31	6	22	0	27	4	6	3	18	11 6	6 56
Thursday	10	283	6	32	6	21	0	27	4	49	4	19	12 6	6 19
Friday	11	284	6	32	6	20	0	27	5	32	5	21	13 6	6 42
Saturday	12	285	6	32	6	19	0	27	6	18	6	24	14 6	7 4
Sunday	13	286	6	33	6	18	0	26	7	7	7	29	15 6	7 27
Monday	14	287	6	33	6	17	0	26	7	59	8	33	16 6	7 49
Tuesday	15	288	6	33	6	16	0	26	8	54	9	37	17 6	8 12
Wednesday	16	289	6	33	6	15	0	26	9	51	10	39	18 6	8 34
Thursday	17	290	6	34	6	14	0	25	10	49	11	35	19 6	8 56
Friday	18	291	6	34	6	13	0	25	11	45	P M 0	26	20 6	9 18
Saturday	19	292	6	34	6	12	0	25			1	11	21 6	9 40
Sunday	20	293	6	35	6	12	0	25	A M 1	38	1	52	22 6	10 2
Monday	21	294	6	35	6	11	0	24	1	30	2	29	23 6	10 23
Tuesday	22	295	6	35	6	10	0	24	2	19	3	2	24 6	10 45
Wednesday	23	296	6	35	6	9	0	24	3	7	3	35	25 6	11 6
Thursday	24	297	6	36	6	8	0	24	3	55	4	8	26 6	11 27
Friday	25	298	6	36	6	8	0	24	4	42	4	42	27 6	11 48
Saturday	26	299	6	36	6	7	0	23	5	31	5	17	28 6	12 9
Sunday	27	300	6	37	6	7	0	23	6	22	5	55	29 6	12 29
Monday	28	301	6	37	6	7	0	23	7	14	6	37	0 9	12 50
Tuesday	29	302	6	37	6	6	0	23	8	8	7	24	1 9	13 10
Wednesday	30	303	6	37	6	6	0	23	9	4	8	14	2 9	13 30
Thursday	31	304	6	38	6	6	0	23	10	0	9	9	3 9	13 50

Phases of the Moon—NOVEMBER 30 Days.

☾ First Quarter . . . 4th, 11h. 5m. A.M. ; ☾ Last Quarter . . . 17th, 11h. 5m. P.M.
 ○ Full Moon . . . 10th, 4h. 1m. P.M. ; ● New Moon . . . 21st, 11h. 5m. P.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Rise and Set Times												Age of Moon	Illumination
			Sunrise A.M.	Sunset P.M.	Moonrise P.M.	Moonset A.M.	Hour	Min.	Sec.	Hour	Min.	Sec.	Hour	Min.		
Friday	1	305	6 55	6 5	0 22	10 15	10	15	1	10	15	1	10	15	1	14
Saturday	2	306	6 52	6 7	0 22	11 4	11	4	1	11	4	1	11	4	2	14
Sunday	3	307	6 50	6 9	0 22	0	12	0	1	12	0	1	12	0	3	14
Monday	4	308	6 49	6 10	0 22	1 17	1	17	0	1	17	0	1	17	4	15
Tuesday	5	309	6 48	6 11	0 22	2 10	2	10	1	2	10	1	2	10	5	15
Wednesday	6	310	6 47	6 12	0 22	3 1	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	6	15
Thursday	7	311	6 46	6 13	0 22	4 0	4	0	2	4	0	2	4	0	7	16
Friday	8	312	6 45	6 14	0 22	4 58	4	58	2	4	58	2	4	58	8	16
Saturday	9	313	6 44	6 15	0 22	5 54	5	54	3	5	54	3	5	54	9	17
Sunday	10	314	6 43	6 16	0 22	6 49	6	49	4	6	49	4	6	49	10	17
Monday	11	315	6 42	6 17	0 22	7 42	7	42	5	7	42	5	7	42	11	18
Tuesday	12	316	6 41	6 18	0 22	8 34	8	34	6	8	34	6	8	34	12	18
Wednesday	13	317	6 40	6 19	0 22	9 24	9	24	7	9	24	7	9	24	13	19
Thursday	14	318	6 39	6 20	0 22	10 13	10	13	8	10	13	8	10	13	14	19
Friday	15	319	6 38	6 21	0 22	11 0	11	0	9	11	0	9	11	0	15	20
Saturday	16	320	6 37	6 22	0 22	11 47	11	47	10	11	47	10	11	47	16	20
Sunday	17	321	6 36	6 23	0 22	12 34	12	34	11	12	34	11	12	34	17	21
Monday	18	322	6 35	6 24	0 22	1 21	1	21	12	1	21	12	1	21	18	21
Tuesday	19	323	6 34	6 25	0 22	2 7	2	7	1	2	7	1	2	7	19	22
Wednesday	20	324	6 33	6 26	0 22	2 53	2	53	2	2	53	2	2	53	20	22
Thursday	21	325	6 32	6 27	0 22	3 39	3	39	3	3	39	3	3	39	21	23
Friday	22	326	6 31	6 28	0 22	4 24	4	24	4	4	24	4	4	24	22	23
Saturday	23	327	6 30	6 29	0 22	5 9	5	9	5	5	9	5	5	9	23	24
Sunday	24	328	6 29	6 30	0 22	5 54	5	54	6	5	54	6	5	54	24	24
Monday	25	329	6 28	6 31	0 22	6 39	6	39	7	6	39	7	6	39	25	25
Tuesday	26	330	6 27	6 32	0 22	7 24	7	24	8	7	24	8	7	24	26	26
Wednesday	27	331	6 26	6 33	0 22	8 8	8	8	9	8	8	9	8	8	27	27
Thursday	28	332	6 25	6 34	0 22	8 53	8	53	10	8	53	10	8	53	28	28
Friday	29	333	6 24	6 35	0 22	9 38	9	38	11	9	38	11	9	38	29	29
Saturday	30	334	6 23	6 36	0 22	10 23	10	23	12	10	23	12	10	23	30	30

Phases of the Moon—DECEMBER 31 Days.

☾ First Quarter .. 3rd, 0h. 58m P.M. ☾ Last Quarter . 18th, 3h. 27m A.M.
 ○ Full Moon ..10th, 8h. 40m A.M. ● New Moon ..25th, 11h. 19m. P.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time								Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.		
			Sunrise A M		Sunset P M		True Noon P M		Moon-rise A M				Moon-set P M	
			H	M	H	M.	H	M	H	M	H	M	D.	S.
Sunday	1	335	6	55	6	0	0	28	11	17	11	0	5 2	21 41
Monday	2	336	6	55	6	0	0	28	11	59	11	58	6 2	21 50
Tuesday	3	337	6	56	6	0	0	28	0	40			7 2	21 59
Wednesday	4	338	6	57	6	0	0	29	1	20	0	56	8 2	22 8
Thursday	5	339	6	58	6	0	0	29	2	2	1	54	9 2	22 16
Friday	6	340	6	59	6	1	0	30	2	44	2	54	10 2	22 24
Saturday	7	341	6	59	6	1	0	30	3	32	3	56	11 2	22 31
Sunday	8	342	6	59	6	1	0	30	4	24	4	58	12 2	22 38
Monday	9	343	7	0	6	1	0	31	5	19	6	1	13 2	22 44
Tuesday	10	344	7	0	6	2	0	31	6	16	7	3	14 2	22 50
Wednesday	11	345	7	1	6	2	0	32	7	16	8	1	15 2	22 56
Thursday	12	346	7	2	6	3	0	32	8	14	8	53	16 2	23 1
Friday	13	347	7	2	6	3	0	33	9	9	9	39	17 2	23 6
Saturday	14	348	7	3	6	3	0	33	10	2	10	21	18 2	23 10
Sunday	15	349	7	3	6	4	0	34	10	53	10	58	19 2	23 14
Monday	16	350	7	4	6	4	0	35	11	41	11	33	20 2	23 17
Tuesday	17	351	7	4	6	5	0	35			0	6	21 2	23 20
Wednesday	18	352	7	5	6	5	0	36	0	29	0	39	22 2	23 22
Thursday	19	353	7	5	6	6	0	36	1	17	1	13	23 2	23 24
Friday	20	354	7	6	6	6	0	37	2	5	1	48	24 2	23 25
Saturday	21	355	7	7	6	7	0	37	2	57	2	27	25 2	23 26
Sunday	22	356	7	7	6	7	0	38	3	49	3	10	26 2	23 27
Monday	23	357	7	8	6	8	0	38	4	44	3	58	27 2	23 27
Tuesday	24	358	7	8	6	9	0	39	5	41	4	52	28 2	23 26
Wednesday	25	359	7	9	6	9	0	39	6	39	5	49	29 2	23 25
Thursday	26	360	7	9	6	9	0	40	7	33	6	51	0 6	23 24
Friday	27	361	7	10	6	10	0	40	8	25	7	53	1 6	23 22
Saturday	28	362	7	10	6	10	0	41	9	13	8	54	2 6	23 20
Sunday	29	363	7	11	6	10	0	41	9	57	9	54	3 6	23 17
Monday	30	364	7	11	6	11	0	41	10	40	10	52	4 6	23 14
Tuesday	31	365	7	11	6	11	0	42	11	20	11	50	5 6	23 10

CALENDAR FOR 1936.

JANUARY.

Sun	5	12	19	26	*
M	6	13	20	27	*
T	7	14	21	28	*
W	1	8	15	22	*
Th	2	9	16	23	*
F	3	10	17	24	*
S	4	11	18	25	*

JULY.

Sun	5	12	19	26	*
M	6	13	20	27	*
Tu	7	14	21	28	*
W	1	8	15	22	*
Th	2	9	16	23	*
F	3	10	17	24	*
S	4	11	18	25	*

FEBRUARY.

Sun	2	9	16	23	*
M	3	10	17	24	*
T	4	11	18	25	*
W	5	12	19	26	*
Th	6	13	20	27	*
F	7	14	21	28	*
S	1	8	15	22	*

AUGUST.

Sun...	2	9	16	23	30
M	3	10	17	24	31
Tu	4	11	18	25	*
W	5	12	19	26	*
Th	6	13	20	27	*
F	7	14	21	28	*
S	1	8	15	22	29

MARCH.

Sun	1	8	15	22	29
M	2	9	16	23	30
T	3	10	17	24	31
W	4	11	18	25	*
Th	5	12	19	26	*
F	6	13	20	27	*
S	7	14	21	28	*

SEPTEMBER.

Sun	6	13	20	27	*
M	7	14	21	28	*
Tu	1	8	15	22	29
W	2	9	16	23	30
Th	3	10	17	24	*
F	4	11	18	25	*
S	5	12	19	26	*

APRIL.

Sun	5	12	19	26	*
M	6	13	20	27	*
T	7	14	21	28	*
W	1	8	15	22	*
Th	2	9	16	23	30
F	3	10	17	24	*
S	4	11	18	25	*

OCTOBER.

Sun...	4	11	18	25	*
M	5	12	19	26	*
Tu	6	13	20	27	*
W	7	14	21	28	*
Th	1	8	15	22	29
F	2	9	16	23	30
S	3	10	17	24	31

MAY.

Sun	3	10	17	24	31
M	4	11	18	25	*
T	5	12	19	26	*
W	6	13	20	27	*
Th	7	14	21	28	*
F	1	8	15	22	29
S	2	9	16	23	30

NOVEMBER.

Sun	1	8	15	22	29
M	2	9	16	23	30
Tu	3	10	17	24	*
W	4	11	18	25	*
Th	5	12	19	26	*
F	6	13	20	27	*
S	7	14	21	28	*

JUNE.

Sun	14	21	28	*
M	1	8	15	22
T	2	9	16	23
W	3	10	17	24
Th	4	11	18	25
F	5	12	19	26
S	6	13	20	27

DECEMBER.

Sun	6	13	20	27	*
M	7	14	21	28	*
Tu	1	8	15	22	29
W	2	9	16	23	30
Th	3	10	17	24	31
F	4	11	18	25	*
S	5	12	19	26	*

PREFACE



THE Editors have to thank many correspondents who during the past year have sent them suggestions for the improvement of this book. The Indian Year Book is intended above all to be a book of reference, and its completeness and convenience of arrangement must necessarily depend to a great extent on the part taken in its editing by the members of the public who most use it.

The help extended to the Editors by various officials, and more particularly by the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence, Bombay, and the Indian Commercial Intelligence Department, has again been readily given and is most gratefully acknowledged. Without such help it would be impossible to produce the Year Book with up-to-date statistics.

Suggestions for the improvement or correction of the Year Book may be sent to the Editors at any time, but those which reach them before January have a better chance of being adopted than later suggestions which only reach them after the work of revision has been partly completed.

The Times of India, Bombay,
April, 1935.

An Indian Glossary.

ABKARI—Excise of liquors and drugs.

AOHHUT—Untouchable (Hindi) Asuddhar.

AORFACE CONTRIBUTION—Contribution paid by holders of land irrigated by Government

ADHIRAJ—Supreme ruler, overlord, added to "Maharaja," &c, it means "paramount"

AFSAR—A corruption of the English "officer"

AHIMSA—Non violence

AHLUWALIA—Name of a princely family resident at the village of Ahlu, near Lahore

AIN—A timber tree *TERMINALIA TOMENTOSA*

AKALI—Originally, a Sikh devotee, one of band founded by Guru Govind Singh (who died 1708) now, a member of the politico-religious army (*dal*) of reforming Sikhs.

AKHARA—A Hindu school of gymnastics

AKHUNDZADA—Son of a Head Officer.

AMJAH—Of exalted rank.

ALIGHOL—Literally a Mahomedan circle. A kind of athletic club formed for purposes of self-defence.

ALI RAJA—Sea King (Laccadives)

AM—Mango.

AMIL—A name given in Sind to educated members of the Lohana community, a Hindu caste consisting principally of bankers, clerks and minor officials

AMIR (corruptly *Emir*)—A Mohammedan Chief, often also a personal name.

AMMA—A goddess, particularly Mariamma, goddess of small-pox, South India.

AMGUT—A dam or weir across a river for irrigation purposes, Southern India

ANJUMAN—A communal gathering of Mahomedans.

APRUS—Believed to be a corruption of ALPHONSE, the name of the best variety of Bombay mango

ARZ, ARZI, ARZ-DASHT—Written petition.

ASAF—A minister.

ASPRISHYA—Untouchable (Sanskrit).

AUS—The early rice crop, Bengal, syn Ahu, Assam

AVATAR—An incarnation of Vishnu.

AYURVEDA—Hindu science of Medicine.

BABA—Lit "Father," a respectful "Mr" Irish "Your Honour."

BABU—(1) A gentleman in Benval, corresponding to Pant in the Deccan and Konkan (2) Hence used by Anglo-Indians of a clerk or accountant Strictly a 5th or still younger son of a Raja but often used of any son younger than the heir, whilst it has also grown into a term of address—Esquire There are, however, one or two Rajas whose sons are known respectively as—1st, Kunwar; 2nd, Diwan, 3rd, Thakur. 4th, Lal, 5th Babu

BABUL—A common thorny tree, the bark of which is used for tanning, *ACACIA ARABICA*

BADMAH—A bad character: a rascal

BAGR—Tiger or Panther

BAGHLA—(1) A native boat (Buggalow), (2) The common pond heron or paddy bird

BAHADUR—Lit "brave" or "warrior", a title used by both Hindus and Mohammedans, often bestowed by Government, added to other titles, it increases their honour but alone it designates an inferior ruler.

BAIRAGI—A Hindu religious mendicant.

BAJRA OR BAJRI—The bulrush millet, a common food-grain, *Pennisetum typhoides*, syn. cambu, Madras.

BAKSHI—A revenue officer or magistrate

BAKSHISH—Cherl-merl (or Chiri-miri) Tip

BAND—A dam or embankment (Bund).

BANDAR—Monkey.

BANYAN—A species of fig-tree, *Ficus bengalensis*.

BARA SING—Swamp deer,

BARSAT—(1) A fall of rain, (2) the rainy season

BARSATI—Farcy (horse's disease)

BASTI—(1) A village, or collection of huts, (2) A Jain temple, Kanara

BATTA—Lit 'discount' and hence allowances by way of compensation

BATTAK—Duck.

BAWARCHI—Cook in India, Syn *Mistri*, in Bombay only

BAZAR—(1) A street lined with shops, India proper; (2) a covered market, Burma.

BEGUM or **BEGAM**—The feminine of "Nawab" combined in Bhopal as "Nawab Begum"

BER—A thorny shrub bearing a fruit like a small plum, *Zizyphus jujuba*.

Note—According to the Hunterian system of transliteration here adopted the vowels have the following values—a either long as the a in 'father' or short as the u in 'cut,' e as the a in 'gain,' i either short as the i in 'bib,' or long as the ee in 'feel,' o as the o in 'bone,' u either short as the oo in 'good,' or long as the oo in 'boot,' ai as the i in 'mife,' au as the ou in 'grouse' This is only a rough guide. The vowel values vary in different parts of India in a marked degree.

BESAR.—In Hindi (also Gujarati Vesar)—Woman's nose-ring

BEWAR.—Name in Central Provinces for shifting cultivation in jungles and hill-sides; syn taungya, Burma; jhum, North-Eastern India

BHADOL.—Early autumn crop, Northern India reaped in the month Bhadon.

BHAGAT OR BHAKTA.—A devotee.

BHAG-BATAI.—System of payment of land revenue in kind.

BHAIKAND.—Relation or man of same caste or community.

BHAIKANDI.—Nepotism.

BHANGI.—Sweeper, scavenger.

BHANG.—The dried leaves of the hemp plant, CANNABIS SATIVA, a narcotic.

BHANWAR.—Light sandy soil; syn bhar.

BHANWARLAL.—Title of heir apparent in some Rajput States.

BHARAL.—A Himalayan wild sheep, OVIS NAHURA.

BHARAT.—India.

BHARATA-VARSHA.—India

BHENDI.—A succulent vegetable (HIBISCUS ESCULENTUS).

BHONSLE.—Name of a Maratha dynasty

BHUP.—Title of the ruler of Cooch Behar

BHUGTI.—Name of a Baluch tribe.

BHUSA.—Chaff, for fodder.

BHUT.—The spirit of departed persons.

BIDRI.—A class of ornamental metalwork in which blackened pewter is inlaid with silver, named from the town of Bidar, Hyderabad.

BIGHA.—A measure of land varying widely; the standard bigha is generally five-eighths of an acre "Vigha" in Gujarat and Kathiawar.

BHISHTI.—Commonly pronounced "Bhishti" Water-carrier (lit. "man of heaven").

BIR (BID).—A grassland—North India, Gujarat and Kathiawar. Also "Vidi."

BLACK COTTON SOIL.—A dark-coloured soil very retentive of moisture, found in Central and Southern India.

BOARD OF REVENUE.—The chief controlling revenue authority in Bengal, the United Provinces and Madras

BOHRA.—A sect of Ismaili Shia Musalmans, belonging to Gujarat.

BOR.—See BER.

BRINJAL.—A vegetable, SOLANUM MELONGENA; syn. egg-plant

BUND.—Embankment

BUNDER, or bandar.—A harbour or port Also "Monkey."

BURJ.—A bastion in a line of battlements

CADJAN.—Palm leaves used for thatch.

CHABUK.—A whip

CHABUTRA.—A platform of mud or plastered brick, used for social gatherings, Northern India.

CHADAR.—A sheet worn as a shawl by men and sometimes by women (Chudder.)

CHAITYA.—An ancient Buddhist chapel.

CHAMBHAR (CHAMAR).—"Cobbler", "Shoemaker" A caste whose trade is to tan leather

CHAMPAK.—A tree with fragrant blossoms, MICHELIA CHAMPACA.

CHANA.—Gram.

CHAND.—Moon

CHANDI.—(Pron with soft d) Silver; Chandi (with palatal and short a)—Goddess Durga.

CHAPATI.—A cake of unleavened bread.

CHAPRASI.—An orderly or messenger, Northern India, syn. pattawala, Bombay; peon, Madras.

CHARAS.—The resin of the hemp plant

CANNABIS SATIVA, used for smoking.

CHARKHA.—A spinning wheel.

CHARPAI (charpoy).—A bedstead with four legs, and tape stretched across the frame for a mattress.

CHAUDHRI.—Under native rule, a subordinate revenue official; at present the term is applied to the headman or representative of a trade guild.

CHAWK, CHOWK.—A place where four roads meet

CHAUKIDAR.—The village watchman and rural policeman.

CHAUTH.—The fourth part of the land revenue, exacted by the Marathas in subject territories.

CHAVRI (CHORO GUJARATI).—Village headquarters.

CHETTAH.—Hunting leopard.

CHELA.—A pupil, usually in connexion with religious teaching.

CHHAONI.—A collection of thatched huts or barracks; hence a cantonment.

CHHATRAPATI.—One of sufficient dignity to have an umbrella carried over him.

CHHATRI.—(1) An umbrella, (2) domed building such as a cenotaph.

CHIEF COMMISSIONER.—The administrative head of one of the lesser Provinces in British India.

CHIKOR.—A kind of partridge, CACCABIS CHUCOR.

CHIKU.—The Bombay name for the fruit of ACHRAS SAPOTA, the Sapodilla plum of the West Indies

CHINAR.—A plane tree, PLATANUS ORIENTALIS.

CHINKARA.—The Indian gazelle, GAZELLA BENNETTI, often called 'ravine deer.'

CHITAL.—The spotted deer, *OERVUS AXIS*.

CHODDAR.—Mace-bearer whose business is to announce the arrival of guests on state occasions.

CHOLAM.—Name in Southern India for the large millet, *ANDROPOGON SORGHUM*: syn *jowar*.

CHOLI.—A kind of short bodice worn by women.

CHOWRIE.—Fly-whisk.

CHUNAM, chuna.—Lime plaster.

CIRCLE.—The area in charge of—(1) A Conservator of Forests; (2) A Postmaster or Deputy Postmaster-General; (3) A Superintending Engineer of the Public Works Department.

CIVIL SURGEON.—The officer in medical charge of a District.

COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit can be arrested by the police without a warrant.

COLLECTOR.—The administrative head of a District in Bengal, Bombay, Madras, etc. Syn. Deputy Commissioner.

COMMISSIONER.—(1) The officer in charge of a Division or group of Districts; (2) the head of various departments, such as Stamps, Excise, etc.

COMPOUND.—The garden and open land attached to a house. An Anglo-Indian word perhaps derived from 'kumpan', a hedge.

CONSERVATOR.—The Supervising Officer in charge of a Circle in the Forest Department.

COUNCIL BILLS.—Bills or telegraphic transfers drawn on the Indian Government by the Secretary of State in Council.

COUNT.—Cotton yarns are described as 20's, 30's, etc., counts when not more than a like number of hanks of 840 yards go to the pound avoirdupois.

COURT OF WARDS.—An establishment for managing estates of minors and other disqualified persons.

CRORR, karor.—Ten millions.

DADA.—Lit. "grandfather" (paternal); any venerable person. In Bombay slang a "hooligan boss."

DAFFADAR.—A non-commissioned native officer in the army or police.

DAFTAR.—Office records.

DAFTAR.—Record-keeper.

DAH OR DAO.—A cutting instrument with no point, used as a sword, and also as an axe, Assam and Burma.

DAK (dawk).—A stage on a stage coach route. Dawk bungalow is the travellers' bungalow maintained at such stages in days before railways came.

DAKAITI, DAKOITY.—Robbery by five or more persons.

DAL.—(Pron with dental d and short a) "Army," hence any disciplined body, *eg*, Akali Dal, Seva Dal.

DAL.—A generic term applied to various pulses.

AM.—An old copper coin, one-fortieth of a rupee.

DARBAR.—(1) A ceremonial assembly, especially one presided over by the Ruler of a State hence (2) the Government of a Native State.

DARGAH.—A Mahomedan shrine or tomb of a saint.

DARI, Dhurrie.—A rug or carpet, usually of cotton, but sometimes of wool.

DARKHAST.—A tender or application to rent land.

DAROGHA.—The title of officials in various departments; now especially applied to subordinate controlling Officers in the Police and Jail Departments.

DARSHAN.—Lit. "Sight" To go to a temple to get a sight of the idol is to make "darshan". Also used in case of great or holy personages.

DARWAN.—A door-keeper.

DARWAZA.—A gateway.

DASTURI.—Customary perquisite.

DAULA AND DAULAT.—State.

DEB.—A Brahminical priestly title; taken from the name of a divinity.

DEBOTTAR.—Land assigned for the upkeep of temples or maintenance of Hindu worship.

DEODAR.—A cedar, *OEDRUS LEBANI* or *C DEODARA*.

DEPUTY COMMISSIONER.—The Administrative head of a District in the Punjab, Central Provinces, etc. Syn. Collector.

DEPUTY MAGISTRATE AND COLLECTOR.—A subordinate of the Collector, having executive and judicial (revenue and criminal) powers; equivalent to Extra Assistant Commissioner in non-regulation areas.

DERA.—Tent in N. India.

DERASAR.—Jain Temple.

DESAI.—A revenue official under native (Maratha) rule.

DESH.—(1) Native country; (2) the plains as opposed to the hills, Northern India; (3) the plateau of the Deccan above the Ghats.

DESH-BHAKTA.—Patriot.

Deshi.—Indigenous, opposed to *bideshi*, foreign.

DESHMUKH.—A petty official under native (Maratha) rule.

DESH-SAVIKA.—Servant (Fem) of the country, Female Volunteer in the Civil Disobedience movement.

DEVA.—A deity.

DEVADASI.—A girl dedicated to temple or God. Muri in Maharashtra.

DEVASTHAN.—Land assigned for the upkeep of a temple or other religious foundation.

Dewan.—A Vizier or other First Minister to an Indian Chief, either Hindu or Mohammedan, and equal in rank with "Sardar" under which see other equivalents. The term is also used of a Council of State.

DHAK.—A tree, *BUTEA FRONDOSA*, with brilliant orange-scarlet flowers used for dyeing, and also producing a gum; syn. *palas*, Bengal and Bombay; *Ohhlui*, Central India; "Kha-khro" in Gujarat and Kathlawar.

DHAMNI—A heavy shighram or tonga drawn by bullocks.

DHARALA—Bhil, Koli, or other warlike castes carrying sharp weapons.

DHARMA—Religion (Hindu)

DHARMSALA—A charitable institution provided as a resting-place for pilgrims or travellers, Northern India.

DHATURA—A stupefying drug, **DATURA AFSTUOSA**.

DHED—A large untouchable caste in Gujarat, corresponding to Mahar in Maharashtra and Holeya in Karnatak.

DHENKLI—Name in Northern India for the lever used in raising water; syn. piccottah.

DHOBI—A washerman.

DHOTI—The loincloth worn by men.

DIN—Religion (Mahomedan).

DISTRICT—The most important administrative unit of area.

DIVISION—(1) A group of districts for administrative and revenue purposes, under a Commissioner; (2) the area in charge of a Deputy Conservator of Forests, usually corresponding with a (revenue) District; (3) the area under a Superintendent of Post Offices, (4) a group of (revenue) districts under an Executive Engineer of the Public Works Department.

DIWAN (SIKH)—Communal Gathering

DIWALI—The lamp festival of Hindus.

DIWANI—Civil, especially revenue, administration; now used generally in Northern India of civil justice and Courts.

DOAB—The tract between two rivers, especially that between the Ganges and Jumna.

DOM—Untouchable caste in Northern India

DRUG—A hill-fort, Mysore.

DRY CROP—A crop grown without artificial irrigation.

DRY RATE—The rate of revenue for unirrigated land.

DUN—(Pron. "doon") A valley, Northern India.

EKKA—A small two-wheeled conveyance drawn by a pony, Northern India.

ELOHI, ELAHLI—Cardamom.

ELOHI (Turk)—Ambassador.

ELAYA RAJA—Title given to the heir of the Maharaja of Travancore or Cochin

EXTRA ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER—See Deputy Magistrate and Collector.

FAKIR—Properly an Islamic mendicant but often loosely used of Hindu mendicants also

FAMINE INSURANCE GRANT—An annual provision from revenue to meet direct famine expenditure, or the cost of certain classes of public works, or to avoid debt

FARMAN—An imperial (Mughal) order or grant

FARZAND—Lit means "child" with the defining words added such as "Farzand-e-dilband" in the case of several Indian Princes it means beloved, favourite, etc.

FARZANDARI or FAZANDARI—A kind of land tenure in Bombay City.

FASLI—Era (solar) started by Akbar, A.C. minus 572-3.

FATEH—"Victory."

FATEH JANG—"Victorious in Battle" (a title of the Nizam).

FATWA—Judicial decree or written opinion of a doctor of Muslim law.

FAUJDARI—Relating to a criminal court, criminal proceedings.

FAUJDARI—Under native rule, the area under a Faujdar or subordinate governor; now used generally of Magistrates' Criminal Courts.

FINANCIAL COMMISSIONER—The chief controlling revenue authority in the Punjab, Burma and the Central Provinces.

FITTON GARI—A phaeton, Bombay. Derived from the English.

GADDI, Gadl—The cushion or throne of (Hindu) royalty.

GAEKWAR (sometimes **GUICOWAR**).—Title with "Maharaja" added of the ruler of Baroda. It was once a caste name and means "cowherd," i.e., the protector of the sacred animal; but later on, in common with "Holkar" and "Sindhia," it came to be a dynastic appellation and consequently regarded as a title. Thus, a Prince becomes "Gaekwar" on succeeding to the estate of Baroda; "Holkar," to that of Indore and "Sindhia," to that of Gwalior.

(All these are surnames of which Gaekwar and Shinde are quite common among Marathas—and even Mahars).

GANJA—The unfertilised flowers of the cultivated female hemp plant, **CANNABIS SATIVA**, used for smoking.

GAUR—Wild cattle, commonly called 'bison' **BOS GAURUS**.

GAYAL—A species of wild cattle, **BOS FRONTALIS**, domesticated on the North-East Frontier; syn. mithan

GHADE—Minty, Revolution.

GHARRIE (GARR)—A carriage, cart.

GHAT, Ghant—(1) A landing-place on a river, (2) the bathing steps on the bank of a tank; (3) a pass up a mountain; (4) in European usage, a mountain range. In the last sense especially applied to the Eastern and Western Ghats

GHATWAL—A tenure-holder who originally held his land on the condition of guarding the neighbouring hill passes (ghats), Bengal.

GHAZI—One who engaged in "Ghazv," a holy War, i.e., against kafirs.

GHI, Ghee—Clarified butter.

GINGELLY.—See **TIL**.

GODOWN—A store room or warehouse. An Anglo-Indian word derived from the Malay "gadang"

GOPI—Cowherd girl. The dance of the youthful Krishna with the Gopis is a favourite subject of paintings

GORUBAN.—A gateway, especially applied to the great temple gateways in Southern India.

GOSAIN, Goswami.—A (Hindu) devotee; lit. one who restrains his passions.

GOSHA.—Name in Southern India for 'parda women'; lit. the word "Gosha" means corner or seclusion; "one who sits in" is the meaning of the word "Nashin" which is usually added to "Gosha" and "Parda" e.g. Goshanashin Pardananashin.

GRAM.—A kind of pea, *CICER ARIETINUM*. In Southern India the pulse *DOLICHOS BIFLORUS* is known as horse gram.

GRANTHA-SAHIB.—Sikh holy book.

GUNJ.—The red seed with a black 'eye' of *ABRUS PRECATORIUS*, a common wild creeper, used as the official weight for minute quantities of opium 93th of a TOLA.

GUP, OR GUP SHUP.—Tittle tattle.

GUR, Goor.—Crude sugar; syn. jaggery, Southern India; tanyet, Burma.

GURAL.—A Himalayan goat antelope, *CEMA GORAL*.

GURDWARA.—A Sikh Shrine.

GURU.—(1) A Hindu religious preceptor. (2) a schoolmaster, Bengal.

HABSHI.—Literally an Abyssinian. Now a term for anyone whose complexion is particularly dark.

HADITH.—(commonly pronounced "Hadis") Tradition of the Prophet.

HAFIZ.—Guardian, one who has Quran by heart.

HAJ.—Pilgrimage to Mecca.

HAIJ, HAJJAY.—A barber.

HAIJ.—A Mahomedan who has performed the haj. He is entitled to dye his beard red.

HAKIM.—A native doctor practising the Mahomedan system of medicine.

HAKIM (with long a).—Governor, ruler.

HALAL.—Lawful (from Islam point of view). Used of meat of animal ceremoniously slaughtered with a sawing motion of the knife. cf. "Jhatka".

HALAL-KHORE.—A sweeper or scavenger; lit. one to whom everything is lawful food.

HALL.—Current. Applied to coin of Native States, especially Hyderabad.

HAWAL.—(1) A porter or cooly, (2) a house servant.

HAQ.—A right.

HARWAR.—Untouchables. The term originally means "the people of God". According to Mr. Gandhi the term was suggested by certain of the class themselves who did not care for the description of "untouchable", and it was copied from the example of a poet of Gujarat.

HEJIRA (HJIRAH).—The era dating from the flight of Mahomed to Mecca, June 20th, 622 A.D.

HEEZA LAL.—A Hindu name ('Hira' is diamond and 'Lal' is ruby).

HILSA.—A kind of fish, *CLUPPEA HILSA*.

HOSNDI, HUSD.—A draft (banking.)

HOLKAR.—See "Gaskwar."

HRI.—An iron pinnacle placed on a pagoda in Burma.

HUFKA, HOOKAH.—The Indian tobacco pipe.

HUKM.—An order.

HUSD.—A bill of exchange.

INDAH.—An enclosed place outside a town where Mahomedan services are held on festivals known as the Id, etc.

ILAKHE.—A department (Nakha in Marathi and Gujarati Languages means Presidency.)

IMAM.—The layman who leads the congregation in prayer. Mahomedan.

IKAM.—Lit. 'reward.' Hence land held revenue free or at a reduced rate, often subject to service. See DEVASTHAN, SARANJAM, WAKAF.

INFUNDATION CANAL.—A channel taken off from a river at a comparatively high level, which conveys water only when the river is in flood.

IZZAT.—Prestige.

JACK FRUIT.—Fruit of *ARTOCARPUS INTREGRIFFOLIA*, var. *PHALAS*.

KACHCHA.—Unripe, mud-built, inferior.

JAGGEY, Jagri.—Name in Southern India for crude sugar; syn. gur.

JAGIR.—An assignment of land, or of the revenue of land held by a Jagirdar.

JAH.—A term denoting dignity, applied to highest class nobles in Hyderabad State.

JAM (Sindhi or Baluch).—Chief. Also the Jam of Nawanganagar.

JAMABANDI.—The annual settlement made under the ryotwari system.

JAMADAR.—A native officer in the army or police.

JANGAMA.—A Lingayat priest.

JAPTIL.—Distrust; attachment; corrupt of "Zabti."

JATHA.—An association.

JATKA.—Pony-cart, South India.

JAZIRAT-UL-ARAB.—The Sacred Island of Arabia, including all the countries which contain cities sacred to the Mahomedans: Arabia, Palestine and Mesopotamia.

JHATEA.—"Stroke", use of meat of animal slaughtered with a stroke as opposed to "Halal". s. v.

JHIL.—A natural lake or swamp, Northern India; syn. bil, Eastern Bengal and Assam.

JIHAD.—A religious war undertaken by Musalmans.

JIRGA.—A council of tribal elders, North-West frontier.

JOGL (YOGI).—A Hindu ascetic.

JOSHI.—Village astrologer.

JOWAR.—The large millet, a very common food-grain, *ASTROPHOGON DORSUM*, or *SORGHUM VULGARE*; syn. cholam and jols, in Southern India.

JUDL.—A revenue term in S. Division of the Bombay Presidency.

JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER.—An officer exercising the functions of a High Court in the Central Provinces, Oudh, and Sind.

KACHOHA.—Unripe, mud built, inferior.

KACHERI, kachahri.—An office or office building, especially that of a Government official.

KADAR, karbi.—The stalk of jowari (q. v.)—a valuable fodder

KAFIR.—Infidel, applied by Muslims to all non-Muslims

KAJU, kashew.—The nut of *ANACARDIUM OCCIDENTALE*, largely grown in the Konkan.

KAKAR.—The barking deer, *CERVULUS MUNTJAO*.

KAKRI.—Cucumber.

KALAR, kallar.—Barren land covered with salt or alkaline efflorescences, Northern India.

KALI-YUGA — } The Iron age. (short a).

KALI — } (long a)

KALI — Popular goddess, consort of Shiva.

KALI — Black soil.

KALIMA —The Mahomedan Confession of faith

KAMARBAND, Cumberbund.—A waistcloth, or belt

KANAT —The wall of a large tent "Kanat" (in Persia)—Underground Canal.

KANGAR —A kind of portable warming-pan, carried by persons in Kashmir to keep themselves warm.

KANKAR —Nodular limestone, used for metal-ling roads, as building stones or for preparation of lime.

KANS.—A coarse grass which spreads and prevents cultivation especially in Bundelkhand *SACCHARUM SPONTANEUM*.

KANUNGO.—A Revenue Inspector.

KAPAS —Cotton.

KARAIT —A very venomous snake, *BUNGARUS CAUDATUS* or *CAERULEUS*

KARBHARI —A manager. Also Dewan in smaller States in Maharashtra and Gujarat

KAREZ —(Persian 'Kanat') Underground tunnels near the skirts of hills by which water is gradually led to the surface for irrigation, especially in Baluchistan.

KARKUN.—A clerk or writer, Bombay.

KARMA —The doctrine that existence is conditioned by the sum of the good and evil actions in past existences.

KARNAM —See **PATWARI**

KARTOOS —A cartridge

KAS —The five "Kas" which denote the Sikh are *Kes*, the uncut hair; *Kachh*, the short drawers; *Kara*, the iron bangle; *Kirpan*, the steel knife; and *Kangha*, the comb

KASAI.—A butcher.

KAZI.—Better written *Qazi*.—Under native rule, a judge administering Mahomedan law Under British rule, the *kazi* registers marriages between Mahomedans and performs other functions, but has no powers conferred by law.

KHARIFA —Letter from an Indian Prince to the Governor-General.

KHABARDAR.—Beware.

KHADI (or **KHADDER**) —Cotton cloth hand-woven from hand-spun yarn.

KHALASI —A native fireman, sailor, artilleryman, or tent-pitcher.

KHALSA.—Lit 'pure' (1) Applied especially to themselves by the Sikhs, the word *Khalsa* being equivalent to the Sikh community; (2) land directly under Government as opposed to land alienated to grantees, etc., Northern India, and Deccan

KHAN.—Originally the ruler of a small Mohammedan state, now a nearly empty title though prized. It is very frequently used rather as *part* of a name, especially by Afghans and Pathans.

KHANDI, candy. A weight especially used for cotton bales in Bombay, equivalent to 20 mds.

KHANSAMA.—A butler.

KHARAB —Also "Kharaba" In Bombay of any portion of an assessed survey No which being uncultivable is left unassessed

KHARGOSH —Hare.

KHARIF —Any crops sown just before or during the main S W. monsoon

KHAS.—Special, in Government hands. *Khas tahasildar*, the manager of a Government estate

KHASADAR —Local levies of foot soldiers, Afghanistan or N W. Frontier.

KHAS-KHAS, Kus-Kus —A grass with scented roots, used for making screens which are placed in doorways and kept wet to cool a house by evaporation, *ANDROPOGON SQUARROBUS*.

KHEDDA, kheda —A stockade into which wild elephants are driven; also applied to the operations for catching.

KHICHADI, kejjerree —A dish of cooked rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specially used of rice with fish

KHILAT.—A robe of honour.

KHUTBA.—The weekly prayer for Mahomedans in general and for the reigning sovereign in particular.

KHWAJA.—A Persian word for "master," sometimes a name.

KINGOB, kamkhwab —Silk textiles brocaded with gold or silver.

KIRPAN —A Sikh religious emblem; a sword

KISAN —Agriculturist, used in North India "Ryot" in Maharashtra, etc.

KODALI Also "Kudali".—The implement like a hoe or mattock in common use for digging; syn *mamti*, Southern India.

KONKAN —The narrow strip of low land between the Western ghats and the sea.

KOS —A variable measure of distance usually estimated at about two miles. The distance between the *kos*-minars or milestones on the Mughal Imperial roads averages a little over 2 miles, 4 furlongs, 150 yards Also means the leathern water-lift drawn by bullocks in Gujarat and Kathiawar.

KOT —Battlements

KOTHI —A large house.

KOTWAL —The head of the police in a town, under native rule The term is still used in Hyderabad and other parts of India.

KOTWALL.—The chief police station in a headquarters town.

KUOHA BANDI.—A barrier or gateway erected across a lane.

KURF.—Infidelity, unbelief in the Quran and the Prophet.

KULKARNI.—See **PATWARI**.

KUMBHAMELA.—The great fair at Hardwar, so called because when it is held every 12 year Jupiter and Sun are in the sign Kumbhas, (Aquarius).

KUMBHAR—(M.) A potter. U—"Kumhar"

KUNBI.—An agriculturist (Kanbi in Gujarat Kurmi in N. India.)

KUNWAR OR KUMAR.—The heir of a Raja. (Every son of any chief in Gujarat and Kathlawar)

KURAN.—A big grass land growing grass fit for cutting

KUSHTI (U), KUSTI (M).—Wrestling.

KYARI.—Land embanked to hold water for rice cultivation

KYAUNG.—A Buddhist monastery, which always contains a school, Burma

LAKH, lac.—A hundred thousand.

LAL.—A younger son of a Raja (strictly a 4th son, but see under "Babu").

LAMBARDAR.—The representative of the co-sharers in a zamindari village, Northern India.

LANGUR.—A large monkey, *SEMNOPTHEOUS ENTELLUS*

LASGAR, correct *lashkar*.—(1) an army, (2) in English usage an Indian sailor.

LAT.—A monumental pillar "Lat" Hindus tant corruption of "Lord" e.g., "Bara Lat"—Viceroy, "Jangl Lat"—Commander-in-Chief, "Chhota Lat" Governor.

LATERITE.—A vesicular material formed of disintegrated rock, used for buildings and making roads, also probably valuable for the production of aluminium Laterite produces a deep brichord soil.

LINGAM.—The phallic emblem, worshipped as the representative of Shiva.

LITOH.—A fruit tree grown in North India (*LITOH CHINENSIS*).

LOKANANYA.—(Lit) Esteemed of the people A national hero.

LOKENDRA OR LOKINDRA.—"Protector of the World," title of the Chiefs of Dholpur and Datia.

LONGYI.—A waistcloth, Burma.

LOTA.—A small brass water-pot.

LUNGI, loongi.—A cloth (coloured dhoti) simply wound round the waist.

MADREASA.—A school especially one for the higher instruction of Mahomedans

MAHAJAN.—The guild of Hindu or Jain merchants in a city. The head of the Mahajan is the Nagarsheth (q v).

MAHAL.—(1) Formerly a considerable tract of country; (2) now a village or part of a village for which a separate agreement is taken for the payment of land revenue; (3) a department of revenue, e.g., right to catch elephants, or to take stone; (4) in Bombay a small Taluka under a MAHALKARI.

MAHANT.—The head of a Hindu conventual establishment.

MAHARAJA.—The highest of hereditary rulers among the Hindus, or else a personal distinction conferred by Government It has several variations as under "Raja" with the addition of MAHARAJ RANA; its feminine is MAHARANI (MAHA=great)

MAHARAJ KUMAR.—Son of a Maharaja.

MAHATMA.—(lit) A great soul, applied to men who have transcended the limitations of the flesh and the world.

MAHAMAKOPADHYAYA.—A Hindu title denoting learned in Sanskrit lore.

MAHSEER, mahasir.—A large carp. *BARPUS*-FOR (lit. 'the big-headed').

MAHUA.—A tree, *BASSIA LATIFOLIA*, producing flowers used (when dried) as food or for distilling liquor, and seeds which furnish oil

MAHURAT.—The propitious moment fixed by astrologers for an important undertaking.

The word in Sanskrit and Marathi is "Muhurta", in Gujarati "Murrat" or "Mhurat"

MAIDAN.—An open space of level ground the park at Calcutta.

MAINA.—A bird.

MAJOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which separate accounts are kept of capital, revenue, and interest

MAJUR.—A labourer (in Bombay).

MAKTAB.—An elementary Mahomedan school

MALGUZAR (revenue payer).—(1) The term applied in the Central Provinces to a co-sharer in a village held in ordinary proprietary tenure, (2) a cultivator in the Chamba State.

MAKTA.—Licence, monopoly.

MAKTADAR.—A licensee, monopolist.

MALI.—A gardener.

MALIK.—Master, proprietor.

MAMLATDAR (Mar. "Mamledar.")—The officer in charge of a taluka, Bombay, whose duties are both executive and magisterial, syn *tahasildar* Mar "Mamledar")

MANDAP, or mandapam.—A porch or pillared hall, especially of a temple.

MANGOSTEEN.—The fruit of *GARCINIA MANGOSTANA*

MARI.—A Baluch tribe. (Bhugtis and Maris generally spoken of together.)

MARKHOR.—A wild goat in North-Western India, *CAPRA FALCONERI*.

MASJID.—A mosque. Jama Masjid, the principal mosque in a town, where worshippers collect on Fridays,

MASNAD.—Seat of state or throne, Mahomedan; syn. gaddi.

MATH.—A Hindu conventional establishment.

MAULANA.—A Mahomedan skilled in Arabic and religious knowledge.

MAULVI.—A person learned in Muhammadan law.

MAUND, ver. Man.—A weight varying in different localities. The Ry. maund is 80 lbs.

MAYA.—Sanskrit term for "cosmic illusion" in Vedanta philosophy.

MEHRL or MAHAL.—A palace.

MELA.—A religious festival or fair.

MIAN.—Title of the son of a Rajput Nawab resembling the Scottish "Master."

MIHRAB.—The niche in the centre of the western wall of a mosque.

MINBAR.—Steps in a mosque, used as a pulpit.

MINAR.—A pillar or tower.

MINOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which regular accounts are not kept, except, in some cases, of capital.

MIR.—A leader, an inferior title which, like "Khan," has grown into a name, especially used by descendants of the Chiefs of Sind.

MIRZA.—If prefixed, "Mr." or "Esquire."

MOFUSSIL.—See MUFFASSAL.

MISTRY.—(1) a foreman, (2) a cook.

MOHUR.—A Gold coin no longer current, worth about Rs. 16.

MOLESALAM.—A class of land holding Rajput Musalmans in Gujarat who have retained Hindu names and customs.

MONG, MOUNG, OR MAUNG (Arakanese).—Leader.

MORA.—Stool.

MONSOON.—Lit. Season, and specifically (1) The S. W. Monsoon, which is a Northward extension of the S. E. trades, which in the Northern Summer cross the equator and circulate into and around the low pressure area over North India, caused by the excessive heating of the land area, and (2) The N. E. Monsoon, which is the current of cold winds blowing down during the Northern winter from the cold land areas of Central Asia, giving rain in India only in S. E. Madras and Ceylon through moisture acquired in crossing the Bay of Bengal, and passing across the equator into the low pressure areas of the Australasian Southern summit.

MOPLAR (Mappila).—A fanatical Mahomedan sect in Malabar.

MOULVI OR MAULVI.—A learned Musalman or Muslim teacher.

MUDANIYAR OR MUD-LIAR.—A personal proper name, but implying "steward of the lands."

MUREZIN.—Person employed to sound the Mahomedan call to prayer.

MUFFASSAL, mofussil.—The outlying parts of a District, Province or Presidency, as distinguished from the headquarters (Sadri).

MUJAWAR.—Custodian of Musalman sacred place, especially Saint's tomb.

MUSTAHIJ.—Lit. One who wages war against infidels. Learned Mahomedan. Generic name given to custodian of Mahomedan sacred places in some parts.

MUKADAM.—Chief, leader; in Bombay, leader of coolie gang; also one employed by a merchant to superintend landing or shipment of goods.

MUKHTAR (corruptly mukhtiar).—(1) A legal practitioner who has not got a sanad and therefore cannot appear in court as of right, (2) any person holding a power of attorney on behalf of another person.

MUKHTIARKAR.—The officer in charge of a taluka, Sind, whose duties are both executive and magisterial; syn. tahasildar.

MUKTI, 'release'—The perfect rest attained by the last death and the final reabsorption of the individual soul into the world soul, syn. NIRVANA, MOKSHA.

MUMTAZ-UD-DAULA.—Distinguished in the State. MULK, in the country.

MUNG, mug.—A pulse, PHASEOLUS RADICATUS: syn. mag. Gujarat.

MUNJ.—(1) A tall grass (SACCHARUM MUNJA) in North India, from which mats are woven, and the Brahman sacred thread worn, (2) In Maharashtra "munj" means the thread ceremony.

MUNSHI.—A teacher of Hindustani or any Perso-Arabian language. President or presiding official. Also Secretary or writer.

MUNSHI.—Judge of the lowest Court with civil jurisdiction.

MURLI (DEVADASI).—A girl dedicated to a God or temple.

MURUM, moorum.—Gravel and earth used for metalling roads.

MUSALMAN, Muslim, Momin (plural Momin in North India, from which mats are woven, and the Brahman sacred thread worn, (2) In Maharashtra "munj" means the thread ceremony.

MYOWUN.—"Mr."

NAGHANI, NAGHI.—See RAGI.

NAGARKHANA, Nakkarkhana.—A place where drums are beaten.

NAGARSHETH.—The head of the trading guild of Hindu and Jain merchants in a city.

NAIB.—Assistant or Deputy.

NAIK.—A leader, hence (1) a local chieftain in Southern India, (2) a native officer of the lowest rank (corporal) in the Indian army (In Bombay a head peon.)

NAT.—A demon or spirit, Burma.

NAWAB.—A title borne by Musalmans, corresponding roughly to that of Raja among Hindus. Originally a Viceroy under the Moghal Government, now the regular leading title of a Mohammedan Prince, corresponding to "Maharaja" of the Hindu.

NAWABZADA.—Son of a Nawab.

NAZAR, nazarana.—A due paid on succession or on certain ceremonial occasions.

NAZIM.—Superintendent or Manager.

NET ASSETS.—(1) In Northern India, the rent or share of the gross produce of land taken by the landlord, (2) in Madras and Lower Burma, the difference between the assumed value of the crop and the estimate of its cost of production.

NEWAR.—Broad webbing woven across bedsteads instead of iron slabs.

NGAPL.—Pressed fish or salted fish paste largely made and consumed in Burma.

NILGAO.—Blue Bull. A large antelope.

NIM, neem.—A tree, *MELIA AZADIRACHTA* the berries of which are used in dyeing.

NIRVANA.—See **MUKTI**

NIKAH.—Muslim legal marriage.

NISHAN.—Sign, Sacred Symbol carried in a procession.

NIZAM.—The title of the ruler of Hyderabad, the one Mohammedan Prince superior to Nawab.

NIZAMAT.—A sub-division of a Native State, corresponding to a British District, chiefly in the Punjab and Bhopal.

NON-AGRICULTURAL ASSESSMENT.—Enhanced assessment imposed when land already assessed as agricultural is diverted to use as a building site or for industrial concerns.

NON-COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit cannot be arrested by the police without a warrant.

NONO (Tibetan).—The ruler of Spitta.

NON-OCCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenant, with few statutory rights, except in Oudh, beyond the terms in their leases or agreements.

NON-REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain Provinces to show that the regulations or full code of legislation was not in force in them.

NULLAH, NALA.—A ravine, watercourse, or drain.

OCCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenants with special rights in Central Provinces, in United Provinces.

PADAUK.—A well-known Burmese tree (*PEROCARPUS* sp.) from the behaviour of which the arrival of the monsoon is prognosticated.

PADDY.—Unhusked rice.

PAGA.—(Persian *Paigah*) troop of horses among the Marathas.

PAGL.—A tracker of thieves of strayed or stolen animals.

PAHAH.—A mountain.

PAIGAH.—A tenure in Hyderabad State. (Lit. Jagir for maintaining "Paigah," i.e., mounted troops.)

PAIK.—(1) A footsoldier, (2) in Assam formerly applied to every free male above sixteen years.

PAILI.—A grain measure.

PAILWAN, PAHLWAN.—Professional Wrestler.

PAIRIEE.—The name of the second best variety of Bombay mango, distinguishable from the *APRUS* (q.v.) by its pointed tip, and by the colour being less yellow and more green and red.

PAKKA, PUCCA.—Ripe, mature, complete.

PALAS.—See **DUAK**

PALKI.—A palanquin or litter.

PAN.—The betel vine, **PIPE BETEL**.

PANCHAMA.—Low caste, Southern India.

PANCHAYAT.—(1) A committee for management of the affairs of a caste, village, or town; (2) arbitrators. Theoretically the panchayat has five (panch) members.

PANDA.—A Hindu priest, especially at holy places.

PANDIT.—A Hindu title, strictly speaking applied to a person versed in the Hindu scriptures, but commonly used by Brahmans in Assam applied to a grade of inspectors of primary schools.

PANSUPARI.—Distribution of **PAN** and **SUPAR**. (q.v.) as a form of ceremonial hospitality.

PAPAIYA.—Fruit-tree or its fruit *Pawpaw* *Carica Papaya*.

PARAB.—A public place for the distribution of water, maintained by charity.

PARABADI.—A platform with a smaller platform like a dovecot on a centre pole or pillar built and endowed or maintained by charity, where grain is put every day for animals and birds.

PARDA, purdah.—(1) A veil or curtain; (2) the practice of keeping women secluded, syn. *gosha*.

PARDANASHIN.—Women who observe purdah.

PARDESI.—Foreign Used in Bombay especially of Hindu servants, syces, &c., from Northern India.

PARGANA.—Fiscal area or petty sub-division of a tahsil in Northern India.

PASHM.—The fine wool of the Tibetan goat, hence *Pashmina* cloth.

PASHTO, PUSHTO.—Language of the Pathans.

PASO.—A waistcloth.

PAT, put.—A stretch of firm, hard clay Desert.

PATEL.—A village headman, Central and Western India, syn. *reddi*, Southern India, *gaonbura*, Assam; *padhan* Northern and Eastern India *Mukhi*, Gujarat. (*Patil* in Maharashtra.)

PATIDAR.—A co-sharer in a village, Gujarat.

PATTAWALLA.—See **CHAPRASI**.

PATWARI.—A village accountant; syn. *karnam*, Madras, *kulkarni*, Bombay Deccan; *talati*, Gujarat; *shambhog*, Mysore, Kanara and Oorg, *mandal*, Assam; *tapedar*, Sind.

PEON.—See **CHAPRASI**.

PESHKAR.—One who brings forward, submits papers, etc., personal clerk.

PESHKASH.—A tribute or offering to a superior.

PILAO (pulav).—A dish of rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specifically used of chicken with rice and spices.

PHULKARI.—An embroidered sheet; lit. flower-work.

PICE, palsa—A copper or bronze coin worth one farthing; also used as a generic term for money.

PIOOTTAH.—A lever for raising water in a bucket for irrigation, Southern India; syn. dhenkul or dhenkuli, or dhikli, Northern India

PIPAL—Sacred fig tree. *Ficus Religiosa*.

PIR.—A Mahomedan religious teacher or saint

PLEADER—A class of legal practitioner.

PONGYI.—A Buddhist monk or priest, Burma.

POSTIN, Posteen—A coat or rug of sheep-skin tanned with the wool on, Afghanistan.

PRABHAT PHERI—Lit. "Morning round," of parties going round early in the morning singing political songs.

PRANT—An administrative sub-division in Maratha States, corresponding to a British District (Baroda) or Division (Gwalior); also in Kathlawar.

PRANT OR PRANT SAHEB—Sub-Divisional Officer (in Bombay Presidency)

PRESIDENCY.—A former Division of British India.

PRINCE—Term used in English courtesy for "Shahzada," but specially conferred in the case of "Prince of Arcot" (called also "Armin 1-Arcot").

PROTECTED.—Forests over which a considerable degree of supervision is exercised, but less than in the case of 'reserved' forests.

PROVINCE—One of the large Divisions of British India.

PUJA—Worship, Hindu.

PUJARI—The priest attached to a temple.

PUNDIT.—See Pandit.

PURANA—Lit 'old' Sanskrit (1) applied to certain Hindu religious books, (2) to a geological 'group'; (3) also to 'punch-marked' coins.

PURNA SWARAJ.—Complete independence.

PUROHIT—A domestic chaplain or spiritual guide, Hindu.

PWE—An entertainment, Burma

PYALS—Bands of revellers who accompany the Muharram processions.

QILLA.—A Fort.

RABI—Any crop sown after the main South-West monsoon

RAG, RAGINI.—Mode in Indian music.

RAGI (*Eleusine corocana*)—A small millet used as a food-grain in Western and Southern India; syn. marua, Nagli Nachni

RAIL-GARI.—Railway train.

RAIYAT OR RYOT—Farmer

RAJA—A Hindu Prince of exalted rank, but inferior to "Maharaja". The feminine is *Rani* (Princess or Queen), and it has the variations *Raj, Rana, Rao, Rai, Raul, Rawat, Raiwar, Raikbar* and *Raikat*. The form *Rai* is common in Bengal, *Rao* in S. & W. India.

RAJ KUMAR—Son of a Raja

RAJ RAJESHWAR.—King of Kings.

RAKOSHI—A caste whose work is to watch and ward in the village lands and hence used for any chaulkidar (*g. v.*) Actually a criminal tribe in Maharashtra.

RAJA—A title borne by some Rajput chiefs, equivalent to that of Raja.

RASI—The wife or widow of a Raja.

RANN OR RUKH—Flat land flooded in the monsoon and incrustated with salt when dry, *e.g.*, the Rann of Cutch.

RANZA.—Mausoleum, shrine.

RAO.—A title borne by Hindus, either equivalent to, or ranking below, that of Raja.

REGAR—Name for a black soil in Central and Southern India, which is very retentive of moisture, and suitable for growing cotton.

REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain provinces to show that the Regulations or full code of legislation applied to them.

REH—Saline or alkaline efflorescences on the surface of the soil, Northern India.

RESERVED—Forests intended to be maintained permanently

RICKSHAW—A one or two seat vehicle on two wheels drawn by coolies, used in the hills.

RISALDAR.—Commander of a troop of horses

ROHI, ROZ—Nilgai.

ROHU—A kind of fish, LASEO ROHITA.

ROTI.—Bread.

ROZA—Mushm fast during Ramazan. Also Mausoleum (corruption of "ranza.")

RYOTWARI—The system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on the actual occupants of holdings

SAHA—Assembly, Meeting, Council, Congress.

SADHU.—A Hindu ascetic.

SADH, sudder—Chief (adjective). Hence the headquarters of a District; formerly applied to the Appellate Courts

SAFA JANG—A long-handled battleaxe carried by Jat Sikhs.

SAFFLOWER—A thistle which yields a yellow dye from its petals and oil from its seeds (*CARTHAGUS TINCTORIUS*), ver. kardai, kushant

SAHEB—The native Hindu term used to or of a European ("Mr Smith" would be mentioned as "Smith Sahab," and his wife "Smith Mem-Sahab," but in addressing it would be "Saheb," fem "Saheba," without the name); occasionally appended to a title in the same way as "Bahadur," but inferior (=master)

- SAHIBZADA**.—Son of a person of consequence
- SAID, SAYID, SAIYID, SIDI, SYED, SYED**.—Various forms for a title adopted by those who claim direct male descent from Mohammed's grandson Husain
- SAL**.—A useful timber tree in Northern India.
- SHOREA ROBUSTA**.
- SAMBAR**.—A deer, *CERVUS UNICOLOR*; syn **SARAU**.
- SAMITI**.—Association, Union, Assembly.
- SAN**.—Bombay hemp, *CROTALAPIA JUNCEA*.
- SANAD**.—(1) A charter or grant, giving its name to a class of States in Central India held under a sanad, (2) any kind of deed or grants.
- SANGATHAN**.—Literally tying together. A movement which aims at unity and the knowledge of the art of self-defence among Hindus. A movement to unify the Hindu Community against non-Hindu aggression. The Hindu counterpart of the Musalman "Tanzim" q v.
- SANGHAN SAMITI**.—War Council in the present Civil Disobedience movement
- SANSYASI**.—A Hindu mendicant
- SAPL**.—A long piece of cloth worn by women
- SARANTAY**.—Land held revenue free or on a reduced quit-rent in consideration of political services rendered by the holder's ancestors originally feudal tenure land for maintaining troops
- SAEDAE** (corrupted to **SIEDAE**)—A leading Government official, either civil or military even a Grand Vizier. Nearly all the Punjab Barons bear this title. It and "Diwan" are held in value and used by both Hindus and Mohammedans. But Mohammedans only are "Wall," "Sultan," "Amir," "Mir," "Mirza," "Mian," and "Khan."
- SARKAR**.—(1) The Government; (2) a tract of territory under Muhammadan rule, corresponding roughly to a Division under British administration.
- SARSTHAN**.—An officer in charge of a Division in the Baroda State corresponding to Commissioner of British territories
- SATI**.—Suicide by a widow, especially on the funeral pyre of her husband.
- SARKEAR, SAUFAR, SOWHAR**.—Banker, dealer in money, exchange, etc; money lender.
- SATTAGRAHI**.—(lit. Insistence on truth), passive resistance
- SATTAGRAHI**.—A passive resister, one who will follow the truth wherever it may lead.
- SATTA**.—Speculation.
- SAUDAGAR**.—Merchant
- SAWAL**.—A Hindu title implying a slight distinction (lit. one-fourth better than others).
- SAWVA**.—A title borne by chiefs in the Shan States, Burma.
- SEKAL** or cotton tree. —A large forest tree with crimson flowers and pods containing a quantity of cotton, *BOMBAX MALABARICUM*.
- SEROW, SARAU**.—A goat antelope, *NEOMOTAFIDUS EUBALINUS*
- SETH, SHETH**.—Merchant, banker.
- SETTLEMENTS**.—(1) The preparation of a cadastral record and the fixing of the Government revenue from land; (2) the local inquiry made before Forest Reserves are created, (3) the financial arrangement between the Government of India and Local Governments
- SHAHID**.—A Musalman martyr
- SHAHZADA**.—Son of a King..
- SHAIKH or SHAFIKH** (Arabic)—A chief.
- SHAY'S-UL-ULAMA**.—A Mohammedan title denoting "learned."
- SHAMSHER JANG**.—"Sword of Battle" (a title of the Maharaja of Travancore.)
- SHANBEOO**.—See **PATWARI**.
- SHASTRI**.—The religious law-books of the Hindus.
- SHEGADI, seggaree, Shigri**.—A pan on 3 feet with live charcoal in it
- SHER**.—Tiger.
- SHER, SCR, SECR**.—A weight, or measure varying much in size in different parts of the country. The Railway **SCR** is about 2 lbs.
- SHETH, shethia**.—A Hindu or Jain merchant.
- SHI'AS**.—Musalman who accept Ali as the lawful Khalif and successor of the prophet and deny the Khalifate of the first three Khalifs.
- SHIGHZAN**.—See **TONGA**.
- SHISHAM or SHSU**.—Blackwood. A valuable timber tree *DALBERGIA SIESOO*.
- SHRADDDHA**.—Annual Hindu ceremony of propitiating the manes.
- SHEUTI**.—Literally "heard". Vedas revealed to inspired Rishis.
- SHEOFF**.—Banker.
- SHUCHHI**.—Literally purification. A movement started in Rajputana and Northern India for the reconversion to Hinduism of those, like the Malakans Rajputs, who, though Mahomedans for some generations, have retained many Hindu practices.
- SILL**.—A variation of "Said." Generic name for negroes domiciled in the Bombay Presidency. Also applied by the French to the negroes in their Army.
- SILLADAE**.—A native trooper who furnishes his own horse and equipment.
- SINDHIA**.—See under "Gaekwar."
- SKRITI**.—Unrevealed Laws, as opposed to **SHRUTI**, revealed Vedas.
- SOJA**.—A water-plant with a valuable pith *AECHYNOKENE ASPERA*.
- SONI, SOFAR**.—Goldsmith.
- SOWAR**.—A mounted soldier or constable.
- SOWHAR**.—Merchant.
- SWADESHI**.—Lit. Swa=one's own, desh=of country. There is actually a shade of difference between the two, the "Swa" emphasizing the preference against everything "par," foreign.

SRI OR **SHRI**.—Lit. fortune, beauty, a Sanskrit term used by Hindus in speaking of a person much respected (never addressed to him; nearly = "Esquire"); used also of divinities. The two forms of spelling are occasioned by the intermediate sound of the *s* (that of *s* in the German *Stadt*).

SRIJUT, **SRIYUT**.—Modern Hindu equivalent of "Mr."

STUPA or **tope**.—A Buddhist tumulus, usually of brick or stone, and more or less hemispherical, containing relics.

SUBAH—(1) A province under Mahomedan rule; (2) the officer in charge of a large tract in Baroda, corresponding to the Collector of a British District; (3) a group of Districts or Division, Hyderabad.

SUBAHDAH.—(1) The governor of a province under Mahomedan rule; (2) a native infantry officer in the Indian Army; (3) an official in Hyderabad corresponding to the Commissioner in British territory.

SUB-DIVISION.—A portion of a District in charge of a junior officer of the Indian Civil Service or a Deputy Collector.

SULTAN.—A King.

SUNNAT.—Traditional law followed by Sunnis

SUNNIS.—Musalmans who accept the first four Khalifs as lawful successors of the Prophet

SUPARI.—The fruit of the betel palm, *ARECA CATECHU*

SUPERINTENDENT.—(1) The chief police officer in a District, (2) the official in charge of a bill station; (3) the official, usually of the Indian Medical Service, in charge of a Central Jail.

SURAJ, **SURYA**.—Sun.

SURTI.—Native of Surat, specially used of persons of the dhed caste who work as house servants of Europeans, and whose house speech is Gujarati. Also called "Lala" or "Lalla."

SWAMI.—A Hindu religious ascetic. Also applied to Shankaracharyas, Mahants of Math, etc.

SYCE, **sais**.—A groom.

SYED, **SYUD**.—More variations of "Said."

TABLIGH.—The Mahomedan conversion movement.

TABUT.—See **TAZIAH**.

TAHSIL.—A revenue sub-division of a District syn. taluka, Bombay; taluka, Madras and Mysore; township, Burma.

TAHSILDAR.—The officer in charge of a tahsil; syn. Mamlatdar, Bombay; township officer, or myo-ok, Burma; Mukhtarkar, Sind; Vahivatdar, Baroda. His duties are both executive and magisterial.

TAKAVI.—Loans made to agriculturists for seed, bullocks, or agricultural improvements, syn. tagal. Also "Tagavi" (M. "Tagal"). Bombay.

TAKHI.—Small distaff for spinning yarn brought into fashion by Mr. Gandhi

TAL.—Lake; Musical time.

TALAK.—Mahomedan term for divorce

TALATI.—Village accountant.

TALAV, or **talao**.—A lake or tank.

TALUE, **taluka**.—The estate of a talukdar in Oudh, Gujarat and Kathiawar. A revenue sub-division of a District, in Bombay, Madras and Mysore; syn. tashil.

TALUKDAR.—A landholder with peculiar tenures in different parts of India. (1) An official in the Hyderabad State, corresponding to the Magistrate and Collector (First Talukdar) or Deputy Magistrates and Collectors (Second and Third Talukdars); (2) a landholder with a peculiar form of tenure in Gujarat.

TALPUR.—The name of a dynasty in Sind.

TAMAKHU, **TAMBAKU**.—Tobacco.

TAMASHA.—Entertainment, gala. In sarcastic sense, exhibition.

TAMBU.—Tent in the Bombay Presidency.

TAMTAM, **tumtum**.—A North Indian name for a light trap or cart.

TANK.—In Southern, Western, and Central India, a lake formed by damming up a valley, in Northern India, an excavation holding water

TANZIM.—Literally "organization." A movement among the Mahomedans which aims at securing better education and a closer approach to unity among Mahomedans in India.

TAPEDAR.—See **PATWARI**.

TASAL.—A moist swampy tract; the term especially applied to the tract along the foot of the Himalayas.

TARI, **toddy**.—The sap of the date, palmyra, or coconut palm, used as a drink, either fresh or after fermentation. In Northern India the juice of the date is called *Sendhl*.

TASAR, **tersore**.—Wild silkworms, *ANTHRAEA PAPHIA*; also applied to the cloth made from their silk.

TATUL.—Brush woodfence or hurdle.

TAZIA.—Lath and paper models of the tombs of Hasan and Husain, carried in procession at the Muharram festival; syn. tabut, Marathi, dola.

TEAK.—A valuable timber tree in Southern and Western India and Burma, *TEQTONA GRANDIS*.

TELEGRAPHIC TRANSFERS.—See Council bills.

THAGI, **thuggee**.—Hobbery after strangulation of the victim.

THAKUR.—(1) The modern equivalent of the caste name *Kshatriya* in some parts of Northern India; (2) a title of respect applied to Brahmins; (3) a petty chief; (4) a hill tribe in the Western Ghats.

THAMIN.—The brow-antlered deer, Burma *CERVUS ELDI*

THANA.—Military or Police-Station hence the circle attached to it.

TID or TIR.—Locust.

TIKA.—(1) Ceremonial anointing on the forehead; (2) vaccination.

TIKA SAHEB.—Hair-apparent in several North Indian States

TIKAM.—The English pickaxe (of which "pikass" is the common corruption "Tikam" is derived in dictionaries from *Tikima*=Sharp)

TIL.—An oilseed, *SESAMUM INDICUM*; also known as gingelly in Madras.

TILAK.—(Short a) the caste mark on the forehead among Hindus

TINDAL, tandel.—A foreman, subordinate officer of a ship.

TIPAL, Teapoy.—A table with 3 legs, and hence used of any small European style table.

TITAB.—Partridge.

TOLA.—A weight equivalent to 180 grains (troy)

TONGA.—A one or two horsed vehicle with a covered top; syn. *SHIGHRAM*.

TOTE.—The word invariably used by South Indian planters to describe their estates. It is derived from the Kanarese *thola* and similar words in Tamil and Malayalam meaning an estate.

TSINE.—Wild cattle found in Burma and to the southward, *BOS SONDAICUS* syn. *hsaing* and *banteng*.

TUMANDAR.—A Persian word denoting some Office.

ULEMA, (Plural of Alim)—Mahomedan learned men.

UMARA.—Term implying the Nobles collectively. Plural of "Amir."

UMBAR.—A wild fig—(*FICUS GLOMERATA*).

UMEDWAR.—A hopeful person; one who works, without pay in the hope of gaining a situation; candidate.

UNIT.—A term in famine administration denoting one person relieved for one day.

URDU.—Hindustani language as spoken and written by Mussalmans opposed to Hindi, spoken and written by Hindus.

URIAL.—A wild sheep in North-Western India, *OVIS VIGRI*.

URID, UDID.—A pulse, "black grain" (*PHASEOLUS MUNG*)

URUS.—Mahomedan fete held in connexion with celebration at the tomb of a saint.

USAR.—Soil made barren by saline effluence, Northern India.

USTAD.—Master teacher, one skilled in any art or science.

UTHAMSA.—Among Hindus, consolation visit paid on second or third day after the death of a person. Among Parsis, a religious ceremony held on the third day after the death of a person.

VAHIYATDAR.—Officer in charge of a revenue sub-division, with both executive and magisterial functions, Baroda; syn. *tahsildar*.

VAID or Baldya (Is also a caste in Bengal)—A native doctor practising the Hindu system of medicine.

VARIL.—(1) A class of legal practitioners; (2) an agent generally.

VEDA.—Revealed sacred books of Hindus.

VEDANTA.—The philosophy of the Upanishads.

VIHARA.—A Buddhist monastery.

VILLAGE.—Usually applied to a certain area demarcated by survey, corresponding roughly to the English parish.

VILLAGE UNION.—An area in which local affairs are administered by a small committee.

WAAZ.—Mahomedan sermon.

WADA or WADL.—(1) An enclosure with houses built round facing a centre yard; (2) private closed land near a village.

WAKF.—A Mahomedan religious or charitable endowment

WALI.—Like "Sardar." The Governor of Khelat is so termed, whilst the Chiefs of Kabul are both "Wali" and "Mir."

WAO.—A step well.

WATAN.—A word of many senses. In Bombay Presidency used mostly of the land or cash allowance enjoyed by the person who performs some service useful for Government or to the village community.

WAZIR.—The chief minister at a Mahomedan court.

WET RATH.—The rate of revenue for land assured of irrigation.

WHITER.—South Indian equivalent of *babu*

YAMA.—Hindu god of death.

YOGA.—A system of Hindu philosophy. Practice of breath control, etc, said to give supernatural powers.

YOGI.—A Hindu ascetic who follows the Yoga system, a cardinal part of which is that it confers complete control over bodily functions

YUNANI.—Lit Greek; the system of medicine practised by Mahomedans.

ZABARDAST.—Lit. "Upper hand," hence strong, oppressive.

ZABARDASTI.—Oppression.

ZAMINDAR.—A landholder.

ZAMINDARI.—(1) An estate; (2) the rights of a landholder, zamindar; (3) the system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on an individual or community occupying the position of a landlord.

ZANANA.—Of women. Women's apartment, harem.

ZIARAT.—Pilgrimage Ziarat-gah, any shrine or tomb to which people go in pilgrimage.

ZIKR.—Commemorative prayer said at the tomb of the prophet or a Mahomedan saint.

ZILA.—A District

ZOE-TALAB.—Tribute paid to Jnnagadh Darbar by numerous Kathiawar States.

ZULM, ZULUM.—Tyranny, Oppression.

Manners and Customs.

Next to the complexion of the people, which varies from fair to black, the tourist's attention in India is drawn by their dress and personal decoration. In its simplest form a Hindu's dress consists of a piece of cloth round the loins. Many an ascetic, who regards dress as a luxury, wears nothing more, and he would dispense with even so much if the police allowed him to. The Mahomedan always covers his legs, generally with trousers, sometimes with a piece of cloth tied round the waist and reaching to the ankles. Hill men and women, who at one time wore a few leaves before and behind and were totally innocent of clothing, do not appear to-day within the precincts of civilisation and will not meet the tourist's eye. Children, either absolutely nude or with a piece of metal hanging from the waist in front, may be seen in the streets in the most advanced cities, and in the homes of the rich. The child Krishna, with all the jewels on his person, is nude in his pictures and images.

Dress.—The next stage in the evolution of the Hindu dress brings the loincloth nearly down to the feet. On the Malabar coast, as in Burma, the ends are left loose in front. In the greater part of India, they are tucked up behind—a fashion which is supposed to befit the warrior, or one end is gathered up in folds before and the other tucked up behind. The simplest dress for the trunk is a scarf thrown over the left shoulder, or round both the shoulders like a Roman toga. Under this garment is often worn a coat or a shirt. When an Indian appears in his full indigenous dress, he wears a long robe, reaching at least down to the calves; the sleeves may be wide, or long and sometimes puckerd from the wrist to the elbow. Before Europeans introduced buttons, a coat was fastened by ribbons, and the fashion is not obsolete. The Mahomedan prefers to button his coat to the left, the Hindu to the right. A shawl is tied round the waist over the long coat, and serves as a belt, in which one may carry money or a weapon, if allowed. The greatest variety is shown in the head-dress. More than seventy shapes of caps, hats, and turbans, may be seen in the city of Bombay. In the Punjab and the United Provinces, in Bengal, in Burma and in Madras other varieties prevail. Cones and cylinders, domes and truncated pyramids, high and low, with sides at different angles: folded brims, projecting brims long strips of cloth wound round the head or the cap in all possible ways, ingenuity culminating perhaps in the "parrot's beak" of the Maratha turban—all these fashions have been evolved by different communities and in different places, so that a trained eye can tell from the head-covering whether the wearer is a Hindu, Mahomedan or Parsi, and whether he hails from Poona or Dharwar, Ahmedabad or Bhavnagar.

Fashion Variations.—Fashions often vary with climate and occupation. The Bombay fisherman may wear a short coat and a cap, and may carry a watch in his pocket; yet, as

he must work for long hours in water, he would not cover his legs, but suspend only a coloured kerchief from his waist in front. The Pathan of the cold north-west affects loose baggy trousers, a tall head-dress befitting his stature and covers his ears with its folds as if to keep off cold. The poorer people in Bengal and Madras do not cover their heads, except when they work in the sun or must appear respectable. Many well-to-do Indians wear European dress at the present day, or a compromise between the Indian and European costumes; notably the Indian Christians and Parsis. Most Parsis however have retained their own head-dress, and many have not borrowed the European collar and cuffs. The majority of the people do not use shoes: those who can afford them wear sandals slippers and shoes, and a few cover their feet with stockings and boots after the European fashion in public.

Women's Costumes.—The usual dress of a woman consists of a long piece of cloth tied round the waist, with folds in front, and one end brought over the shoulder or the head. The folds are sometimes drawn in and tucked up behind. In the greater part of India women wear a bodice: on the Malabar coast many do not, but merely throw a piece of cloth over the breast. In some communities petticoats, or drawers, or both are worn. Many Mussalman ladies wear gowns and scarfs over them. The vast majority of Mahomedan women are *goshas* and their dress and persons are hidden by a veil when they appear in public: a few converts from Hinduism have not borrowed the custom. In Northern India Hindu women have generally adopted the Mussalman practice of seclusion. In the Dekhan and in Southern India they have not.

As a rule the hair is daily oiled, combed, parted in the middle of the head, plaited and rolled into a chignon, by most women. Among high caste Hindu widows sometimes shave their heads in imitation of certain ascetics, or monks and nuns. Hindu men do not, as a rule, completely shave their heads, Mahomedans in most cases do. The former generally remove the hair from a part of the head in front, over the temples, and near the neck, and grow it in the centre, the quantity grown depending upon the fancy of the individual. Nowadays many keep the hair cropped in the European fashion, which is also followed by Parsis and Indian Christians. Most Mussalmans grow beards, most Hindus do not, except in Bengal and elsewhere, where the Mahomedan influence was paramount in the past. Parsis and Christians follow their individual inclinations. Hindu ascetics, known as Sadhus or Bairagis as distinguished from Sanyasis, do not clip their hair, and generally coil the uncombed hair of the head into a crest, in imitation of the god Shiva.

Hindu women wear more ornaments than others of the corresponding grade in society. Ornaments bedeck the head, the ears, the nose, the neck, the arms, wrists, fingers the waist

until motherhood is attained, and by some even later—and the toes. Children wear anklets. Each community affects its peculiar ornaments, though imitation is not uncommon. Serpents with several heads, and flowers, like the lotus, the rose, and the chamapaka, are among the most popular object of representation is gold or silver.

Caste Marks.—Caste marks constitute a mode of personal decoration peculiar to Hindus, especially of the higher castes. The simplest mark is a round spot on the forehead. It represents prosperity or joy, and is omitted in mourning and on fast-days. It may be red, or yellowish as when it is made with ground sandalwood paste. The worshippers of Vishnu draw a vertical line across the spot, and as Lakshmi is the goddess of prosperity, it is said to represent her. A more elaborate mark on the forehead has the shape of U or V, generally with the central line, sometimes without it, and represents Vishnu's foot. The worshippers of Shiva adopt horizontal lines, made with sandalwood paste or ashes. Some Vaishnavas stamp their temples, near the corners of the eyes, with figures of Vishnu's conch and disc. Other parts of the body are also similarly marked. The material used is a kind of yellowish clay. To smear the arms and the chest with sandalwood paste is a favourite kind of toilet, especially in the hot season. Beads of Tulsi or sacred Basil, and berries of Rudraksha *elacocarpus ganitrus*, strung together are worn round their necks by Vaishnavas and Shalvas, respectively. The Lingayats, a Shalva sect, suspend from their necks a metallic casket containing the Linga or phallus of their god. Bairagia, ascetics, besides wearing Rudraksha rosaries round their necks and matted hair, smear their bodies with ashes. Religious mendicants suspend from their necks figures of the gods in whose name they beg. Strings of cowries may also be seen round their necks. Muslim dervishes sometimes carry peacock's feathers.

Hindu women mark their foreheads with a red spot or horizontal line. High caste widows are forbidden to exhibit this sign of happiness, as also to deck themselves with flowers or ornaments. Flowers are worn in the chignon. Hindu women smear their faces, arms, and feet sometimes with a paste of turmeric, so that they may shine like gold. The choice of the same colour for different purposes cannot always be explained in the same way. The red liquid with which the evil eye is averted may be a substitute for the blood of the animal slaughtered for the purpose in former times. In many other cases this colour has no such associations. The Muslim dervish affects green, the Sikh Akali is fond of blue, the Sanyasi adopts orange for his robe, and no reason can be assigned with any degree of certainty.

Shiva.—India is a land of temples, mosques and shrines, and the Hindu finds at every turn some supernatural power to be appeased. Shiva has the largest number of worshippers. He has three eyes, one in his forehead, a moon's crescent in his matted hair, and at the top of the coil a woman's face representing the river Ganges. His abode is the Mount Kailas in the Himalayas, from which the river takes its

source. Round his neck and about his ears and limbs are serpents, and he also wears a necklace of skulls. In his hands are several weapons, especially a trident, a bow, and a thunderbolt, and also a drum which he sounds while dancing for he is very fond of this exercise. He sits on a tiger's skin, and his vehicle is a white bull. His wife Parvati and his son Ganesha sit on his thighs. An esoteric meaning is attached to every part of his physical personality. The three eyes denote an insight into the past, present and future: the moon, the serpents, and the skulls denote months, years and cycles, for Shiva is a personification of time, the great destroyer. He is also worshipped as a Linga or phallus which represents creative energy.

Ganpati—Ganesh or Ganpati, the controller of all powers of evil subject to Shiva, is worshipped by all sects throughout India. Every undertaking is begun with a prayer to him. He has the head of an elephant, a large abdomen, serpents about his waist and wrists, several weapons in his hands, and a piece of his tusk in one hand. He is said to have broken it off when he wanted to attack the moon for ridiculing him. The different parts of his body are also esoterically explained. His vehicle is a rat.

Parvati—Parvati, the female energy of Shiva, is worshipped under various names and forms. She is at the head of all female supernatural powers, many of whom are her own manifestations. Some are benign and beautiful, others terrible and ugly. Kali, the tutelary deity of Calicut or Calcutta, is one of her fierce manifestations. In this form she is black: a tongue smeared with blood projects from her gaping mouth: besides her weapons, she carries corpses in her hands, and round her neck are skulls. Bombay also takes its name from a goddess, Mumbadevi. Gouri, to whom offerings are made in Indian homes at an annual festival, is benign. On the other hand the epidemic diseases like the plague and small-pox are caused by certain goddesses or "mothers."

Vishnu, the second member of the Hindu trinity, is the most popular deity next to Shiva. He is worshipped through his several incarnations as well as his original personality. His home is the ocean of milk, where he reclines on the coils of a huge, many-headed serpent. At his feet sits Lakshmi, shampooing his legs. From his navel issues a lotus, on which is seated Brahma, the third member of the trinity. In his hands are the conch, which he blows on the battlefield, and the disc, with which the heads of his enemies are severed. Round his neck are garlands of leaves and flowers, and on his breast are shining jewels. As Shiva represents destruction, Vishnu represents protection, and his son is the god of love. To carry on the work of protection, he incarnates himself from time to time, and more temples are dedicated nowadays to his most popular incarnations, Rama and Krishna, than to his original personality. Rama is a human figure, with a bow in one of his hands. He is always accompanied by his wife Sita, often by his brother Lakshmana, and at his feet, or standing before him with joined hands, is Hanuman, the monkey

chieftain, who assisted him in his expedition against Ravana, the abductor of his wife. Krishna is also a human figure, generally represented as playing on a flute, with which he charmed the damsels of his city, esoterically explained to mean his devotees.

Brahma is seldom worshipped: only a couple of temples dedicated to him have yet been discovered in all India.

Minor Deities—The minor gods and goddesses and the deified heroes and heroines who fill the Hindu pantheon, and to whom shrines are erected and worship is offered, constitute a legion. Many of them enjoy a local reputation, are unknown to sacred literature, and are worshipped chiefly by the lower classes. Some of them, though not mentioned in ancient literature, are celebrated in the works of modern saints.

The Jains in their temples, adore the sacred personages who founded and developed their sect, and venerate some of the deities common to Hinduism. But their view of Divinity is different from the Hindu conception, and in the opinion of Hindu theologians they are atheists. So also the Buddhists of Burma pay almost the same veneration to Prince Siddhartha as if he was a god, and indeed elevate him above the Hindu gods, but from the Hindu standpoint they are also atheists.

Images—Besides invisible powers and deified persons, the Hindus venerate certain animals, trees and inanimate objects. This veneration must have originated in gratitude, fear, wonder, and belief in spirits as the cause of all good or harm. Some of the animals are vehicles of certain gods and goddesses—the eagle of Vishnu: the swan of Brahma: the peacock of Saraswati: Hanuman, the monkey of Rama: one serpent upholds the earth, another makes Vishnu's bed: elephants support the ends of the universe, besides one such animal being Indra's vehicle: the goddess Durga or Kali rides on a tiger: one of Vishnu's incarnations was partly man and partly lion. The cow is a useful animal: to the Brahman vegetarian her milk is indispensable, and he

treats her as his mother. So did the Rishi of old, who often subsisted on milk and fruits and roots. To the agriculturist cattle are indispensable. The snake excites fear. Stones, on which the image of a serpent is carved, may be seen under many trees by the roadside. The principal trees and plants worshipped are the Sacred Fig or Pipal, the Banyan, the Sacred Basil, the Bliva or Wood Apple, the Asoka, and the Acacia. They are in one way or another associated with some deity. The sun, the moon, and certain planets are among the heavenly bodies venerated. The ocean and certain great rivers are held sacred. Certain mountains, perhaps because they are the abodes of gods and Rishis, are holy. Pebbles from the Gandaki and the Narmada, which have curious lines upon them, are worshipped in many households and temples.

Worship—Without going into a temple, one can get a fair idea of image worship by seeing how a serpent-stone is treated under a tree. It is washed, smeared with sandal, decorated with flowers: food in a vessel is placed before it, lamps are waved, and the worshipper goes round it, and bows down his head, or prostrates himself before the image. In a temple larger bells are used than the small ones that are brought to such a place: jewels are placed on the idol: and the offerings are on a larger scale. Idols are carried in public procession in palanquins or cars. The lower classes sacrifice animals before their gods and goddesses.

Domestic Life.—Of the daily domestic life of the people a tourist cannot see much. He may see a marriage or funeral procession. In the former he may notice how a bridegroom or bride is decorated: the latter may shock him for a Hindu dead body is generally carried on a few pieces of bamboo lashed together: a thin cloth is thrown over it and the body is tied to the frame. The Mahomedan bier is more decent, and resembles the Christian coffin. Some Hindus, however, carry the dead to the burial ground in a palanquin with great pomp. The higher castes cremate the dead: others bury them. Burial is also the custom of the Muslims, and the Parsis expose the dead in Towers of Silence.

Indian Names.

The personal name of most Hindus denotes a material object, colour, or quality, an animal, a relationship, or a deity. The uneducated man, who cannot correctly pronounce long Sanskrit words, is content to call his child, father, brother, uncle, or mother, or sister, as the case may be. This practice survives among the higher classes as well. Appa Saheb, Anna Rao, Babaji, Bapu Lal, Bhai Shankar, Tatacharya, Jijibhai, are names of this description, with honorific titles added. It is possible that in early society the belief in the re-birth of departed kinsmen lent popularity to this practice. Nothing could be more natural than to call a man white, black, or red: gold or silver: gem, diamond, ruby, pearl, or merely

a stone: small or tall, weak or strong. a lion, a snake, a parrot, or a dog: and to name a woman after a flower or a creeper. Thus, to take a few names from the epics, Pandu means white, and so does Arjuna: Krishna black: Bhima terrible. Nakula a mongoose. Shunaka a dog. Shuka a parrot: Shringa a horn. Among the names prevalent at the present day Hira is a diamond: Ratna or Ratan a jewel: Sonu or Chhina gold. Velli or Belli, in the Dravidian languages, means white metal or silver. Men are often called after the days of the week on which they were born, and hence they bear the names of the seven heavenly bodies concerned. When they begin to assume the names of the Hindu deities, they practically

enter upon a new stage of civilisation. It is doubtful whether the Animists ever venture to assume the names of the dreaded spirits worshipped by them. To pronounce the name of a devil is to invite him to do harm. If the spirits sometimes bear the names of human beings the reason seems to be that they were originally human.

High-caste practices—The high caste Hindu, on the other hand, believes that the more often the name of a deity is on his lips, the more merit he earns. Therefore he deliberately names his children after his gods and goddesses, so that he may have the opportunity of pronouncing the holy names as frequently as possible. These are also sonorous and picturesque. Shiva is happy. Vishnu is a pervader. Govinda is the cowherd. Krishna. Keshava has fine hair. Rama is a delight. Lakshmana is lucky. Narayana produced the first living being on the primeval waters. Ganesha is the Lord of Shiva's hosts. Dinakara is the luminary that makes the day. Subrahmanya is a brother of Ganesha. Sita is a turrow. Savitri a ray of light. Tara a star. Radha prosperity. Bukmini is she of golden ornaments. Bhama has each got at least a thousand names, and they may be freely drawn upon and paraphrased in naming one's children, and the whole Hindu pantheon is as crowded as it is large. When a mother loses several children, she begins to suspect that some evil spirit has conspired against her and in order to make her off-spring unattractive to the powers of darkness, she gives them ugly names, such as Kurt, rubbish, or Ukirda, dunghill, or Martoba, the mortal. Women are named after rivers, as Sarasvati, Ganga, Bhagirathi, Godavari, or Kaveri, just as men are sometimes called after mountains. Manu counsels young men not to choose a wife with such a name, perhaps because a river is an emblem of deviceness and inconstancy, as a hill is an emblem of stability. But the names of rivers have not been discarded. The Brahmans have a curious custom. If a child is born on a Monday, its name must begin with a guttural, on Tuesday with a palatal, on Thursday with a labial, on Saturday with a dental.

Family names—When a person rises in importance, he adds to his personal name a family or caste name. It was once the rule that the title Sharma might be added to a Brahman's name, Varma to a Kshatriya's, Gupta to a Vaishya's, and Dasa to a Shudra's. This rule is fairly well observed in the case of the first two titles, but the meaning of the other two has changed. Dasa means a slave or servant, and the proudest Brahman cannot disdain to call himself the servant of some god. Thus, although Ramadas, the famous poet, was a Shudra, Ramadas the famous guru of Shivaji, was a Brahmin. The Vaishnavas have made this fashion of calling oneself a servant of some god exceedingly popular, and in Western India high caste Hindus of this sect very commonly add Das to their names. The Brahmans of Southern India add Aiyar or Aiyangar to their names. Shastri,

Upadhyaya, Bhattacharya, Bhattacharya, changed into Mukhopadhyaya, are among the titles indicative of the Brahmanical profession of studying and teaching the sacred books. Among warlike classes, like the Rajputs and Sikhs, the title Singh (lion) has become more popular than the ancient Varma. The Sindi Mal, as in Gidmal, means brave and has the same force. Changed into Raya, Rao and Rai was a political title, and is not confined to any caste. The Bengali family names, like Bose and Ghose, Dutt and Mitra, Sen and Guha, enable one to identify the caste of their bearers, because the caste of a family or clan cannot be changed. Shet, chief of a guild or a town, becomes Chetty, a Vaishya title, in Southern India. Mudaliyar and Nayadu, meaning leaders, are titles which were assumed by castes of political importance under native rulers. Nayar and Menon are the titles of important castes in Malabar. Ram, Lal, Nand, Chand, are among the additions made to personal names in Northern India. Suffixes like Ji, as in Ramji or Jamshedji, the Kanarese Appa, the Telinga Garu the feminine Bai or Devi, are honorific. Prefixes like Babu, Baba, Lala, Sodhi, Pandit, Raja, and the Burmese Maung are also honorific.

Professional names—Family names sometimes denote a profession. In some cases they might have been conferred by the old rulers. Mehta, Kulkarni, Deshpande, Chitnavis, Mahalanavis are the names of offices held in former times. One family name may mean a flour seller, another a cane-seller, and a third a liquor-seller. To insert the father's name between one's personal and the family name is a common practice in Western India. It is rare elsewhere. When a family comes from a certain place, the suffix 'har' or 'wallah' is added to the name of the place and it makes a family surname in Western India. Thus we may have Chiplunkars and Suratwallahs, or without these affixes we may have Bhavnagris, Malabaris and Billmorias, as among Parsis. Thus Vasudev Pandurang Chiplunkar would be a Hindu, whose personal name is Vasudev, his father's name Pandurang, and family name derived from the village of Chiplunkar, is Chiplunkar. In Southern India the village name precedes the personal name. The evolution of Mussalman names follows the same lines as Hindu names. But Muslims have no god or goddesses, and their names are derived from their religious and secular history. These names and titles are often as long and picturesque as Hindu appellations. The agnomens Baksh, Din, Ghulam, Khwaja, Fakir, Kazi, Munshi, Sheikh, Syed, Begum, Bibi and others, as well as honorific additions like Khan have meanings which throw light on Muslim customs and institutions. The Parsis also have no gods and goddesses, and their personal names are generally borrowed from their sacred and secular history. Their surnames frequently indicate a profession or a place, as in the case of Hindus in Western India. Batiwallah, Readymoney, Contractor, Saklatwallah, Adenwallah and others like them are tell-tale names.

Indian Art.

In India there has never been so marked a separation between what are now known as the Fine Arts, and those applied to Industry as was the case in Europe during the nineteenth century. As, however, Industrial art forms the subject of a special article in this book, the term Indian Art will here be confined to Architecture, Sculpture and Painting.

Historical—The degree of proficiency attained in art by Indians prior to B.C. 250, can only be conjectured by their advancement in literature; and by the indirect evidences of indebtedness shown by the works of the historic period, to those which preceded them, or direct records of artistic work of an earlier date than B.C. 250 do not exist. The chief historic schools of architecture are as follows.—

Name	Dates.	Locality of the best Examples.
Buddhist	.. B.C. 250— A.D. 750.	Ellora, Ajanta, Kail, Sanchi
Jaina	.. A.D. 1000— 1300.	Ellora, Mount Abu, Palitana.
Brahminical.	A.D. 530 to the present	Ellora, Elephanta, Orissa, Bhuvanagar, Dharwar.
Chalukyan	.. A.D. 1000— 1200.	Umber, Somnathpur, Ballur.
Dravidian	. A.D. 1350— 1750.	Ellora, Tanjore, Madura, Tinnevely.
Pathan	.. A.D. 1200— 1550.	Delhi, Mandn, Jannpore.
Indo-Saracenic	A.D. 1520— 1700.	Lahore, Delhi, Agra, Amber, Bijapur.

Buddhist Architecture is mainly exemplified by the rock-cut temples and monasteries found in Western India and in the *Tepes* or sacred mounds. The interior decorations, and external facades of the former, and the rails and gates surrounding the latter point unmistakably to their being derived from wooden structures of an earlier period. The characteristic features of these temples are horse-shoe openings in the facades to admit light, and colonnades of pillars with richly ornamented caps in the interior halls. Jaina Architecture is found in its most highly developed form in the Dilwara temples at Mount Abu. The ground plan consists of a shrine for the god or saint; a porch, and an arcaded courtyard with niches for images. The characteristic of the style is grace and lightness, with decorative carving covering the whole interior, executed with great elaboration and detail. Constructional methods suggest that original types in wood have been copied in marble.

Brahminical, Chalukyan and Dravidian styles differ little in essential plan, all having a shrine for the god, preceded by pillared porches. The outer forms vary. The northern Brahminical temples have a curved pyramidal roof to the shrines, which in the southern or Dravidian style are crowned by a horizontal system of storied towers, and each story, decreasing in size, is ornamental with a central cell and figures in high relief. The Chalukyan style is affected by its northern and southern neighbours, taking features from each without losing its own special characteristics of which the star-shaped plan of the shrine, with the five-fold bands of external ornament, is the principal feature. Pathan Architecture was introduced into India by the Mahomedan inva-

sion of the thirteenth century. At old Delhi are fine examples in the Kutub Mosque and Vinar. The characteristics of the style are severity of outline, which is sometimes combined with elaborate decoration due, it is stated, to the employment of Hindn craftsmen. The mosque and tombs at Ahmedabad already show Hindu influence; but purer examples are to be found at Jannpore and Mandn. Indo-Saracenic Architecture reached the climax of its development during the reigns of the Moghul Emperors Akbar, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. It eclipsed in richness of material and refinement of taste the building efforts of previous periods, its crowning example being the Taj Mahal at Agra. The buildings erected during the Adil Shahi dynasty at Bijapur at a slightly later date, exhibit a certain Turkish influence, especially in the great tomb of Mahmoud. Though less refined and lacking the attraction of precious materials in their decoration, these splendid edifices are held in higher esteem by some critics than those of the Moghals, on account of their simplicity, grandeur and fine proportions. The era of great civil architecture in India was revived by the Mahomedan powers. Splendid palaces and fortresses were built at Madras, Delhi, Agra, Fattahpore-Sikri and Byapur, and the example thus set was copied by the Hindu princes at Jaipur, Udaipur and elsewhere in India. The application of great architectural treatment, unequalled in extent elsewhere, is to be seen in the Ghauts or steps enclosing lakes and on the banks of rivers. The most notable constructional contribution of the Mahomedans to Indian architecture was the introduction of the true arch and dome.

Sculpture.—The use of sculpture and painting in isolated works of art was practically non-existent in India until modern times. One or two reliefs and certain gigantic figures may be quoted as exceptions, but taken generally it may be stated that these arts were employed as the decorative adjuncts of architecture. No civil statuary, such as is now understood by the term, was executed; for no contemporary portrait figures, or busts in marble, or bronze, have come down to us from the ruins of ancient India, as they have from those of Egypt, Greece and Rome. Sculpture has been used exclusively as the handmaid of religion, and to this fact may be attributed the stereotyped forms to which it became bound. The lavish use of sculpture on Indian temples often exceeds good taste, and mars the symmetry and dignity of their mass and outline, but for exuberance of imagination, industrious elaboration and vivid expression of movement, Indian sculpture is perhaps without its equal elsewhere in the world. The most impressive specimens are the earliest, found in the Buddhist and Brahminical cave temples of Ellora, Ajanta and Elephanta. The great Trimurti in the last named of these temples ranks for mystery and expressive grandeur with the greatest masterpieces of art. The outstanding characteristics of Hindn sculpture are the power displayed in suggesting movement; the fine sense of decorative arrangements of line and mass; and an overpowering ingenuity in intricate design. Mahomedan sculpture in India, though not exclusively confined to geometric forms as is that of the

more severe Arabian school, is very restrained as compared with that of the Hindns. Floral motifs are often used in the ornaments to tombs and palaces, but rarely in those of mosques. Their geometric ornament shows great ingenuity and invention; and wonderful decorative use is made of Persian, Arabic and Urdu lettering in panels, and their borders. The representation of human or animal figures is rarely to be met with. Sculptured and modelled relief is, as a rule, kept very low; and is mainly confined to the decoration of mouldings, architraves, lintels, or the bands of ornament which relieve large exterior wall spaces. Buildings of purely Mahomedan design and workmanship show greater restraint than those upon which Hindu workmen have been employed and are more satisfactory; but at Ahmedabad the two celebrated windows are striking examples of a happy combination of the two styles and the Tattchpore Sikri is a magnificent example of the mixed style of Akbar.

Painting.—Much of the carved stonework upon ancient Indian buildings was as in ancient Greece and then decorated with colour, but the only paintings, in the modern acceptation of the term, now existing, which were executed prior to the Moghul period, are those upon the walls of the cave temples at Ajanta, Bagh, and in Ceylon. These remarkable works were produced at intervals during the first 600 years of the Christian era. They exhibit all the finer characteristic of the best Indian sculpture, but with an added freedom of expression due to the more tractable vehicle employed. The Ajanta Caves remained hidden in the Deccan jungles for nearly twelve hundred years, until accidentally discovered in 1816. They are painted in a species of tempera; and when first brought to light were well preserved but they have greatly deteriorated owing to the well meant, but misguided action of copyists, and the neglect of the authorities. The Nizam's Government have in recent years done a great deal towards the preservation and study of these mural paintings. The second period of Indian painting owed its origin to the introduction of Persian artists by the Moghul Emperor Akbar, and the establishment of the indigenous Moghul school was due to the encouragement and fostering care of his successors, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. Unlike the works of the Ajanta painters, which were designed upon a large scale, the pictures of the Moghul school were miniatures. They were executed in a species of opaque water-colour upon paper or vellum, resembling to some extent the illuminated missals produced by the monks in Europe during the middle ages. Some of the finest of the earlier specimens in India are of a religious character; this phase of development being closely allied to the art of the calligraphist. As its range extended, a remarkable school of portrait painters arose notable for restrained but extremely accurate drawing, keen insight into character, harmonious colour, fine decorative feeling, and extraordinary delicacy and finish in the painting of detail. The artists of a Hindu offshoot of this movement, known as the Rajput school, were less fully endowed with the technical and purely aesthetic qualities than were the Moghul painters; but they brought to their work poetry and sentiment which are not to be found in that of

the Mahomedans. The pictures of both branches of the Moghul school, although highly decorative in character, were not intended for exhibition upon the walls of rooms, according to Western practice, and, when not used as illustrations or decorations to manuscript books, were preserved in portfolios. It is very significant that up to the best period of Moghul painting, the reign of Jehangir, European ideas in art, pictures, and prints were extensively patronised by the Emperor. This broad eclecticism of the Moghuls is in marked contrast to the opinions of Mr. Havell and his school of critics who have severely criticised the facilities of advanced training in Indian art schools which Bombay in particular has adopted with marked success.

Modern Painting.—As the reign of Shah Jahan exhibits the high tide of artistic development in India, so the reign of his successor Aurangzeb marks the period of its rapid decline. The causes of this are attributable to the absence of encouragement by this Emperor, to his long periods of absence from the court at Delhi or Agra, entailed by the continuons wars he waged in his efforts to bring the whole of the Peninsula under his rule; and partly to the fact of the school of Moghul painting becoming stereotyped in its practice. Foreign designers, painters and craftsmen who had been attracted to India by the great works carried out by Akbar, Jehangir and Shah Jahan left the country, and their places were taken by no successors. The indigenous artists left to themselves in the isolated courts of small Indian princes, or collected in schools in remote districts, employed themselves mainly upon repeating the works of a previous age, instead of seeking new motifs for artistic treatment. At the time when the British East India Company ceased to be only a guild of merchants and became a great administrative power in 1757, very little vitality survived in the ancient art of the country. During the century of its administrative history between the battle of Plassey and the Indian Mutiny, the "Company" was too fully occupied in fighting for its existence, extending its borders and settling the internal economy of its ever increasing territories, to be able to give much attention to conserving any remnant of artistic practice which had survived. Without any deliberate intention of introducing western art into the country, Greek and its derivative style of architecture were adopted for public and private buildings in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras because these were found to be more suitable for their purpose than buildings of indigenous pattern. The practical result was the same; for the Indian craftsmen employed upon their erection were confronted with styles affording no scope for the application of their traditional ornament and concerning which they had no knowledge or sympathy. As there were no sculptors in India capable of modelling or carving civil sculpture, the monuments to distinguish public servants were all imported from England; and the portraits, or other paintings which decorated the interior walls of the buildings, were furnished by European painters who visited India or by artists in England. Although a considerable amount of research work of a voluntary nature was done by Archæ-

ologists, no official interest was taken in artistic education until the Government of India was transferred to the British Crown in 1859. In England itself, the first fifty years of the nineteenth century was a period of gross commercialism and artistic degradation, but with the advent of the International Exhibition of 1851 the eyes of the nation were opened to the value of art as applied to industry.

The Schools of Art then instituted throughout England were limited in a timid and tentative manner in India, and were attached to the educational system, which had been previously modelled upon a definitely European basis. The work of the Schools of Art in regard to industrial art is referred to elsewhere, and as several of them have confined their activities almost exclusively to this branch of the subject it is sufficient to mention only the work of the Schools at Calcutta and Bombay in the present article. The Calcutta school, except for occasional experiments in the application of the graphic arts to lithography, engraving and stained glass, has become a school of painting and drawing. That at Bombay covers a wider field; for in addition to classes for modelling, painting and design it possesses a special school of architecture, and a range of technical workshops, in which instruction is given in the applied arts. It is in the principles underlying the instruction in painting that the schools at Calcutta and Bombay have taken almost diametrically opposite roads to reach the end they both have in view, namely, the revival of the art of painting in India by means of an indigenous school of Indian painters. Mr. Havell, who several years ago was the Principal of the Calcutta School, (he left India in 1907) banished from within its walls every vestige of European art, and claimed that the traditional art of India, in its old forms, is not dead but merely sleeping or smothered by the blanket of European culture laid upon it for the last 150 years, and needed but to be released from this incubus to regain its pristine vigour. Well equipped with literary ability; backed by intense enthusiasm for the views he held, he imposed upon his students an exclusive and severe study of the Moghul and Rajput schools of painting. He was fortunate in finding a willing and equally enthusiastic friend in Mr. Abanindranath Tagore, an artist of imagination and fancy, combined with a serious devotion to his art. He with other Bengal painters, inspired by Mr. Havell's precepts founded, about thirty years ago, what has since become known as the Calcutta School of painting. In their early work the painters of this school closely adhered to the conventions of Moghul and Rajput artists, whom they took as their models, and these early examples made a great impression upon all European critics who saw them. They were welcomed as the first sign of a genuine revival of Indian painting, based upon traditional lines, and it was confidently hoped that the movement would meet with the support it merited from Indians of all classes. Interesting as many individual works of the school undoubtedly are the anticipations which greeted its inception have scarcely been fulfilled by the Calcutta school. The painters themselves have never reached the high tech-

nical standard of the artists who produced the best works of the Moghul or Rajput schools, and, as time has passed, their outlook appears to have shifted, and, while stemming the flood of western influence, they appear to have drifted into a backwater of Japanese conventions. The Indian public has failed to give the school the support it was hoped they would afford and the movement has had to depend for encouragement mainly upon Europeans in England and India.

Bombay School of Art.—The attitude towards the development of art in modern India taken by its successive Principals Messrs Lockwood Kipling, Griffiths, Greenwood, and Cecil Burns, was on wider lines than that favoured by Mr. Havell. In general the view this School of Art has taken is that with European literature dominating the system under which the educated classes in India are trained and with European ideas, and science permeating the professional commercial, industrial, and political life of the country, it is not possible for modern artists in India to work on purely archaic models, and that to copy these would be as unprofitable as it would be for the artists of Europe to harness themselves to the conventions of the Greek and Roman sculptors or to those of the mediæval painters; that with European pictures, often of inferior quality illustrating every educational text book, and sold in the shops of every large city, it is essential for the proper education of art students that they should have before them the masterpieces of European art; and that, with the wide adoption of European styles of architecture in India, it is necessary for a school of art to possess the best examples of ornament applicable to the great historic styles, for the purpose of study and reference. There are certain basic principles common to the technique of all great art, such as fine and accurate drawing in its widest sense, composition and design, and the science of colour harmony.

Among the developments during Mr. Burns' administration were the founding of the Architectural School, the extension of drawing classes in the Government Schools, and the appointment of an Inspector of Drawing to inspect and report on the drawing classes in the schools. A Pottery Department was also started and was abolished in 1926. Mr. Burns retired in 1918 and was succeeded in 1919 by the present Director, Mr. W.E. Gladstone Solomon, K I E, R B O.

Mr. Solomon entirely reorganised the courses of study. The Life Classes which were organised at the end of 1919 have been pronounced by competent judges as well up to the level of the Life Classes of the European Schools of Art. But proficiency in technique forms only one side of the present system of training, for even in Europe, too much of the study from life is quite capable of negating its own object. In India, where the decorative instinct is inherent, and where the possibilities of freehand drawing are still understood, the danger of overdoing the Life Class is even more palpable. So side by side with these realistic aids to study, and at the same period, a class of Indian Decorative Painting was inaugurated in the Bombay School of Art on a basis of scholarships.

under the patronage of the Governor of Bombay (Lord Lloyd). As this class specialises in Mural Painting it has long been popularly known as the Class of Mural Painting. This class has executed the decorations for many public and private buildings, and painted the ceiling and panels of a specially constructed Indian Room which was exhibited at Wembley in 1924, and found a purchaser in England. A great deal of controversy, which has been characterised by its academic rather than its practical note, has centred round these new movements in art training in India, but the Bombay School of Art has retained the patronage and support of the public and the increase in the number of its students (who now number about 600 in all sections of the School) has been continuous since it took its present line. It is significant that the widespread revival of public interest in Art in Western India has synchronised with these activities.

The School of Art has of late years enjoyed the patronage of successive Governors of Bombay and, largely due to the efforts of Sir Leslie Wilson, the Government of India inaugurated a competition of Indian Artists in 1927 for the decoration of wall spaces in the new buildings at New Delhi. The result of the Competition was notified in October 1928, when five artists of Bombay, and the Bombay and Lahore Schools of Art were commissioned to paint Mural Decorations in the new Secretariat buildings. The Bombay School undertook the decoration of Committee Room "A" (in the North Block) and the paintings, which were executed in oils on canvas, were finished, and successfully placed in position on the dome and walls by the middle of September 1929. These decorations were original compositions of life size figures, symbolising the main periods of Indian Art, and the different branches of the Fine and Applied Arts. In April 1929, the Government of Bombay converted the Bombay School into a Department independent of the Director of Public Instruction, the Principal (Mr W. E. Gladstone Solomon) being made Director. In October 1930 the latter organised an exhibition of the work of all Departments of this School of Art in India House, London. The Exhibition was very well patronised by the public and extremely well received by the art critics and the Press. Her Majesty the Queen Empress graciously patronised the exhibition and selected several of the paintings displayed.

While the Bombay School was engaged upon the work of mural decoration at New Delhi in 1928-1929, which is referred to above, a public competition for the selection of four Indian artists to proceed to England was announced by the Government of India. The successful candidates were to study for a year at the Royal College of Art, South Kensington, after which they were to be employed on the mural decoration of the interior of India House, Aldwych. The Bombay School was unable to compete, owing to its preoccupation with the New Delhi decorations, and four artists from Bengal were selected by a Committee appointed by the Government of India, which, though it included two representatives from Bombay (who were not artists) has been criticised on the ground that several of the Bengal representatives were professional artists, that the Bombay School's

inability to take part was not brought to the notice of the Committee, and that therefore the result of the competition could not be representative of all the Indian Provinces. The four elected artists finished the decorative work which they had been engaged to execute at India House and returned to India in 1932. But in 1933 two of them were re-engaged to decorate the entrance hall of the building, in consequence of this considerable controversy has arisen on the whole subject of the India House mural paintings and their claim to be representative of India as a whole. This episode has thrown into stronger relief the differences on the subject of art in India between the Western and Eastern districts of the country, a noticeable diminution of the exclusivists' art propaganda, and a tendency towards aligning art in Bengal with the position which Bombay has occupied in this matter for the last two generations, is one of the salient symptoms of the present situation (1935). Another cause of public controversy, which was more local in character, had occurred near the end of 1932, when the Bombay Reorganisation Committee which had been appointed by the Bombay Government for purposes of retrenchment, advocated the closing down of the Bombay School of Art, the abolition of its buildings and the utilisation of the compound of the school for a hospital. The Architectural School was to be moved elsewhere. These draconian recommendations created a great deal of public dissatisfaction, which expressed itself in public agitation, processions and a crowded meeting of protest. After full examination of this vexed question, the Governor of Bombay, Sir Frederick Sykes, who had taken keen interest during his administration, in the welfare of the School, personally announced in a speech delivered at the School of Art on November 24, 1933, that the Institution was to be maintained upon its present basis. Since the satisfactory settlement of the question an important event deserves to be recorded. The India Society of London organised an Exhibition of Modern Indian Art in London, which was opened by H. H. the Duchess of York at the New Burlington Galleries on December 10, 1934. The most instructive feature of this Exhibition was that the representation of India was secured by means of Regional Committees which collected pictures and sculptures from their own districts. Thus the respective sections of the Exhibition devoted to Bombay and Bengal were compared, and the work from Western India received a most favourable welcome from most of the prominent art critics and journals in England. The Regional Committee of Bombay under the patronage of Lord Brougham, the Governor, and the Chairmanship of Sir Phiroze Sethna, and with Mr Kanalyalal Vakil as its Hon. Secretary, had selected a varied and fairly representative collection of paintings, sculpture, and architectural drawings. At the request of this Committee, the Government of Bombay deputed Mr Gladstone Solomon to supervise, arrange, and catalogue the Bombay exhibits in London. The whole enterprise was a successful demonstration of the aims and ideals of the Bombay School of Painting, and since this Exhibition the long-standing controversy as to the Bombay methods of art training has completely collapsed though it is hardly to be expected that it will not occasionally reassert itself in sporadic outbursts hereafter.

Indian Architecture.

The architecture of India has proceeded on lines of its own, and its monuments are unique among those of the nations of the world. An ancient civilization, a natural bent on the part of the people towards religious fervour of the contemplative rather than of the fanatical sort, combined with the richness of the country in the sterner building materials—these are a few of the factors that contributed to making it what it was, while a stirring history gave it both variety and glamour. Indian architecture is a subject which at the best has been studied only imperfectly, and a really comprehensive treatise on it has yet to be written. The subject is a vast and varied one, and it may be such a treatise never will be written in the form of one work at any rate. The spirit of Indian art is foreign to the European and few can entirely understand it, while art criticism and analysis is a branch of study that the Indian has not as yet developed to its full extent. Hitherto the best authority on the subject has been Fergusson, whose compendious work is that which will find most ready acceptance by the general reader. But Fergusson attempted the nearly impossible task of covering the ground in one volume of moderate dimensions, and it is sometimes held that he was a man of too purely European a culture, albeit wide and eclectic, to admit of sufficient depth of insight in this particular direction. Fergusson's classification by races and religions is, however, the one that has been generally accepted hitherto. He asserts that there is no stone architecture in India of an earlier date than two and a half centuries before the Christian era, and that "India owes the introduction of the use of stone for architectural purposes, as she does that of Buddhism as a state religion, to the great Asoka, who reigned B.C. 272 to 236."

Buddhist Work.

Fergusson's first architectural period is then the Buddhist, of which the great tope at Sanchi with its famous Northern gateway is perhaps the most noted example. Then we have the Gandharan topes and monasteries. Perhaps the examples of Buddhist architecture of greatest interest and most ready access to the general student are to be found in the Chaitya halls or rock-cut caves of Karli, Ajanta, Nasik, Ellora, and Kanheri. A point with relation to the Gandhara work may be alluded to in passing. This is the strong European tendency, variously recognized as Roman, Byzantine but most frequently as Greek, to be observed in the details. The foliage seen in the capitals of columns bears strong resemblance to the Greek acanthus, while the sculptures have a distinct trace of Greek influence, particularly in the treatment of drapery, but also of hair and facial expression. From this it has been a fairly common assumption amongst some authorities that Indian art owed much of its best to European influence, an assumption that is strenuously combated by others as will be pointed out later.

The architecture of the Jains comes next in order. Of this rich and beautiful style the most noted examples are perhaps the Dilwara temples near Mount Abu, and the unique "Tower of Victory" at Chittore.

Other Hindu Styles.

The Dravidian style is the generic title usually applied to the characteristic work of the Madras Presidency and the South of India. It is seen in many rock-cut temples as at Ellora, where the remarkable "Kylas" is an instance of a temple cut out of the solid rock, complete, not only with respect to its interior (as in the case of mere caves) but also as to its exterior. It is, as it were, a life-size model of a complete building or group of buildings, several hundred feet in length, not built, but sculptured in solid stone, an undertaking of vast and, to our modern ideas, unprofitable industry. The Pagoda of Tanjore, the temples at Srirangam, Chidambaram, Vellore, Vijayanagar, &c., and the palaces at Madura and Tanjore are among the best known examples of the style.

The writer finds some difficulty in following Fergusson's two next divisions of classification, the "Chalukyan" of South-central India, and the "Northern or Indo-Aryan style." The differences and the similarities are apparently so intermixed and confusing that he is fain to fall back on the broad generic title of "Hindu"—however unscientific he may thereby stand confessed. Amongst a vast number of Hindu temples the following may be mentioned as particularly worthy of study:—Those at Mukteswara and Bhuvaneswar in Orissa, at Khajuraho, Bindraban, Udaipur, Benares, Gwalior, &c. The palace of the Hindu Raja Man Singh at Gwalior is among the most beautiful architectural examples in India. So also are the palaces of Amber, Datya, Urcba, Dig and Udaipur.

Indo-Saracenic

Among all the periods and styles in India the characteristics of none are more easily recognizable than those of what is generally called the "Indo-Saracenic" which developed after the Mahomedan conquest. Under the new influences now brought to bear on it the architecture of India took on a fresh lease of activity and underwent remarkable modifications. The dome, not entirely an unknown feature hitherto, became a special object of development, while the arch, at no time a favourite constructional form of the Hindu builders, was now forced on their attention by the predilections of the ruling class. The minaret also became a distinctive feature. The requirements of the new religion,—the mosque with its wide spaces to meet the needs of organized congregational acts of worship—gave opportunities for broad and spacious treatments that had hitherto been to some extent denied. The Moslem hatred of idolatry set a tabu on the use of sculptured representations of animate objects in the adornment of the buildings, and led to the development of other decorative forms. Great ingenuity came to be displayed in the use of pattern and of geometrical and foliated ornament. This Moslem trait further turned the attention of the builders to a greater extent than before to proportion, scale and mass as means of giving beauty, mere richness of sculptured surface and the æsthetic and symbolic interest of detail being no longer to be depended on to the same degree.

Foreign Influence.

There would appear to be a conflict between archaeologists as to the extent of the effect on Indian art produced by foreign influence under the Mahomedans. The extreme view on the one hand is to regard all the best of the art as having been due to foreign importation. The Gandharan sculptures with their Greek tendency, the development of new forms and modes of treatment to which allusion has been made, the similarities to be found between the Mahomedan buildings of India and those of North Africa and Europe, the introduction of the minaret and, above all, the historical evidences that exist of the presence in India of Europeans during Mogul times, are cited in support of the theory. On the other hand those of the opposite school hold the foregoing view to be due to the prevailing European preconception that all light and leading must come by way of Europe, and the best things in art by way of Greece. To them the Gandharan sculpture, instead of being the best, is the worst in India even because of its Greek tincture. They find in the truly indigenous work beauties and significances not to be seen in the Greco-Bactrian sculptures, and point to those of Borobudur in Java, the work of Buddhist colonists from India, wonderfully preserved by reason of an immunity from destructive influences given by the insular position, as the best examples of the art extant.

It is probable that a just estimate of the merits of the controversy, with respect to sculpture at any rate, cannot be formed till time has obliterated some of the differences of taste that exist between East and West.

To the adherents of the newer school the undisputed similarities between Indo-Mahomedan and Hindu buildings outweigh those between Indian and Western Mahomedan work, especially in the light of the dissimilarities between the latter. They admit the changes produced by the advent of Islam but contend that the art, though modified, yet remained in its essence what it had always been, indigenous Indian. The minaret, the dome, the arch, they contended, though developed under the Moslem influence, were yet, so far as their detailed treatment and craftsmanship are concerned, rendered in a manner distinctively Indian. Fergusson is usually regarded as the leader of the former school while the latter and comparatively recent school has at present found an eager champion in Mr E B Havell, whose works, on the subject are recommended for study side by side with those of the former writer. Mr Havell practically discards Fergusson's racial method of classification into styles in favour of a chronological review of what he regards to a greater extent than did his famous precursor as being one continuous homogeneous Indian mode of architectural expression, though subject to

variations from the influences brought to bear upon it and from the varied purposes to which it was applied.

Agra and Delhi.

Agra and Delhi may be regarded as the principal centres of the Indo-Saracenic style—the former for the renowned Taj Mahal, for Akbar's deserted capital of Fatehpur Sikri, his tomb at Secundra, the Moti Masjid and palace buildings at the Agra fort. At Delhi we have the great Juma Masjid, the Fort, the tombs of Humayun, Sufdar Jung, &c., and the unique Quth Minar. Two other great centres may be mentioned, because in each there appeared certain strongly marked individualities that differentiated the varieties of the style there found from the variety seen at Delhi and Agra, as well as that of one from that to the other. These are Ahmedabad in Gujarat and Bijapur on the Dekhan, both in the Bombay Presidency.

Ahmedabad.

At Ahmedabad with its neighbours Sirkhej and Champanir there seems to be less of a departure from the older Hindu forms, a tendency to adhere to the lintel and bracket rather than to have recourse to the arch, while the dome though constantly employed, was there never developed to its full extent as elsewhere, or carried to its logical structural conclusion. The Ahmedabad work is probably most famous for the extraordinary beauty of its stone "jali"—or pierced lattice-work, as in the palm tree windows of the Sidi Sayyid Masjid.

Bijapur.

The characteristics of the Bijapur variety of the style are equally striking. They are perhaps more distinctively Mahomedan than those of the Ahmedabad buildings in that here the dome is developed to a remarkable degree, indeed the tomb of Mahmud—the well-known "Gol Gumbaz"—is cited as showing the greatest space of floor in any building in the world roofed by a single dome, not even excepting the Pantheon. The lintel also was here practically discarded in favour of the arch. The Bijapur style shows a bold masculine quality and a largeness of structural conception that is unequalled elsewhere in India though in richness and delicacy it does not attempt to rival the work of the further North. In this we recognize among other influences that of the prevailing material, the hard uncompromising Dekhan basalt. In a similar manner the characteristics of the Ahmedabad work with its greater richness of ornamentation are bound up with the nature of the Gujarat freestone, while at Delhi and Agra the freer choice of materials available—the local red and white sandstones, combined with access to marble and other more costly materials—was no doubt largely responsible for the many easily recognizable characteristics of the architecture of these centres.

II. MODERN.

The modern architectural work of India divides itself sharply into two classes. There is first that of the indigenous Indian "Master-builder" to be found chiefly in the Native States, particularly those in Rajputana. Second there is that of British India, or of all those parts of the peninsula wherever

Western ideas and methods have most strongly spread their influence, chiefly, in the case of architecture, through the medium of the Department of Public Works. The work of that department has been much unadverted upon as being all that building should not be, but, considering it has been produced by men

of whom it was admittedly not the *metier*, and who were necessarily contending with lack of expert training on the one hand and with departmental methods on the other, it must be conceded that it can shew many notable buildings. Of recent years there has been a tendency on the part of professional architects to turn their attention to India, and a number of these has even been drafted into the service of Government as the result of a policy initiated in Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty. In time, therefore, and with the growth of the influence of these men, such of the reproach against the building of the British in India as was just and was not merely thoughtlessly maintained as a corollary to the popular jape against everything official, may gradually be removed. If this is so as to Government work progress should be even more assured in the freer atmosphere outside of official life. Already in certain of the greater cities, where the trained modern architect has established himself, in private practice, there are signs that his influence is beginning to be felt. He still complains, however, that the general public of India needs much educating up to a recognition of his value, both in a pecuniary sense and otherwise.

To the work of the indigenons "master-builder" public attention has of recent years been drawn with some insistence, and the ang-egion has been pressed that efforts should be directed towards devising means for the preservation of what is pointed out—and now universally acknowledged—to be a remarkable survival—almost the only one left in the world—of "living art," but which is threatened with gradual extinction by reason of the spread of Western ideals and fashions. The matter assumed some years ago the form of a mild controversy centring round the question of the then much discussed project of the Government of India's new capital at Delhi. It was urged that this project should be utilised to give the required impetus to Indian art rather than that it should be made a means of fostering European art which needed no such encouragement at India's expense. The advocates of this view appear for the most part to have been adherents of the "indigenous Indian" school of archaeologists already mentioned, and to have based their ideas on their own reading of the past. They still muster a considerable following not only amongst the artistic public of England and India, but even within the Government service. Their opponents, holding what appears to be the more official view both as to archaeology and art, have pointed to the "death" of all the arts of the past in other countries as an indication of a natural law, and deprecate as waste of energy all efforts to resist this law, or to institute what they have termed "another futile revival"! The British in India, they contend, should do as did the ancient Romans in every country on which they planted their conquering foot. As those were wont to replace indigenous art with that of Rome, so should we set our seal of conquest permanently on India by the erection of examples of the best of British art. This is the view which, as we have indicated, appears to have obtained for the moment the more influential hearing, and the task of designing and directing the construction

of the principal buildings in the new Capital was accordingly entrusted jointly to two famous British architects, neither of whom can be unduly influenced by either past or recent architectural practice so far as India is concerned. The building of New Delhi is perhaps too recent an event for the passing of a definite verdict. The work of Sir Edwin Lutyens and Sir Herbert Baker abides the judgment of posterity. If that work has had its severe critics, it has also received the commendation of many. The cream domes set on tall bases, rise from the centre of the Secretariat buildings, and surmounted by cupolas have reminded some of Bramante's work in Rome, or the Pantheon, or Wren's dome of St Paul's. Below there are the semi-circular entrances resembling Moghul doorways, the rows of comparatively small windows, some filled with pierced sandstone screens somewhat distract the eye, and seem to mar the effect of sturdiness prevailing throughout. The Secretariats were meant no doubt to usher the visitor to New Delhi to the "piece de resistance" of the architectural composition, the Viceroy's House. Standing where it does this building is intended to dominate and necessarily arrests the gaze of the visitor, while its massive end bays, with stepped entablature capped by sancered fountains are said to give the architectural eye a feeling of safety against spreading. This feeling of security continues as the spectator's gaze travels down the unusual design of the metal dome to the solid projecting bays that contain the statues of King George V and Queen Mary, which complete the composition. Some think that the colour scheme avoids the "glaring disunity" in Moghul buildings when the white luminous marble was used with similar red sandstone, for here, the two sandstones, red and cream are blended and co-ordinated. With regard to the interior decorations of New Delhi, strenuous efforts were made by those who believed in the enterprise as a point of focus for the revival of Indian art to obtain for the Indian art schools and artists commissions to carry out the mural paintings required in the new buildings. After a great deal of public agitation on this subject in Bombay some commissions of this kind were given by the Government of India, based on the results of a public competition. But in spite of the indubitable success of many of the paintings, and the proof furnished thereby of the Indian artist's capacities for this kind of work, nothing further has been accomplished in the matter since the end of 1929.

The controversy of East and West, however vital to the interests of the country's architecture, is too purely technical for its merits to be estimated by the general reader or discussed here. Its chief claim on our attention lies in the fact that it affords an added interest to the tourist, who may see the fruits of both schools of thought in the modern buildings of British India as well as examples of the "master-builder" work in nearly every native town and bazaar. The town of Lashkar in Gwalior State may be cited as peculiarly rich in instances of picturesque modern Indian street architecture, while at Jaipur, Udaipur, Benares, etc., this class of work may be studied in many different forms both civil and religious.

Industrial Arts.

The ancient industrial arts of India formed two distinct groups. The first included those allied to, and dependent upon, architecture; the second comprise those applied to articles devoted to religious ritual; military weapons and trappings, domestic accessories and to personal adornment.

The articles of the first group were intended for some fixed and definite position, and the style of their design and the character of their workmanship were dictated by that of the building with which they were incorporated. Those of the second group were movable, and the range of their design was less constricted and their workmanship was more varied. Examples of work in both groups are so numerous, and the arts comprise such a diversity of application, that only a cursory survey can be attempted within the limits of a short review. Although the design and treatment differ in the two groups, the materials used were often the same. These materials cover a very wide range but space only permits of reference to work applied to the four materials upon which the Indian craftsman's skill has been most extensively displayed. These are stone, wood, metal and textiles.

Before dealing separately with each of these materials a few words upon the principal Indian styles are necessary. The two distinctive styles are Hindu and Mahomedan. The former may be termed indigenous, dating as it does from remote antiquity, the latter was a variation of the great Arabian style, which was brought into India in the fourteenth century, and has since developed features essentially Indian in character. The art of both Hindus and Mahomedans is based upon religion and the requirements of religious ritual. The obvious expression of this is shown in the different motifs used for their ornament. In Hindu art all natural forms are accepted and employed for decorative purposes; but in that of the Mahomedans, nearly all natural forms are rejected and forbidden. The basis of Mahomedan decoration is therefore mainly geometrical. In each of them, racial characteristics are strikingly exhibited. The keynote of Hindu work is exuberance, imagination and poetry; that of Mahomedan, reticence, intellect and good taste. The Hindus are lavish, and often indiscriminate in their employment of ornament, the Mahomedans use more restraint. In fact the two styles may be compared, without straining the analogy, to the Gothic and classic styles in Europe. In both styles the fecundity of ideas and invention in design are marvellous, and the craftsmanship often reaches a very high standard. Hindu art had been subjected throughout the ages to many foreign influences, but the artistic instincts of the people have proved so conservative that, whether these alien ideas came from the east or the west, they have often been absorbed, and are now stamped with a definite Indian character. Recognition of this fact should relieve the anxiety of those critics who fear that the penetration of Western art and culture into India at the present time will eventually rob Indian art of its national character.

Stone Work.—Carved stone work is the principal form of decoration employed in Hindu temples. In variety and scope it ranges from the massive figures in the Buddhist and Brahminical Cave Temples, and the detached sculpture of the temples of Southern India, to the delicately incised reliefs and elaborately fretted ornament of the Jain temples at Mount Abu. A curious fact in relation to Hindu work is that priority of date appears to have no relation to artistic development. It is not possible to trace, as in the case of Greek, Roman and Medieval craftwork, the regular progressive steps from art in its primitive state to its culminating point and its subsequent decay. Styles in India seem to spring into existence fully developed, the earlier examples often exhibiting finer craftsmanship than those of a later date. There can be little doubt that stone carving in India was simply the application of the wood carvers' art to another material. The treatment of stone by the Hindu craftsmen, even in the constructive principles of their buildings, bears a closer resemblance to the practice of the wood-worker than to that of the stone mason. The earlier wooden examples from which the stone buildings and their decorations were derived have long since disappeared, but their influence is apparent. The keynote of Hindu design is rhythmic rather than symmetrical; that of their craftsmanship, vigour rather than refinement. In the carving of the human figure and of animals great power of expressing action is shown, and this spontaneous feeling is preserved despite the greatest elaboration and detail. The industry displayed is amazing, no amount of labour appears to have daunted the Hindu craftsmen in carrying out their huge and intricate schemes of decoration.

The stone carving on Mahomedan buildings except where Hindu carvers have been allowed a free hand, is much more restrained than that on Hindu temples. The fact that geometrical forms were almost exclusively used, dictated lower relief and greater refinement in the carving, while the innate good taste of the designers prompted them to concentrate the ornament upon certain prominent features, where its effect was heightened by the simplicity of the rest of the building. The invention displayed in working out geometrical patterns for work screens, inlay, and other ornamental details appears to be inexhaustible; while wonderful decorative use has been made of Arabic and Persian lettering in panels and their framing. To obtain a rich effect the Hindus relied upon the play of light and shade upon broken surfaces, the Mahomedans to attain the same end used precious materials; veneering the surfaces of their buildings with polished marble which they decorated with patterns of mosaic composed of jade, agate, onyx and other costly stones. Although the art of inlaying and working in hard stones was of Italian origin, it proved to be one eminently suited to the genius of the Indian craftsman; and many wonderful examples of their skill in the form of book rests, tables, thrones, footstools, vases and sword handles are extant to show the height of proficiency they attained. The treatment of precious

stones by Indian jewellers may here be referred to. Sir George Birdwood states that "the Indian jeweller thinks of producing the sumptuous, imposing effect of dazzling variety of rich and brilliant colours and nothing of the purity of his gems." This is true in a general sense and "full many a gem of purest ray serene" was utterly ruined by crude cutting and piercing. But although as early as the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries diamonds and precious stones from the Indian mines were taken to Europe to be cut, many of the finest jewels found their way back to the treasure houses of Indian princes. Sir G. Watt has divided Indian stone work into three great stages or types, viz (1) from the excavation of Cave Temples and the construction of Buddhist topes, (2) the building of Hindu Chalukyan and Jain Temples, (3) the Pathan and Moghul Mosques, tombs and palaces. It is interesting to note that the Schools of Art in India have given attention to this industry. For instance the Bombay School of Art has to its credit a number of public buildings adorned by means of its student stone-cutters.

Wood Work—With a fine range of timbers suitable for the purpose, wood has played a great part in the construction and decoration of Indian buildings. Unfortunately, much of the ancient wood work has been destroyed by the action of the climate and the teeming insectivorous life of India; and that which escaped these enemies was wiped out by fire and the sword. It is therefore only possible to conjecture the height of artistic development these buildings and their decorations displayed by the copies in stone which have been preserved. Few if any examples of a date earlier than the sixteenth century are to be found. Many of these, and specimens of a later date to be seen in towns and cities throughout the country, are masterpieces of design and craftsmanship. The carved timber fronts and inner courtyards of houses in Ahmedabad, Nasik, and other parts of Western India are notable for their picturesqueness and beauty, the structural beams, the overhanging balconies, with their screens and supporting brackets, being carved in a manner which unites richness of effect with good taste and propriety. Of furniture, as the term is now understood, few examples were in use in India before Europeans introduced their own fashions. These were confined to small tables and stools, book rests, clothes chests and screens, the designs of which conformed somewhat closely to the architectural style of the period. Many of these were decorated with inlays of coloured woods, ivory and metal, while in some cases the wooden basis was entirely plated with copper, brass or silver. In Southern India, where close grained sandalwood is grown, jewel cases and boxes are enriched with carving executed with the attention to detail and the finish generally associated with the carving of ivory. Coloured lac was freely used to decorate many articles of furniture, especially those turned on the lathe, and rich colour effects were obtained in this, perhaps the most distinctive and typically Indian development of decoration as applied to wood work. Teak, shisham, deodbar, sandalwood, ebony, walnut, jun, nim and Madras red wood are among the chief woods used in India for ornamental work.

Metal Work—With the exception of weaving, the metal working industry employed and still employs the greatest number of artistic craftsmen in India. Copper and brass have always been the two metals most widely used for domestic purposes by Mahomedans and Hindus. The shapes of many of these humble vessels are among the most beautiful to be found in the country. They exhibit that sense of variety and touch of personality which are only given by the work of the human hand; and the shapes are those which grow naturally from the working of the material with the simplest implements. In the technical treatment of brass and copper Indian craftsmen have shown a taste and skill unsurpassed by those of other nations, except in the department of fine casting. In this, and in the working of gold and silver, a higher standard of technical and constructive exactness has been reached by the metal workers of Europe and Japan. It may be taken as an axiom that the more beautiful the shape of an article is, and this especially applies to metal work, the less need exists for the decoration of its surface. It is equally true that the highest test of craftsmanship is the production of a perfect article without any decoration. The reason being that the slightest technical fault is apparent on a plain surface, but can be hidden or disguised of one which is covered with ornament. The goldsmiths and silversmiths of India were extremely skilful and industrious, but judged by this test their works often exhibit a lack of care and exactness in the structural portion and a completely satisfactory example of perfectly plain work from the hands of the gold and silversmiths of India is rarely to be met with. Much of the excessive and often inappropriate ornamentation of the articles that they produced owed its application as much to the necessity of hiding defective construction as it did to any purely decorative purpose. For many generations, ornaments of gold and silver were regarded in the light of portable wealth, a practice which naturally made for massiveness. These solid ornaments are most effective and picturesque; and, despite an enormous output of elaborate and delicate work from their hands, the most valuable contribution of the Indian metal workers to the sum total of man's artistic use of the precious metals will probably be found to lie in a certain barbaric note which distinguishes these pieces—a note not present in the craft work of other countries. In the design of Hindn gold and silver ornaments, religious symbols have been extensively used. The ornaments which bedeck the early sculptured figures, and those depicted in the paintings at the Cave Temples of Ajanta are precisely the same in design and use as similar articles made at the present time, thus affording a striking evidence of the inherent conservatism of the Hindn people and its effect upon an industrial art that makes a closer personal appeal than any other.

Textiles.—The textile industry is the widest in extent in India and is that in which her craftsmen have shown their highest achievements. Other countries, east and west of India have produced work equal at least in stone, wood, and metal; but none has ever matched that of her weavers in cotton and wool, or excelled them in the weaving of silk.

fabrics. Some of the products of the looms of Bengal are marvels of technical skill and perfect taste, while the plum bloom quality of the old Cashmere shawls is an artistic achievement which places them in a class by themselves. Weaving being essentially a process of repetition, was the first to which machinery was applied, and modern science has brought power loom weaving to such a state of perfection that filaments of a substance finer even than those of Dacca, which astonished our ancestors, are now produced in the mills of Lancashire. But for beauty of surface and variety of texture no machine-made fabrics have ever equalled the finest handwork of the weavers of India. Many of the most beautiful varieties of Indian textile work have disappeared, killed by the competition of the power loom. In other branches of art as applied to textiles India does not hold so pre-eminent a position as in that of weaving. The printed silks and calicoes of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries deservedly held a high place in the estimation of Western nations, whose craftsmen learnt many valuable lessons from the technical skill, and artistic taste they display. Nothing approaching the tapestries made in Europe in the middle ages has been produced in India. The nearest approach to these is in carpets and rugs. This art was introduced from Persia, but Indian craftsmen have never succeeded in equalling the finest work of their instructors either in colour or design.

Modern Conditions.—In the foregoing sketch of the ancient industrial art of India, as applied to the four principal materials employed only a general indication of its more striking characteristics has been possible. A volume would be required to give a detailed description of say one of them, and would leave many other minor arts to be considered. All these branches of art came into existence, were developed and flourished in India when social and economic conditions were vastly different from those of the present day. Like similar artistic crafts carried on in Europe up to the end of the eighteenth century, they were executed by hand labour. The processes involved had not been discovered by scientific inquiry, such as is now understood by the phrase, but were the outcome of generations of slowly built up experience. We now come to the effect upon them of the changed conditions which have revolutionised industrial art in Europe during the last century.

The invention of the steam engine, and the application of mechanical power and scientific research to industry in Europe, mark the dividing line between ancient and modern industrial art. Not only on its technical side is this so, but the effect of these changes has been to alter the character of the work itself and the spirit which animated the craftsmen. In place of the ancient ideal of variety in design and treatment, which meant a limited output, the modern one of uniformity and unlimited output has been substituted. The capitalist has displaced the master craftsman, the organised factory, the small workshop; specialisation and division of labour have taken the place of general proficiency among the artisans, the function of the designer has been separated from that of the craftsman, local markets have

been extended to serve the whole world; and the skilled handcraftsman has, in a great measure, become a machine-minder. It took about one hundred years of gradual change for the craftsmen of Europe fully to adjust themselves to these altered conditions; and during the greater portion of that period India protected by the difficulties of transport, continued its immemorial practices. Fifty years ago this protective barrier was removed by the opening of the Suez Canal, and the craftsmen of India have since been struggling to avoid the same fate which overtook those of Europe half a century before. With less time to adapt themselves to the changed conditions the Indian craftsmen have had to meet the competition of European rivals already fully equipped with new and unknown tools. Even before this period of intense competition, observers interested in Indian craftwork had noticed evidences of its deterioration. The falling off, both in design and workmanship was attributed to the conservative practice of the craftsmen; to the gradual loss of foreign markets, and to the long period of internal disorder which had deprived them of both the patronage of the rulers of an earlier age and the stimulating contact with foreign craftsmen who had previously been attracted to the splendid courts at Delhi and Agra. During the same period, an even greater degradation in design had overtaken the craftwork of Europe. This was due to entirely different causes, namely, to the introduction of machinery. Attention had been so concentrated upon speedy production, mechanical accuracy and commercial organisation that beauty of design had been almost entirely neglected. This was so forcibly demonstrated at the International Exhibition of 1851 that efforts were at once made to bring art and industry together once more. Schools of Art and Museums were founded throughout England and the same system was copied in a tentative and timid fashion in India. The function of these institutions was accurately estimated in England, where the artistic industries were already highly organised and were commercially successful, and whose products were to be found in every market of the world. Their business was to assist these industries by training a body of efficient designers capable of furnishing the factories with suitable designs, new or old, and in any style, to satisfy the requirements of customers in any country. It was never supposed for an instant that a School of Art could lead an industry. In India their function was as completely misunderstood as were the causes of the depression in Indian craftwork. The schools were not only expected to lead the industries which were living, but to revive those which were moribund, and resurrect those which were dead. In the report of the Indian Industrial Commission the need for some State-aided system of industrial and commercial organisation of the industrial arts with an expanded scheme of technical and artistic instruction for the craftsmen has been recognised. If, assistance and encouragement are given by the Imperial and Local Governments to the Indian craftsmen industrial art in India will quickly emerge from the cloud of depression, which has hung over it for a century past into the sunlight of prosperity.

Archæology.

The ancient monuments of India are as varied as they are numerous. Until a few years ago, the earliest known were the brick and stone erections of the Maurya period, a group of mounds at Lauriya Nandangarh, illustrative of the Vedic funeral customs and assignable roughly to the 7th or 8th century B C, and some rough stone walls at the ancient city of Rajagriha of about the same period. The absence of structures of an earlier period was then supposed to be due to the fact that all previous architecture had been of wood and had completely perished. The recent excavations, however, at Mohenjo-daro, in Sind and at Harappa in the Punjab, have completely revolutionised ideas on this subject and proved that as far back as the 3rd or 4th millennium B C, and probably much earlier still, India was in possession of a highly developed civilization with large and populous cities, well built houses, temples and public buildings of brick and many other amenities enjoyed at that period by the peoples of Mesopotamia and Egypt. Both at Mohenjo-daro and Harappa there are the remains of some 5 or 6 cities superimposed one upon the ruins of another.

The structures that have so far been exposed at Mohenjo-daro belong to the three latest cities on the site. Those of the third or earliest are the best in style, those of the first the poorest. Most of the structures are dwelling houses or shops, but there are others which appear to have been temples and one—of particularly massive proportions—is a large bath, surrounded by fenestrated galleries and halls. All were built of well burnt brick and most of them were of two or more storeys with staircases giving access to the upper rooms. In and around the ruins have been found many minor antiquities including gold and silver jewellery, engraved seals of stone and ivory and paste copper implements and vessels, terracotta figurines and toys, shell ornaments and potteries both painted and plain.

These discoveries establish the existence in Sind and the Punjab during the 4th and 3rd millennia B C of a highly developed city life, and the presence, in many of the houses, of wells and bathrooms as well as an elaborate drainage system betoken a social condition of the citizens at least equal to that found in Sumer and superior to that prevailing in contemporary Babylon and Egypt. The inhabitants of these cities lived largely no doubt by agriculture and it is a point of interest that the specimens of wheat found at Mohenjo-daro resemble the common variety grown in the Punjab to-day. Besides bread, their food appears to have included beef, mutton, and pork, the flesh of tortoises, turtles and gharial, fresh fish from the Indus and dried fish from the sea coast. Among their domesticated animals were the humped Indian bull, the buffalo, a short horned bull, the sheep, pig, dog and elephant. Besides gold and silver they used copper, tin, bronze and lead; they were familiar with the arts of spinning and weaving and with the cultivation of cotton and had attained a high degree of proficiency in the jeweller's and potter's arts.

That they possessed a well developed system of writing is evidenced by the discovery of over a thousand tablets engraved with well-executed animal devices and pictographic legends in an unknown script. The method of disposal of the dead at Mohenjo-daro is uncertain but at Harappa two types of burial have been met with, namely, complete burials along with funerary pottery, and "pot burials." Only 27 of the latter have been examined and these were found to contain skulls and human bones and are seemingly fractional burials.

This Indus Valley culture has now been traced as far as Rupar in the Ambala District, relatively close to the watershed of the Sutlej and Jumna and it is therefore highly improbable that this civilization was confined to the Indus Valley and there can hardly be any reasonable doubt that future researches will trace it into the valley of the Ganges. Of the long period of more than 2,000 years that separates the pre-historic monuments referred to above from the historic period of India, little or nothing is yet known but there is every hope that this gap in our knowledge may be filled in by further excavations. From the time of the Mauryas, i.e., 3rd century B C, the history of architecture and the formative arts of India is clear and can be traced with relative precision. The financial stringency caused by the world economic depression caused almost the suspension of excavation in these areas.

Monumental Pillars.—The monuments which have come down to us from the Maurya period, include, besides the caves to be referred to below, the wooden palisade (4th century B C) which surrounded the ancient city of Pataliputra (modern Patna), and of which a large section has been exposed, the rock and pillar edicts of Asoka (c. 250 B C), the remains of a large pillared hall constructed by the same emperor at Pataliputra, a number of brick stupas and a monolithic rail which originally surmounted an Asoka stupa at Sarnath near Benares. Altogether thirteen pillars of Asoka are known besides the Elephant capital of a 14th at Sankasa and a fragment of a 15th at Benares. Ten of them bear his inscriptions. Of these the Lauriya-Nandangarh column in the Champaran District, Tirhut, is practically uninjured. The capital of each column, like the shaft, was monolithic, and comprised three members, viz., a Persepolitan bell, abacus, and crowning sculpture in the round. By far the best capital of Asoka's time was that exhumed at Sarnath near Benares. The four lions standing back to back on the abacus are carved with extraordinary precision and accuracy, and originally supported a wheel symbolizing the law of piety preached by the Buddha. Several pieces of this wheel were found and are now preserved in the Archaeological Museum at Sarnath. Of the post-Asokan period one pillar (B.C. 150) stands to the north-east of Benagar in the Gwalior State, another in front of the cave of Karli (A.D. 70), and a third at Eran in Central Provinces belonging to the 5th Century A.D. All these are of stone, but there is one of iron also. It is near the Qutb Minar

at Delhi, and an inscription on it speaks of it having been erected by a king called Chundra (identified with Chundragupta II (A.D. 475-505) of the Gupta dynasty. It is wonderful "to find the Hindus at that age forging a bar of iron larger than any that have been forged even in Europe to a very late date, and not frequently even now." Pillars of later date are found all over the country, especially in the Madras Presidency. No less than twenty exist in the South Kanara District. A particularly elegant example faces a Jaina temple at Mundabidri, not far from Mangalore. An interesting discovery was lately made concerning the Iron Pillar at Dhur, Central India. The Pillar is like that at New Delhi one of those large sized products of ancient Indian metal work which have excited the admiration of modern metalurgists. The Pillar is now broken in three pieces, measuring together more than 12 feet in length and there is reason to believe that a fourth piece 7 feet long has disappeared. The date and purpose of the Pillar were uncertain until a recent discovery which is of an inscription of the time of the Paramara King Wija of Dhur, A.D. 1018-60, fragments of which were found in a Dhur mosque which occupies the site of a grammar school established by that king. This is held to fix the period when the pillar was made. A ninth century temple brought to light at Nalanda the site of one of the ancient universities, contained 75 bronze or copper and some images representing Buddhist and Brahmanical gods and goddesses. Bronze statues previously found at Nalanda had been secured from a Pala king at Bengal at the request of Balaputra of the Sailendra dynasty of Sumatranadwipa (Sumatra), and it was surmised that those statues were either made at Nalanda by Javanese artists or brought from Java. The discovery of the new lot of bronze statues in a Monastery which has nothing to do with the Sumatran king is held finally to disprove this conclusion and to show that all the bronze images discovered at Nalanda were the work of local metal-casters.

Topes.—*Stupas*, known as *dagabas* in Ceylon and commonly called *Topes* in North India, were constructed either for the safe custody of relics hidden in a chamber often near the base or to mark the scene of notable events in Buddhist or Jaina legends. Though we know that the ancient Jains built *stupas*, no specimen of Jaina *stupas* is now extant. A notable structure of this kind which existed until recent times, was the Jaina *stupa* which stood on the Kankali Tila site at Muttra and yielded a large number of Jaina sculptures now deposited in the Provincial Museum at Lucknow. Of those belonging to the Buddhists, the great *Topo* of Sanchi in Bhopal is the most intact and entire of its class. It consists of a low circular drum supporting a hemispherical dome of less diameter. Round the drum is an open passage for circumambulation, and the whole is enclosed by a massive stone railing with lofty gates facing the cardinal points. The gates are essentially wooden in character, and are curved, inside and out, with elaborate sculptures. The original *stupa*, which was of brick and not more than half the present dimensions, was apparently erected by Asoka at the same time as his lion-crowned pillar near the south gate, but as

Sir John Marshall's recent explorations have conclusively shown, its outer casing of stone, the railing and the *prabhavali* were at least 120 and 200 years later, respectively. Other famous Buddhist *stupas* that have been found are those of Saranath, Bharhut, Jetavana, Ajitkeshava and Jambhulphera. Another in the Malabar District, and Bhadracharya in the Nagpur frontier. The top group at Bharhut has entirely disappeared, but it has still a fine building within, and a part remained of the rail has been removed to the Calcutta Museum. The bas-reliefs on the rail which contain most inscriptions and thus enable one to identify the scene sculptured with the *Jataka* or birth stories of the Buddha give it a unique value. The *stupa* at Amaravati also has bas-reliefs, and portions of its rail, which is unsurpassed in point of elaboration and artistic merit, are now in the British and Madras Museums. The *stupa* at Bhadracharya was opened by Mr. W. C. Phipps in 1898, and a stucco or earthen reliquary with an inscription on it was unearthed. The inscription according to many scholars appears to be the name of the Buddha himself and enshrined by his brethren, the *Arhats*. If this interpretation is correct, we have here one of the *stupas* that were erected on the day of Buddha immediately after his death.

Caves.—Of the rock excavations which are one of the wonders of India, the best belong to Western India. The most important groups of caves are situated in Bharat, Madras, Kathi, Kanheri, Junnar, and Nasik in the Bombay Presidency, Ellora and Ajanta in Nizam's Dominions, Barabar and Nagarjuni 16 miles north of Gaya, and Udayagiri and Khandagiri 20 miles from Cuttack in Orissa. The caves belong to the three principal sects into which ancient India was divided, viz., the Buddhists, Hindus and Jains. The earliest caves so far discovered are those of Barabar and Nagarjuni which were excavated by Asoka and his grandson Dasaratha, and dedicated to Ajivika, a naked sect founded by Mankhalliputta Gotama. The next earliest caves are those of Bhaja, Pitalkhora and cave No. 1 at Ajanta and No. 19 at Nasik. They have been assigned to 200 B.C. by Ferguson and Dr. Burgess. But there is good reason to suppose from Sir John Marshall's recent researches and from epigraphic considerations that they are considerably more modern. The Buddhist caves are of two types—the *chaityas* or chapel caves and *vikharas* or monasteries for the residence of monks. The first are with vaulted roofs and horse-shoe shaped windows over the entrance and have interiors consisting of a nave and side aisles with a small *stupa* at the inner circular end. They are thus remarkably similar to Christian basilicas. The second class consist of a hall surrounded by a number of cells. In the later *vikharas* there was a sanculum in the centre of the back wall containing a large image of Buddha. Hardly a *chaitya* is found without one or more *vikharas* adjoining it. Of the Hindu cave temples that at Elephanta near Bombay is perhaps the most frequented. It is dedicated to Shiva and is not earlier than the 7th century A.D. But by far the most renowned cave-temple of the Hindus is that known as Kailasa at Ellora. It is on the model of a complete structural temple but carved out of solid rock. It also is

dedicated to Siva and was excavated by the Rashtrakuta king, Krishna I, (A D 788), who may still be seen in the paintings in the ceilings of the upper porch of the main shrine. Of the Jaina caves the earliest are at Khadagiri and Udayagiri; those of the mediæval type, in Indra Sabha at Ellora; and those of the latest period, at Anhai in Nasik. The ceilings of many of these caves were once adorned with fresco paintings. Perhaps, the best preserved among these are those at Ajanta, which were executed at various periods between 350-650 A.D. and have elicited high praise as works of art. Copies were first made by Major Gill, but most of them perished by fire at the Crystal Palace in 1866. The lost ones were again copied, by John Griffiths of the Arts School, Bombay, half of whose work was similarly destroyed by a fire at South Kensington. They were last copied by Lady Herringham during 1909-11. Her pictures, which are in full scale, are at present exhibited at the Indian Section of the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington, and have been reproduced in a volume brought out by the India Society. Another group of caves where equally interesting though less well preserved paintings exist is found at Bagh in Gwalior State. These caves form the subject of a monograph issued by the India Society.

Gandhara Monuments—On the north-west frontier of India, anciently known as Gandhara, are found a class of remains, ruined monasteries and buried stupas, among which we notice for the first time representations of Buddha and the Buddhist pantheon. The free use of Corinthian capitals, friezes of nude Erotes bearing a long garland, winged Atlantes without number, and a host of individual motifs clearly establish the influence of Hellenistic art. The mound at Peshawar, locally known as Shah-jī-ki-Dheri, which was explored in 1909, brought to light several interesting sculptures of this school together with a reliquary casket, the most remarkable bronze object of the Gandhara period. The inscription on the casket left no doubt as to the mound being the stupa raised over a portion of the holy relics of Buddha by the Indo Scythian king Kanishka. They were presented by Lord Minto's Government to the Buddhists of Burma and are now enshrined at Mandalay. To about the same age belong the stupas at Manikyala in the Punjab opened by Ranjit Singh's French Generals, Ventura and Court, in 1890. Some of them contained coins of Kanishka. There was brought to light at Taxila during the winter of 1932-33 what proved to be the largest monastery so far unearthed in north-west India. In it there was an inscription dated in the year 134 of an unspecified era and roughly corresponding with the year 76 A.D. The record is regarded as important because of the assistance it gives in dating Gandhara sculptures in various parts.

Structural Temples—Of this class the earliest examples are the Varaha temple at Deogarh, District Jhansi, another temple at Sanchi, the brick temples at Bhittargao in the district of Cawnpore and the temples at Tigowa, Nachna, Eran and Bhumara all of which belong to the Gupta period and a later one at Tigowa in the Central Provinces. In South India we have two more examples viz. Lad Khan and Durga

temples at Ajhole in Bijapur, the latter of which cannot be later than the eighth century A.D. The only common characteristic is flat roofs without spires of any kind. In other respects they are entirely different and already here we mark the beginning of the two styles, Indo-Aryan and Dravidian, whose differences become more and more pronounced from the 7th century onwards. In the Indo-Aryan style, the most prominent ones tend to the perpendicular, and in the Dravidian to the horizontal. The salient feature of the former again is the curvilinear steeple, and of the latter, the pyramidal tower. The most notable examples of the first kind are to be found among the temples of Dhuaneswar in Orissa, Khajuraho in Bundelkhand, Osia in Jodhpur, and Dilwara on Mount Abu. One of the best known groups in the Dravidian style is that of the Mamallapuram Rathes, or 'Seven Pagodas,' on the seashore to the south of Madras. They are each hewn out of a block of granite, and are rather models of temples than *rathes*. They are the earliest examples of typical Dravidian architecture, and belong to the 7th century. To the same age has to be assigned the temple of Kailasanath at Conjeeveram, and to the following century some of the temples at Ajhole and Pattadakal of the Bijapur District, Bombay Presidency, and the monolithic temple of Kailasa at Ellora, referred to above. Of the later Dravidian style the great temple at Tanjore and the Srirangam temple near Trichinopoly are the best examples.

Intermediate between these two main styles comes the architecture of the Deccan, called Chalukyan by Fergusson. In this style the plan becomes polygonal and star-shaped instead of quadrangular; and the high-storeyed spire is converted into a low pyramid in which the horizontal treatment of the Dravidian is combined with the perpendicular of the Indo-Aryan. Some fine examples of this type exist at Dambal, Ratthah, Tiliwalli and Hangal in Dharwar, Bombay Presidency, and at Ittagi and Warangal in Nizam's Dominions. But it is in Mysore among the temples at Halebidu, Beir, and Somnathpur that the style is found in its full perfection.

Inscriptions.—We now come to inscriptions, of which numbers have been brought to light in India. They have been engraved on varieties of materials, but principally on stone and copper. The earliest of these are found incised in two distinct kinds of alphabet, known as Brahmi and Kharoshthi, the latter being confined to the north-west of India. The Brahmi was read from left to right, and from it have been evolved all the modern vernacular scripts of India. The Kharoshthi was written from right to left, and was a modified form of the ancient Aramaic alphabet introduced into the Punjab during the period of the Persian domination in the 5th century B.C. It was prevalent up to the 4th century A.D., and was supplanted by the Brahmi. The earliest dateable inscriptions are the celebrated edicts of Asoka to which a reference has been made above. One group of these has been engraved on rocks, and another on pillars. They have been found from Shahbazgarhi 40 miles north-east of Peshawar to Nigirva in the Nepai Tarai, from Girnar in Kathiawar to Dhauli in Orissa, from Kalyan in the

Lower Himalayas to Siddapur in Mysore, showing by the way the vast extent of territory held by him. The reference in his Rock Edicts to the five contemporary Greek Princes, Antiochus II. of Syria, Ptolemy Philadelphus, and so forth is exceedingly interesting, and fixes B.C. 269 as the date of his coronation. His Rummindei pillar inscription, again, discovered in Nepal Tarai, now settles, beyond all doubt, the birth-place of Buddha which was for long disputed. Another noteworthy record is the inscription of the Basmagar pillar. The pillar had been known for a long time but Sir John Marshall was the first to notice the inscription on it. It records the erection of this column, which was a Garuda pillar, in honour of the god Vasudeva by one Heliodoros, son of Dion who is described as an envoy of King Antialcidas of Taxila. Heliodoros is herein called a *Bhagavata*, which shows that though a Greek he had become a Hindu and presumably a Vaishnava. Another inscription worth noting and especially in this connection is that of Cave No 10 at Nasik. The donor of this cave, Ushavadata, who calls himself a Saka and was thus an Indo-Scythian, is therein spoken of as having granted three hundred thousand kine and sixteen villages to gods and Brahmans and as having annually fed one hundred thousand Brahmans. Here is another instance of a foreigner having embraced Hinduism. Thus for the political, social, economical and religious history of India at the different periods the inscriptions are invaluable records, and are the only light but for which we are 'forlorn and blind.'

Saracenic Architecture—This begins in India with the 13th century after the permanent occupation of the Muhammadans. Their first mosques were constructed of the materials of Hindu and Jaina temples, and sometimes with comparatively slight alterations. The mosque called *Ahar-din-La-jompra* at Ajmer and that near the Quth Minar are instances of this kind. The Muhammadan architecture of India varied at different periods and under the various dynasties, imperial and local. The early Pathan architecture of Delhi was massive and at the same time was characterised by elaborate richness of ornamentation. The Quth Minar and tombs of Altamsh and Ala-ud-din Khilji are typical examples. Of the Sharqi style we have three mosques in Jaunpur with several tombs. At Mandu in the Dhar State, a third form of Saracenic architecture sprang up, and we have here the Jami Masjid, Hoshang's tomb, Jahaz Mahal and Hindola Mahal as the most notable instances of the secular and ecclesiastical styles of the Malwa Pathans. The Muhammadans of Bengal again developed their own style, and Pandua, Malda, and Gaur teem with the ruins of the buildings of this type, the important of which are the Adina Masjid of Sikandar Shah, the Eklakhi mosque, Kadam Rasul Masjid, and so forth. The Bahmani dynasty of Gulbarga and Bidar were also great builders, and adorned their capitals with important buildings. The most striking of these is the great mosque of Gulbarga, which differs from all mosques in India in having the whole central area covered over so that what in others would be an open court is here roofed by sixty-three small domes. "Of the various forms

which the Saracenic architecture assumed," says Fergusson, "that of Ahmedabad may probably be considered to be the most elegant." It is notable for its carved stone work; and the work of the perforated stone windows in Sidi Sayyid's mosque, the carved niches of the minars of many other mosques, the sculptured *Mihrabs* and domed and panelled roofs is so exquisite that it will rival anything of the sort executed elsewhere at any period. No other style is so essentially Hindū. In complete contrast with this was the form of architecture employed by the Adil Shahi dynasty of Bijapur. There is here relatively little trace of Hindū forms or details. The principal buildings now left at Bijapur are the Jami Masjid, Gagan Mahal, Mihtar Mahal, Ibrahim Ranza and mosque and the Gol Gumbaz. Like their predecessors, the Pathans of Delhi, the Moghuls were a great building race. Their style first began to evolve itself during the reign of Akbar in a combination of Hindu and Muhammadan features. Noteworthy among the emperor's buildings are the tomb of Humayun, and the palaces at Fatehpur Sikri and Agra. Of Jehangir's time his mosque at Lahore and the tomb of Itmad-ud-daula are the most typical structures. "The force and originality of the style gave way under Shah Jahan to a delicate elegance and refinement of detail." And it was during his reign that the most splendid of the Moghul tombs, the Taj Mahal at Agra, the tomb of his wife Mumtaz Mahal, was constructed. The Moti Masjid in Agra Fort is another surpassingly pure and elegant monument of his time.

Archæological Department—As the archæological monuments of India must attract the attention of all intelligent visitors, they would naturally feel desirous to know something of the Archæological Department. The work of this Department is primarily two-fold, conservation, and research and exploration. None but spasmodic efforts appear to have been made by Government in these directions till 1870 when they established the Archæological Survey of India and entrusted it to General (afterwards Sir) Alexander Cunningham, who was also the first Director-General of Archæology. The next advance was the initiation of the local Surveys in Bombay and Madras three years after. The work of these Surveys, however, was restricted to antiquarian research and description of monuments, and the task of conserving old buildings was left to the fiscal efforts of the local Governments, often without expert guidance or control. It was only in 1878 that the Government of India under Lord Lytton awoke to this deplorable condition, and sanctioned a sum of 3½ lakhs to the repair of monuments in United Provinces, and soon after appointed a conservator, Major Cole, who did useful work for three years. Then a reaction set in, and his post and that of the Director-General were abolished. The first systematic step towards recognising official responsibility in conservation matters was taken by Lord Curzon's Government, who established seven of the eight Archæological Circles that now obtain, placed them on a permanent footing and united them together under the control of a Director-General, provision being also made for subsidising local Governments out of Imperial funds, when necessary. The Ancient

Monuments Preservation Act was passed for the protection of historic monuments and relics especially in private possession and also for State control over the excavation of ancient sites and traffic in antiquities. Under the direction of Sir John Marshall, Kt., O.I.E., late Director-General of Archaeology, a comprehensive and systematic campaign of repair and excavation has been prosecuted, and the result of it is manifest in the present altered conditions of many old and historic buildings and in the scientific excavation of buried sites such as Taxila, Patalliputra, Sanchi in the Bhopal State, Sarnath near Benares, Nalanda in Bihar, Pharapur in Bengal and Nagarkunkonda in Madras and in the Indus Valley at Harappa in the Punjab and Mohenjodaro in Sind. Of all these works those of most general interest are the Mohenjodaro excavations, for here the Archaeological Department have unearthed remains of prehistoric cities dating back to 3000 B.C. and further. The Archaeological Survey has devoted considerable attention to the organization and development of museums as centres of research and education. It maintains

the archaeological section of the Indian Museum at Calcutta, small museums at the Taj, and at the Forts at Agra, Delhi and Lahore, the Central Asian Antiquities Museum at New Delhi and has erected local museums at the excavated sites of Taxila, Sarnath, Nalanda, Mohenjodaro and Harappa with the object of keeping the small movable antiquities recovered at these sites in close association with the structural remains to which they belong, so that they may be studied amid their natural surroundings and not lose focus and meaning by being transported to some distant place.

The epigraphical material dealt with by the Archaeological Survey has enabled the history and chronology of the various dynasties of India to be established on a firmer basis and in greater detail. The "Epigraphia Indica" is now in the 21st volume, a revised edition of the Asoka inscriptions has been recently published while the companion volume of post Asokan Brahmi inscriptions is under preparation. A volume of non-Asokan Kharoshthi inscriptions was published two years ago.

Indian Time.

For many years Indian time was in a state of chaotic confusion. What was called Madras or Railway time was kept on all the railways and each great centre of population kept its own local time, which was not based on any common scientific principle and was divorced from the standards of all other countries. It was with a view to remedying this confusion that the Government of India took the matter up in 1904, and addressed to the Local Governments, and through them to all local bodies, a long letter which reviewed the situation and made suggestions for the future. The essential points in this letter are indicated below.

"In India we have already a standard time, which is very generally, though by no means universally, recognised. It is the Madras local time, which is kept on all railway and telegraph lines throughout India and which is 5h. 21m. 10s. in advance of Greenwich. Similarly, Rangoon local time is used upon the railways and telegraphs of Burma, and is 6h. 24m. 47s. ahead of Greenwich. But neither of these standards bears a simple and easily remembered relation to Greenwich time.

"The Government of India have several times been addressed by Scientific Societies, both in India and in England, and urged to fall into line with the rest of the civilised world. And now the Royal Society has once more returned to the attack. The Committee of that Society which advises the Government of India upon matters connected with its observatories, writes—'The Committee think that a change from Madras time to that corresponding to a longitude exactly 5½ hours east of Greenwich would be an improvement upon the existing arrangements; but that for international scientific purposes the hourly zone system, making the time 5 hours in advance of Greenwich in the west, and 6 hours in advance in the east of India would be preferable.'

"Now if India were connected with Europe by a continuous series of civilised nations with their continuous railway systems all of which had adopted the European hour-zone system, it would be imperative upon India to conform and to adopt the second suggestion. But as she is not, and as she is as much isolated by uncivilised States as Cape Colony is by the ocean, it is open to her to follow the example of that and some other similarly situated colonies and to adopt the first suggestion.

"It is believed that this will be the better solution. There are obvious objections to drawing an arbitrary line right across the richest and most populous portions of India, and so as to bisect all the main lines of communication, and keeping times differing by an hour on opposite sides of that line. India has become accustomed to a uniform standard in the Madras time of the railways; and the substitution for it of a double standard would appear to be a retrograde step; while it would, in all probability, be strongly opposed by the railway authorities. Moreover, it is very desirable that whatever system is adopted should be followed by all Europeans and Indians alike, and it is certain that the double standard would puzzle the latter greatly; while by emphasising the fact that railway differed from local time, it might postpone or even altogether prevent the acceptance of the former instead of the latter by people generally over a large part of India. The one great advantage which the second possesses over the first alternative is, that under the former, the difference between local and standard time can never exceed half an hour; whereas under the latter it will even exceed an hour in the extreme cases of Karachi and Quetta. But this inconvenience is believed to be smaller than that of keeping two different times on the Indian system of railways and telegraphs.

"It is proposed, therefore, to put on all the railway and telegraph clocks in India by Standard Time. They would then represent a time 5½ hours later than that of Greenwich, which would be known as Indian Standard Time, and the difference between standard and local time at the places mentioned below would be approximately as follows, the figures representing minutes, and P and S. meaning that the standard time is in advance of or behind local time respectively.—Dibrugarh 51 S., Shillong 38 S., Calcutta 24 S., Allahabad 21 S., Madras 0 P., Lahore 33 P., Bombay 39 P., Peshawar 41 P., Karachi 62 P., Quetta 62 P."

"This standard time would be as much as 51 and 55 minutes behind local time at Mandalay and Rangoon, respectively, and since the railway system of Burma is not connected with that of India, and already keeps a time of its own, namely, Rangoon local time, it is not suggested that Indian Standard Time should be adopted in Burma. It is proposed, however, that in stead of using Rangoon Standard Time as at present, which is 6h 21m 47s. in advance of Greenwich, a Burma Standard Time should be adopted on all the Burmese railways and telegraphs, which would be one hour in advance of Indian Standard Time, or 6½ hours ahead of Greenwich time, and would correspond with 97° 30' E longitude. The change would bring Burma time into simple relation both with European and with Indian time, and would (among other things) simplify telegraphic communication with other countries."

"Standard times in this way have been fixed for all ways and telegraphs for the whole of the Indian Empire. Its general adoption for all purposes, while eminently advisable is a matter which must be left to the local communities in each area."

It is difficult to recall, without a special effort, the circumstances, the reception of this proposal by various local bodies. For a long time the fact that was considered that standard time was adopted is a study in the probability of human error. The Government of India, for local bodies to decide whether or not they would adopt it. Calcutta decided to retain P. as a local time, and to day Calcutta time is still twenty-four minutes in advance of standard time. In Bombay the local reception of the proposal was hostile, but on a second hearing the Chamber of Commerce decided in favor of it and would the Municipality. Subsequently the opposing element in the Municipality, the British Residents, by which the Municipality's were put at Bombay time which is thirty-nine minutes behind standard time. On the 1st January 1906 all the railway and telegraph clocks in India were put at Indian Standard Time, in Burma the Burmese retained their time because under it Calcutta retains its time. Calcutta time; but in Bombay local time is retained only in the clock which are maintained by the Municipality and in the establishments of some orthodox Hindus. Elsewhere standard time is universal.

TIDAL CONSTANTS.

The approximate standard time of High Water may be found by adding to, or subtracting from, the time of High Water at London Bridge, given in the calendar, the corrections given as below:—

	P. M.		H. M.
Gibraltar	sub. 0 32	Rangoon River Entrance	add 1 35
Malta	add 1 34	Penang	sub 1 39
Karachi	sub. 2 33	Singapore	" 3 25
Bombay	" 1 44	Hongkong	" 4 27
Goa	" 2 44	Shanghai	" 0 44
Pont de Galle	add 0 12	Yokohama	add 3 6
Madras	sub. 5 6	Valparaiso	sub. 1 10
Calcutta	" 0 19	Buenos Ayres	add 4 9
Rangoon Town	add 2 41	Monte Video	" 0 52

Coinage, Weights and Measures.

As the currency of India is based upon the rupee, statements with regard to money are generally expressed in rupees, nor has it been found possible in all cases to add a conversion into sterling. Down to about 1873 the gold value of the rupee (containing 165 grains of pure silver) was approximately equal to 2s., or one-tenth of a £, and for that period it is easy to convert rupees into sterling by striking off the final cipher (Rs 1,000=£100). But after 1873, owing to the depreciation of silver as compared with gold throughout the world, there came a serious and progressive fall in the exchange, until at one time the gold value of the rupee dropped as low as 1s. In order to provide a remedy for the heavy loss caused to the Government of India in respect of its gold payments to be made in England, and also to relieve foreign trade and finance from the inconvenience due to constant and unforeseen fluctuations in exchange, it was resolved in 1893 to close the mints to the free coinage of silver, and thus force up the value of the rupee by restricting the circulation. The intention was to raise the exchange value of the rupee to 1s. 4d., and then introduce a gold standard at the rate of Rs. 15=£1. From 1899 onwards the value of the rupee was maintained, with insignificant fluctuations, at the proposed rate of 1s. 4d. until February 1920 when the recommendation of the Committee appointed in the previous year that the rupee should be linked with gold and not with sterling at 2s. instead of 1s. 4d. was adopted. This was followed by great fluctuations (See article on Currency System).

Notation.—Another matter in connection with the expression of money statements in terms of rupees requires to be explained. The method of numerical notation in India differs from that which prevails throughout Europe. Large numbers are not punctuated in hundreds of thousands and millions, but in lakhs and crores. A lakh is one hundred thousand (written out as 1,00,000), and a crore is one hundred lakhs or ten millions (written out as 1,00,00,000). Consequently, according to the exchange value of the rupee, a lakh of rupees (Rs. 1,00,000) may be read as the equivalent of £10,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £6,667 after 1899, while a crore of rupees (Rs. 1,00,00,000) may similarly be read as the equivalent of £1,000,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £666,667 after 1899. With the rupee at 1s. 6d. a lakh is equivalent to £7,500 and a crore is equivalent to £750,000.

Coinage.—Finally, it should be mentioned that the rupee is divided into 16 annas, a fraction commonly used for many purposes by both Indians and Europeans. The anna was formerly reckoned as $\frac{1}{16}$ d., it may now be considered as exactly corresponding to $\frac{1}{16}$ d. The anna is again sub-divided into 12 pies.

Weights.—The various systems of weights used in India combine uniformity of scale with immense variations in the weight of units.

The scale used generally throughout Northern India, and less commonly in Madras and Bombay, may be thus expressed one maund=40 seers, one seer=16 chittaks or 80 tolas. The actual weight of a seer varies greatly from district to district, and even from village to village, but in the standard system the tola is 180 grains Troy (the exact weight of the rupee), and the seer thus weighs 2 057 lb., and the maund 82.28 lb. The standard is used in official reports.

Retail.—For calculating retail prices, the universal custom in India is to express them in terms of seers to the rupee. Thus, when prices change what varies is not the amount of money to be paid for the same quantity, but the quantity to be obtained for the same amount of money. In other words, prices in India are quantity prices, not money prices. When the figure of quantity goes up, this of course means that the price has gone down, which is at first sight perplexing to an English reader. It may, however, be mentioned that quantity prices are not altogether unknown in England, especially at small shops where pennyworths of many groceries can be bought. Eggs, likewise, are commonly sold at a varying number for the shilling. If it be desired to convert quantity prices from Indian into English denominations without having recourse to money prices (which would often be misleading), the following scale may be adopted—based upon the assumption that a seer is exactly 2 lb., and that the value of the rupee remains constant at 1s. 4d., 1 seer per rupee=(about) 3 lb. for 2s., 2 seers per rupee=(about) 6 lb. for 2s., and so on.

The name of the unit for square measurement in India generally is the *bigha*, which varies greatly in different parts of the country. But areas have been expressed in this work either in square miles or in acres.

Proposed Reforms.—Indian weights and measures have never been settled upon an organised basis suitable for commerce and trade characteristic of the modern age. They vary from town to town and village to village in a way that could only work satisfactorily so long as the dealings of towns and villages were self-contained and before roads and railways opened up trade between one and the other. It is pointed out that in England a hogshead of wine contains 63 gallons and a hogshead of beer only 54 gallons; that a bushel of corn weighs 46 lbs in Sunderland and 240 lbs. in Cornwall; that the English stone weight represents 14 lbs. in popular estimation, but only 5 lbs., if we are weighing glass, and eight for meat, but 6 lbs. for cheese. Similar instances are multiplied in India by at least as many times as India is bigger than England. If we take, for instance, the maund denomination of weight common all over India, we shall find that in a given city there are nearly as many maunds as there are articles to weigh. If we consider the maund as between district and district the state of affairs is worse. Thus in the United Provinces alone, the maund of sugar weighs 42½ seers 12

Cawnpore, 40 in Muttra, 72½ in Gorakhpur, 40 in Agra, 50 in Moradabad, 48½ in Saharanpur, 50 in Bareilly, 46 in Fyzabad, 48½ in Shah-jehanpur, 51 in Goshangunze. The maund varies throughout all India from the Bengal or railway maund of 82-2/7 lbs. to the Factory maund of 74 lbs. 10 oz. 11 drs., the Bombay maund of 28 lbs., which apparently answers to the Forest Department maund in use at the Fuel Depot, and the Madras maund, which some authorities estimate at 25 lbs. and others at 24 lbs. and so on.

Committees of Inquiry.—These are merely typical instances which are multiplied indefinitely. There are variations of every detail of weights and measures in every part of India. The losses to trade arising from the confusion and the trouble which this state of things causes are heavy. Municipal and commercial bodies are continually returning to the problem with a view to devising a practical scheme of reform. The Supreme and Provincial Governments have made various attempts during 40 years past to solve the problem of universal units of weights and measures and commerce and trade have agitated about the question for the past century. The Indian railways and Government departments adopted a standard tola (180 grains), seer (80 tolas) and maund (40 seers) and it was hoped that this would act as a successful "lead" which would gradually be followed by trade throughout the empire, but the expectation has not been realised.

The Government of India considered the whole question in consultation with the provincial Governments in 1890-1894 and various special steps have at different times been taken in different parts of India. The Government of Bombay appointed a committee in 1911 to make proposals for reform for the Bombay Presidency. Their final report has not been published, but they presented in 1912 an *ad interim* report which has been issued for public discussion. In brief, it points out the practical impossibility of proceeding by compulsory measures affecting the whole of India. The Committee stated that over the greater part of the Bombay Presidency a standard of weights and measures would be heartily welcome by the people. They thought that legislation compulsorily applied over large areas subject to many diverse conditions of trade and social life would not result in bringing about the desired reform so successfully as a "lead" supplied by local legislation based on practical experience. The want of coherence, *savoir faire*, or the means of co-operation among the people at large pointed to this conclusion. The Committee pointed out that a good example of the results that will follow a good lead is apparent in the East Khandesh District of the Presidency, where the District Officer, Mr Simcox, gradually, during the course of three years, induced the people to adopt throughout the district uniform weights and measures, the unit of weight in this case being a tola of 180 grains. But the committee abstained from recommending that the same weights and measures should be adopted over the whole Presidency, preferring that a new system started in any area should be as nearly as possible similar to the best system already prevailing there.

Committee of 1913.—The whole problem was again brought under special consideration by the Government of India in October, 1913, when the following committee was appointed to inquire into the entire subject anew.—

Mr. C. A. Silberrard (*President*).

Mr. A. Y. G. Campbell.

Mr. Rustomji Fardoonji.

This Committee reported, in August 1915, in favour of a uniform system of weights to be adopted in India based on the 180 grain tola. The report says:—Of all such systems there is no doubt that the most widespread and best known is that known as the Bengal or Indian Railway weights. The introduction of this system involves a more or less considerable change of system in parts of the United Provinces (Gorakhpur, Bareilly and neighbouring areas), practically the whole of Madras, parts of the Punjab (rural portions of Amritsar and neighbouring districts), of Bombay (South Bombay, Bombay city and Gujarat), and the North-West Frontier Province. Burma has at present a separate system of its own which the committee think it should be permitted to retain. The systems recommended are—

FOR INDIA.

8 kharabhas	= 1 chawal
8 chawals	= 1 rattl
8 rattls	= 1 masha
12 mashes or 4 tanks	= 1 tola
5 tolas	= 1 chatak
10 chataks	= 1 seer
40 seers	= 1 maund

FOR BURMA.

2 small ywes	= 1 large ywe
4 large ywes	= 1 pe
2 pes	= 1 mu
5 pes or 2½ mus	= 1 mat
1 mat	= 1 ngamu
2 ngamus	= 1 tikal [viss]
100 tikals	= 1 pelkha or

The tola is the tola of 180 grains, equal to the rupee weight. The viss has recently been fixed at 3 60 lbs or 140 tolas.

Government Action.—The Government of India at first approved the principles of the Report and left the Provincial Governments to take action, but they passed more detailed orders in January, 1922. In these they again, for the present and subject to the restrictions imposed by the Government of India Act and the devolution rules, left it entirely to local Governments to take such action as they think advisable to standardise dry and liquid measures of capacity within their provinces. Similarly, they announced their decision not to adopt all-India standards of length or area.

As regards weights they decided in favour of the standard mentioned under the heading "Weights", near the commencement of this article, this having been recommended by a majority of the Weights and Measures Committee and having received the unanimous support of the Local Governments. At the same time they provisionally undertook to assist provincial legislation or standardisation and stated that "if subsequently, opinion develops strongly in favour of the Imperial standardisation of weights, the Government of India will be prepared to undertake such legislation, but at present they consider that any such step would be premature,

The Peoples of India.

It is essential to bear in mind, when dealing with the people of India, that it is a continent rather than a country. Nowhere is the complex character of Indians more clearly exemplified than in the physical type of its inhabitants. No one would confuse the main types, such as Gurkhas, Pathans, Sikhs, Rajputs, Burmans, Nagas, Tamils, etc., nor does it take long to carry the differentiation much farther. The typical inhabitants of India—the Dravidians—differ altogether from those of Northern Asia, and more nearly resemble the tribes of Malaya, Sumatra and Madagascar. Whatever may be their origin, it is certain that they have settled in the country for countless ages and that their present physical characteristics have been evolved locally. They have been displaced in the North-West by successive hordes of invaders, including Aryans, Scythians, Pathans and Moghals, and in the North-East by Mongoloid tribes allied to those of Burma, which is India only in a modern political sense. Between these foreign elements and the pure Dravidians is a borderland where the contiguous races have intermingled.

The people of the Indian Empire are divided by Sir Henry Risley (*Caste, Tribe and Race, Indian Census Report, 1901*; the *Gazetteer of India, Ethnology and Caste, Volume I, Chapter 6*) into seven main physical types. There would be eight if the Andamanese were included, but this tiny group of Negritos may be disregarded.

The Turko-Iranian, represented by the Baloch, Brahui and Afghans of Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. Probably formed by a fusion of Turk and Persian elements, in which the former predominate. Stature above mean; complexion fair, eyes mostly dark but occasionally grey; hair on face plentiful; head broad, nose moderately narrow, prominent, and very long. The feature in these people that strikes one most prominently is the portentous length of their noses, and it is probably this peculiarity that has given rise to the tradition of the Jewish origin of the Afghans.

The Indo-Aryan occupying the Punjab, Rajputana, and Kashmir, and having as its characteristic members the Rajputs, Khattris, and Jats. This type, which is readily distinguishable from the Turko-Iranian, approaches most closely to that ascribed to the traditional Aryan colonists of India. The stature is mostly tall, complexion fair; eyes dark; hair on face plentiful, head long; nose narrow, and prominent but not specially long.

The Scytho-Dravidian, comprising the Maratha Brahmins, the Kunbis, and the Coorgs of Western India. Probably formed by a mixture of Scythian and Dravidian elements. This type is clearly distinguished from the Turko-Iranian by a lower stature, a greater length of head, a higher nasal index, a shorter nose, and a lower orbito-nasal index. All of these characters, except perhaps the last, may be due to a varying degree of intermixture with the Dravidians. In the higher groups the amount of crossing seems to have been slight; in the lower Dravidian elements are more pronounced.

The Aryo-Dravidian or Hindustani, found in the United Provinces, in parts of Rajputana and in Bihar and represented in its upper strata by the Hindustani Brahman and in its

lower by the Chamar. Probably the result of the intermixture, in varying proportions, of the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian types. The head-form is long with a tendency to medium, the complexion varies from lightish brown to black; the nose ranges from medium to broad, being always broader than among the Indo-Aryans, the stature is lower than in the latter group and usually below the average according to the scale. The higher representatives of this type approach the Indo-Aryans, while the lower members are in many respects not very far removed from the Dravidians. The type is essentially a mixed one, yet its characteristics are readily definable, and no one would take even an upper class Hindustani for a pure Indo-Aryan or a Chamar for a genuine Dravidian. The distinctive feature of the type, the character which gives the real clue to its origin and stamps the Aryo-Dravidian as racially different from the Indo-Aryan is to be found in the proportions of the nose.

The Mongolo-Dravidian, or Bengali type of Lower Bengal and Orissa, comprising the Bengal Brahmins and Kayasthas, the Mahomedans of Eastern Bengal, and other groups peculiar to this part of India. Probably a blend of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements, with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups. The head is broad, complexion dark; hair on face usually plentiful; stature medium, nose medium, with a tendency to broad. This is one of the most distinctive types in India, and its members may be recognised at a glance throughout the wide area where their remarkable aptitude for clerical pursuits has procured them employment. Within its own habitat the type extends to the Himalayas on the north and to Assam on the east, and probably includes the bulk of the population of Orissa; the western limit coincides approximately with the hilly country of Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal.

The Mongoloid type of the Himalayas, Nepal, Assam, and Burma, represented by the Kanets of Lahul and Kulu; the Lepchas of Darjeeling and Sikkim, the Limbus, Mirmas and Gurungs of Nepal; the Bodo of Assam; and the Burmese. The head is broad; complexion dark, with a yellow tinge; hair on face scanty; stature short or below average; nose fine to broad, face characteristically flat, eyelids often oblique.

The Dravidian type extending from Ceylon to the valley of the Ganges, and pervading Madras, Hyderabad, the Central Provinces, most of Central India and Chota Nagpur. Its most characteristic representatives are the Panyans of Malabar and the Santals of Chota Nagpur. Probably the original type of the population of India, now modified to a varying extent by the admixture of Aryan, Scythian, and Mongoloid elements. In typical specimens the stature is short or below mean, the complexion very dark, approaching black, hair plentiful with an occasional tendency to curl, eyes dark, head long, nose very broad, sometimes depressed at the root, but not so as to make the face appear flat. This race, the most primitive of the Indian types, occupies the oldest geological formation in India, the medley of forest clad ranges, terraced plateau, and undulating plains which stretch roughly speaking, from the Vindhya to Cape

Comorin. On the east and the west of the peninsular area the domain of the Dravidian is confounded with the Ghats, while further north it reaches on one side to the Aravallis, and on the other to the Rajmahal Hills. Where the original character has been unbroken by contact with Indo-Aryan or Mongoloid people, the type is remarkably uniform and distinctive. Labour is the birthright of the pure Dravidian whether hoeing tea in Assam, the paddy of Ceylon, cutting rice in the swamps of Eastern Bengal or doing scavenger's work in the streets of Calcutta, Rangoon and Singapore, he is recognizable at a glance by his black skin, his squat figure, and the negro-like proportion of his nose. In the upper strata of the vast social

deposit which is here treated as Dravidian there typical characteristics tend to thin and disappear, but even among the mixture of the original stock survive in varying degree.

The areas occupied by these various types do not admit of being drawn as sharply as they might be shown on an ethnographic map. They melt into each other gradually, and although at the close of a day's journey from one ethnic tract to another, an observer who is accustomed to have been directed to the right or left would be clearly enough that the physical characteristics of the people had undergone an appreciable change, he would certainly be unable to say at what particular stage in his progress the transformation had taken place.

TOWN AND COUNTRY.

The progress of urbanisation in India—if there has been any progress at all—has been very slow during the past thirty years, the whole increase being a little more than one per cent. The percentage of the urban population to the total is only 11, which however shows an increase of 0.8 per cent since the 1871 census, due partly to the natural increase of the pre-existing urban population and partly to migration from rural areas. The percentage of urban population ranges from 1.4 in Assam to 22.6 in Bombay which is the most urbanised of the major provinces. Compared to this the urban population in France is 40 per cent, in Northern

Ireland 50 per cent, in Canada 57 per cent, in the U. S. A. 58 per cent and in Great Britain and Wales 59 per cent.

The greatest degree of growth has been in the number of towns with a population of from 20,000 to 50,000 the total population of which is now nearly double that of towns of 50,000 to 100,000. All classes of towns have increased in population, except the small populations of between 5,000 and 10,000 and the village under 5,000. Thus the first half of the last century industrial towns have been fitted at the expense of the small towns.

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN GROUPS OF TOWNS ACCORDING TO SIZE AND IN RURAL TERRITORIES

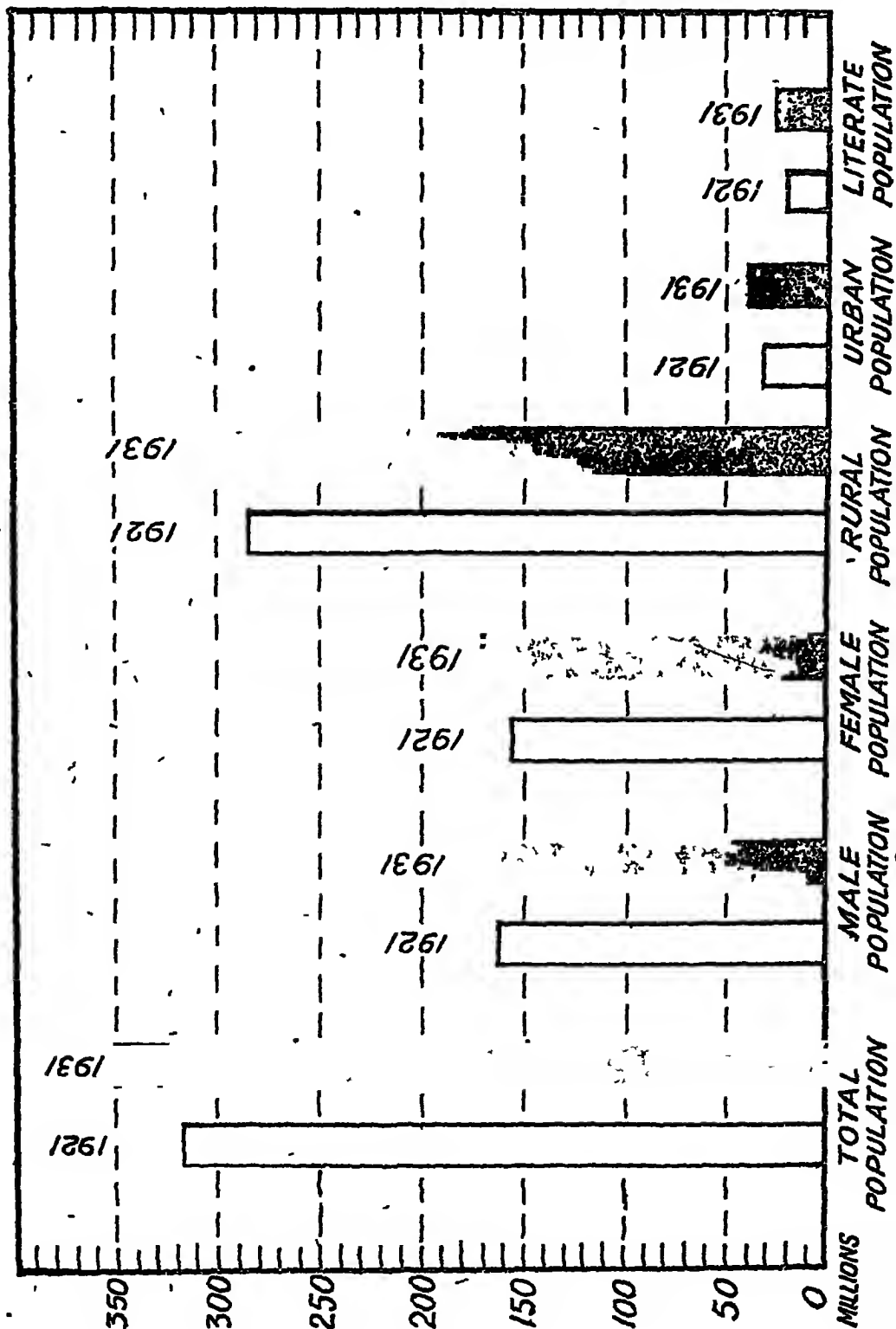
Class of Places	1901		1921		Percentage of total Population				
	Places	Population	Places	Population	31	21	11	01	01
Total Population	699,100	752,937,778	687,981	818,012,150	100	100	100	100	100
Rural Areas	696,811	817,812,971	685,605	816,167,201	99.84	99.84	99.84	99.84	99.84
Urban Areas	2,279	75,085,127	2,376	12,177,270	1.16	1.16	1.16	1.16	1.16
Towns having 100,000 and over	48	9,071,032	35	8,211,701	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Towns having 50,000 to 100,000	65	1,572,113	51	3,517,710	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Towns having 20,000 to 50,000	268	8,001,298	200	5,968,701	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Towns having 10,000 to 20,000	543	7,119,102	651	6,220,880	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Towns having 5,000 to 10,000	987	6,902,832	887	6,221,011	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Towns having under 5,000	674	2,205,760	601	2,333,120	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3

Migration—Of the population of the Indian Empire only 730,546 were enumerated as born in other parts of the world. Of these 595,078 are of Asiatic birth, 118,089 of European birth and 17,379 others. The emigration from India is approximately 2.5 million, the balance of migration being against India.

Nearly all of these migrants are resident in other parts of the British Empire. There are about 165,500 Indians in the Union of South Africa, of whom 142,979 are found in Natal. There are 26,759 in Kenya, the other overseas Indian communities in order of size are Mauri-

tius 268,870, Trinidad and Tobago 153,667, British Guiana 130,760, Fiji 75,117 and much smaller numbers in Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Zanzibar, Uganda and Hong Kong. There are about 11,000 Indians scattered in numbers of under 2,000 in various other parts of the British Empire and probably about 4,000 in the British Isles. The total number of Indians in the Empire outside India is 2,300,000. Outside the Empire there are about 100,000 Indians, 25,000 in the Dutch East Indies, 35,000 in Dutch Guiana, 7,500 in Madagascar and smaller numbers in Portuguese East Africa, the U. S. A., Persia, Iraq and other countries.

The Chart below gives at a glance the changes in India's population in the decade 1921-31—the total, sex, urban rural and literacy



CENSUS OF INDIA 1931—Population of Provinces and States.

Province, State or Agency.	POPULATION, 1931						PERCENTAGE OF VARIATION, INCREASE (+), DECREASE (—)			
	Area in Square Miles	Persons	Males.	Females	POPULATION, 1931.					
					Both Sexes					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
INDIA										
PROVINCES										
Almer-Medina	1,808,670 1,096,171 2,711	352,837,778 271,526,033 500,292	181,828,923 130,981,556 206,081	171,908,855 131,545,377 204,211	318,942,480 246,856,191 459,271	+ 10 0 + 10 0 + 13 1	+ 1 2 + 1 3 — 1 2	+	+	+
Andaman and Nicobar Islands										
Assam	3,143 55,014	29,483 8,022,251	19,702 4,537,206	9,761 4,085,045	27,086 7,459,128	+ 8 8 + 15 6	+ 2 4 + 13 4	+	+	+
Baluchistan	54,228	463,508	270,001	193,504	420,018	+ 10 2	+ 1 5	+	+	+
Bengal	77,521	50,114,002	20,011,698	24,072,304	46,702,307	+ 7 3	+ 2 7	+	+	+
Bihar and Orissa	83,054	37,677,576	18,794,138	18,883,438	33,995,418	+ 10 3	— 1 4	+	+	+
Bombay Presidency including Aden	123,079	21,939,091	11,535,993	10,394,098	10,318,210	+ 13 3	— 1 8	+	+	+
Burma	233,492	14,067,146	7,190,001	7,170,545	13,212,192	+ 11 0	+ 9 1	+	+	+
Central Provinces and Behar										
Coorg	99,929	15,507,723	7,761,818	7,745,905	13,012,700	+ 11 5	+ 0 0	+	+	+
Delli	1,593	168,327	99,575	72,752	163,838	— 0 3	— 6 1	+	—	+
	573	636,246	369,407	266,749	488,452	+ 30 3	+ 18 0	+	+	+
Madras										
North-West Frontier Provinces (Districts and Administered Territories).	142,277 13,518	46,740,107 2,425,076	23,082,999 1,315,818	23,657,108 1,109,258	42,318,985 2,251,340	+ 10 1 + 7 7	+ 2 2 + 2 5	+	+	+
Punjab										
United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.	99,200 106,218	23,589,852 48,408,763	12,889,510 23,415,006	10,700,342 22,963,757	20,085,478 45,375,069	+ 14 0 + 0 7	+ 5 7 — 3 1	+	+	+

Census of India 1931—Continued.

Name of Area	Area in Sq. Mils.		Population, 1921		Population, 1931	Percentage of Variation, 1921-31, Inwards (+) or Outwards (-)			
	2	3	4	5		6	7	8	9
State of Andhra Pradesh	512,708	81,310,415	41,907,307	41,113,178	72,086,280	12.8	12.8	1.0	16.6
Andhra Pradesh	12,120	225,006	300,027	118,679	531,118	17.8	17.8	10.2	66.8
Andhra Pradesh	50,110	105,109	218,110	140,090	178,977	6.9	6.9	0.5	5.5
Andhra Pradesh	8,101	2,111,007	1,257,817	1,145,190	2,126,522	11.9	11.9	1.6	12.0
Andhra Pradesh	5,111	716,162	516,162	177,171	800,926	8.7	8.7	0.0	49.1
Andhra Pradesh	28,018	1,652,007	2,288,122	2,463,565	3,930,069	17.5	17.5	0.1	93.0
Andhra Pradesh	27,001	1,108,903	2,298,623	2,170,773	3,967,810	15.5	15.5	0.1	28.2
Andhra Pradesh	51,507	6,012,790	9,105,138	1,257,952	6,002,157	10.5	10.5	2.1	22.0
Andhra Pradesh	1,175	2,183,211	1,215,385	1,217,829	2,060,000	20.1	20.1	2.1	70.0
Andhra Pradesh	20,107	3,231,070	1,867,031	1,646,039	3,193,176	10.7	10.7	1.3	11.0
Andhra Pradesh	82,098	11,116,118	7,370,010	7,066,138	12,171,770	15.8	15.8	0.6	46.6
Andhra Pradesh	81,710	3,010,211	1,938,338	1,707,005	3,120,518	9.8	9.8	5.1	13.3
Andhra Pradesh	10,018	6,751,181	3,373,032	3,381,152	5,160,312	23.7	23.7	13.5	101.0
Andhra Pradesh	1,180	1,205,010	589,813	015,203	979,080	21.1	21.1	6.6	100.7
Andhra Pradesh	7,025	5,093,073	2,565,073	2,730,900	4,006,061	27.2	27.2	16.8	112.2
Andhra Pradesh	1,593	453,495	218,110	231,319	475,170	4.6	4.6	2.2	32.1
Andhra Pradesh	29,120	6,577,302	3,353,903	3,203,339	5,078,802	9.7	9.7	3.0	56.6
Andhra Pradesh	12,418	2,259,288	1,212,317	1,010,941	2,823,136	20.0	20.0	7.2	2,580.8
Andhra Pradesh	5,820	137,787	250,290	208,497	408,010	7.3	7.3	1.0	21.5
Andhra Pradesh	31,211	4,272,218	2,451,394	2,020,824	1,008,017	11.0	11.0	5.5	27.7
Andhra Pradesh	120,030	11,753,712	6,885,028	7,310,684	9,831,755	14.2	14.2	6.5	11.1
Andhra Pradesh	2,818	109,808	53,825	53,983	81,721	34.4	34.4	7.1	200.5
Andhra Pradesh	3,913	1,204,070	618,171	587,899	1,134,881	6.3	6.3	1.6	9.7
Andhra Pradesh	35,412	3,999,250	2,025,754	1,973,496	3,781,610	12.9	12.9	0.5	16.5

* Variation calculated from 1901-1931

† Variation calculated from 1891-1931

POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

It is claimed that the city of Calcutta contains 35,000 more inhabitants than Bombay which is the next largest city in India. There are nearly twice as many inhabitants in Calcutta proper as there are in Madras and almost three times as many as there are in Rangoon. Alone of the large cities of India, Bombay records a decrease in population since the 1921 census.

Lahore which has expanded to more than half as large again as it was in 1921 has increased its population by actually a larger number during the decade than Calcutta. The same is true of Delhi and Madras which increased by 47 per cent and 22 per cent over their population of 1921. On the other hand, although the increase of 119,470 in the population of Calcutta during the last decade is greater than has been recorded in any of the other cities the percentage increase amounts to only 11 as compared with 21.5 in Karachi, 15.9 in Rangoon, 14.5 in Ahmedabad and 14.2 in Lucknow. Taking the suburban areas into account the population of Calcutta is 1,486,582 of which 1,196,734 are to be found in the city proper included in the municipal area.

City	Total Population	Density.	Females per 1,000 males	Laborates per 1,000	PERCENTAGE VARIATION					
					Males	Females	1901 to 1911	1911 to 1921	1921 to 1931	1881 to 1931
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Calcutta with Howrah Bombay Madras	1,486,582 1,101,383 617,230	24,354 48,000 22,249	189 554 807	430 201 433	260 153 170	+ 11 0 + 20 2 + 1 8	+ 4 3 20 0 + 1 6	+ 11 9 — 1 2 + 22 8	+ 79 2 + 50 2 + 50 1	
Hyderabad with Secunderabad, etc	466,804	8,800	880	449	118	+ 12 0	— 19 0	+ 16 0	+ 27 0	
Delhi with New Delhi, Shah- dada, etc	447,442	6,835	670	246†	80†	+ 11 0	+ 30 7	47 0	+ 158 1	
Lahore	430,747	10,913	505	207	124	+ 12 7	+ 23 2	+ 52 5	+ 187 7	
Rangoon	190,415	16,146	477	512	370	+ 24 9	+ 16 6	+ 17 1	+ 198 4	
Ahmedabad	313,789	853	853	* 405	* 168	+ 16 6 + 19 1	+ 26 4 + 25 3	+ 14 5 + 20 0	+ 145 9 + 96 6	
Bombay with Civil and Mili- tary Station	306,470	11,790	902							
Lucknow	274,050	13,272	745	253	48	— 1 6	4 6	+ 14 2	+ 8 2	
Amritsar	204,840	24,844	666	205	60	— 6 0	4 9	+ 05 3	+ 74 4	
Kanachi	263,606	6,730	688	286	114	+ 30 2	+ 22 8	+ 21 5	+ 258 3	
Poona	250,187	6,400	811	408	149	+ 5 3	+ 23 9	+ 10 5	+ 82 6	
Chawnpic	243,756	24,756	690	233	62	— 12 0	+ 21 2	+ 12 6	+ 56 9	
Agia ..	229,704	12,449	813	214	52	— 1 4	0 0	+ 23 8	+ 4	

* Not available

† For Delhi and New Delhi Cities only

AGE AND SEX.

The table below shows the age distribution of 10,000 males and females of the Indian population by 10-yearly age groups at the last two censuses —

Age-group	1031		1921.		Age-group.	1931		1921	
	Males	Fe- males	Males	Fe- males		Males	Fe- males	Males	Fe- males
0—10	2,802	2,889	2,673	2,810	40—50	968	891	1,013	967
10—20	2,086	2,062	2,087	1,896	50—60	561	545	619	606
20—30	1,768	1,856	1,640	1,766	60—70	269	281	347	377
30—40	1,431	1,351	1,461	1,398	70 and over	115	125	160	180
					Mean age	23 2	22 8	24 8	24 7

The mean age in India is only 23 02, as against 30 6 in England and Wales. The rate of infant mortality in India in the decade 1921-31 shows an appreciable reduction on the rate of the previous decade, even if allowance be made for the heavy mortality of the influenza years. It is in the towns that the highest infantile mortality is found. The table below shows the rates from 1925 to 1930 for presidency towns and certain provincial capitals.

INFANTILE MORTALITY RATES PER 1,000 LIVE-BIRTHS DURING

City	1925.	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930
Bombay	357	255	316	314	301	298
Calcutta	320	372	340	276	259	268
Madras	270	282	240	289	250	246
Rangoon	352	320	294	341	321	278
Lucknow	260	287	256	301	260	329
Lahore	222	241	201	204	214	187
Nagpur	258	302	254	299	291	270
Delhi	183	238	201	210	259	190

Special causes contribute to the high mortality of infants in India.

Owing to the custom of early marriage, co-habitation and child-birth commonly take place before the woman is physically mature and thus, combined with the primitive and insanitary methods of midwifery, seriously affects the health and vitality of the mother and through her of the child. If the child survives the pre-natal and natal chances of congenital debility and the risks of child-birth, it is exposed to the dangers of death in the early months of life from diarrhoea or dysentery. According to the Executive Health Officer of Bombay city, by far the greater number of infantile deaths are due to infantile debility and malformation, including premature birth, respiratory diseases coming next, then convulsions, then diarrhoea and enteritis.

Sex Ratio—The figures of the population of India by sexes, as recorded by the latest census, show a further continuation of the steady fall in the proportion of females to males that

has been going on since the beginning of this century. This shortage of females is characteristic of the population of India as compared to that of most European countries. The female infant is definitely better equipped by nature for survival than the male, but in India the advantage she has at birth is probably neutralised in infancy by comparative neglect and in adolescence by the strain of bearing children too early and too often. A good deal of recent work on sex ratios has tended to the view that an increase in masculinity is an indication of declining population, but this is not the case in India as a whole. The all-India ratio is 901 females per 1,000 males for Muslims and 951 females per 1,000 males for Hindus. The only provinces in which there is actually an excess of women over men are Madras and Bihar and Orissa, though the Central Provinces can be added if Berar be excluded. Where females are in excess, the excess is still most marked in the lower castes and does not always extend to the higher. Among the aboriginal tribes, however, the numbers of the two sexes are approximately equal.

difficulty, still felt very strongly in most provinces of getting good women teachers, one of the most serious obstacles to the spread of female education is the early age of marriage which causes girls to be taken from school before they have reached even the standard of the primary school leaving certificate

Treated in communal or religious groups, the greatest progress has been made by Sikhs, Jains, Muslims and Hindus, in that order, but the leading literate communities are the Parsis, Jews, Burmans, Jains and Christians. The following table analyses the position of the Indian communities in respect of literacy —

Religion	Number per 1,000 who are literate	Religion	Number per 10,000 and over who are literate in English
All religions (India)	95	All religions (India)	123
Hindus	84	Hindus	113
Sikhs	91	Sikhs	151
Jains	353	Jains	306
Buddhists	90	Buddhists	119
Zoroastrians (Parsis)	791	Zoroastrians (Parsis)	5,041
Muslims	64	Muslims	92
Christians	279	Christians	919
Jews	416	Jews	2,638
Tribal	7	Tribal	4
Others	19	Others	28

Territorially, Cochin State leads in literacy in English with 307 per 10,000, Coorg follows with 238, Bengal (211) and Travancore (153) coming next

English Language—Literacy in English language is still less in India and is confined mostly to the town-dwelling population. Two 225 languages were returned at the census, dialects as has been previously explained, not having been separately considered

The principal languages are given in the following statement —

Language	Total number of speakers (000's omitted.)				Number per 10,000, of total population	
	1931		1921		Males	Females
	Males	Females	Males	Females		
Western Hindi	37,743	33,804	50,210	46,504	2,090	1,990
Bengali	27,517	25,952	25,239	24,055	1,523	1,527
Telugu	13,291	13,083	11,874	11,727	736	770
Marathi	10,573	10,317	9,296	9,095	585	607
Tamil	10,073	10,330	9,264	9,496	558	608
Punjabi	8,799	7,040	8,961	7,272	487	414
Rajasthani	7,271	6,627	6,656	6,025	403	390
Kanarese	5,690	5,516	5,253	5,121	315	325
Orissa	5,485	5,709	4,952	5,193	304	336
Gujerati	5,610	5,240	4,967	4,585	311	308
Burmese	4,332	4,522	4,185	4,288	240	266
Malayalam	4,533	4,605	3,736	3,762	257	271
Lahnda (or Western Punjabi)	4,603	3,963	3,050	2,602	255	23

The necessity of a common medium of conversation and intercourse, which has given rise to bi-lingualism and the consequent displacement of tribal languages, has formed the subject of a considerable amount of discussion and suggestion during the last decade and a good deal has been written on the possibility of a *lingua franca* for India. The combined speakers of Eastern and Western Hindi considerably exceed in number the strength of any other individual language in India, and if we add to these two languages Bihari and Rajasthani, which so resemble Hindi as to be frequently returned under that name in the census schedules, we get well over 100 millions of speakers of the tongues which have some considerable affinities and cover a very large area of northern and

central India. In their pure forms these four languages may be scientifically distinct; but this is not the popular view. There is a common element in the main languages of northern and central India which renders their speakers, without any great conscious change in their speech, mutually intelligible to one another, and this common basis already forms an approach to a *lingua franca* over a large part of India.

Infirmities—These are classes under four main heads—insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness and leprosy. The appended statement shows the number of persons suffering from each infirmity at each of the last six censuses and the proportion per hundred thousand of the population:—

Infirmity.	NUMBER AFFLICTED WITH RATIO PER HUNDRED THOUSAND OF THE POPULATION.					
	—	1921.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.
Insane	120,304 94	88,305 28	81,008 20	66,205 23	74,270 27	81,132 35
Deaf-mutes	230,895 66	180,644 60	199,891 64	153,168 52	196,861 75	197,215 86
Blind	601,370 172	479,037 152	443,853 142	354,104 121	458,868 167	526,748 220
Lepers	147,911 42	102,513 32	109,094 35	97,340 33	120,244 46	181,908 57
TOTAL		880,099 272	833,644 267	670,817 229	856,252 315	937,063 407

There had been a continuous decline in the total number as well as in the proportion of persons recorded as afflicted up to 1901. This fall has been ascribed partly to a progressive improvement in the accuracy of the diagnosis and partly to an actual decrease in the prevalence of the infirmities, owing to the improvement in the material condition of the people to better sanitation and (especially in the case of blindness) to the increasing number of cures effected with the aid of modern medical and surgical science. In the decade ending 1901 the relatively high mortality of the afflicted in the two severe famines must have been a considerable factor in the decline shown at that census, but the method of compilation adopted in 1901 and in the previous census was defective, and, certainly in 1901, many of the persons afflicted must have escaped notice in the course of tabulation. Compared with the year 1891, there was a slight decrease in the total number of persons recorded as afflicted in 1911, the proportion per hundred thousand persons falling from 315 to 267. The increase in ratio as well as in numbers since then is attributed to increased accuracy of enumeration.

Occupation—It is a well known fact that the majority of the people in India live on agriculture. The last census put down the number of those engaged in the exploitation of animals and vegetation at 102,309,000, while those engaged in industry number 15,400,000. Thus about 67 per cent of the country's workers are employed in the former and 10 per cent in the latter. This does not, however, mean that all the 102 millions are land-owners. Rights in land in India are complicated and involved to a degree, incredible to persons familiar only with the simpler tenure of western Europe.

Between the man who cultivates land and the man who nominally owns it there are often a number of intermediate holders of some interest or other in the produce of the land. If a comparison is made between the area of land under crops and the number of agriculturists actually engaged in cultivation in British India, it is that for each agriculturist there are 2.9 acres of cropped land of which 0.65 of an acre is irrigated. The cultivation of special crops occupies under two per cent of the populations concerned in pasturage and agriculture, the greater part of whom are engaged in the production of tea. Forestry employs fewer than special cultivation.

In recent years there has been an increase in the number of people living on the production and transmission of physical force, that is, heat, light, electricity, motive power, etc. Silk spinning and weaving, manufacture of chemical products, and the manufacture of tobacco have proved more popular than before. Transport by road has attracted more men, while the use of water for internal transport has decreased, harbours being used more freely for external transport by sea. About five million persons are engaged in organised industry.

It is not worthy that less than one million people, who man, the army, the Navy, the air force, the police, the services, etc., manage the administration of this vast country, in other words, 350 odd millions are ruled by one million servants of the state.

There has of late been increasing unemployment, especially among the educated classes. An attempt to include these in the last census has not met with success, but it is significant that graduates of Madras University join the police department on Rs. 10 per mensem and are held fortunate in getting even that.

The History of India in Outline.

No history of India can be proportionate and the briefest summary must suffer from the same defect. Even a wholesale acceptance as history of mythology, tradition, and folklore will not make good, though it makes picturesque, the many gaps that exist in the early history of India and, though the labours of modern geographers and archaeologists have been amazingly fruitful, it cannot be expected that these gaps will ever be filled to any appreciable extent. Approximate accuracy in chronology and an outline of dynastic facts are all that the student can look for up to the time of Alexander, though the briefest excursion into the by-ways of history will reveal to him many alluring and mysterious fields for speculation. There are, for example, to this day castes that believe they sprang originally from the loins of a being who landed "from an impossible boat on the shores of a highly improbable sea"; and the great epic poems contain plentiful statements equally difficult of reconciliation with modern notions of history as a science. But from the Jataka stories and the Puranas, much valuable information is to be obtained, and, for the benefit of those unable to go to these and other original sources, it has been distilled by a number of writers.

The orthodox Hindu begins the political history of India more than 3,000 years before Christ, with the war waged on the banks of the Jumna between the sons of Kuru and the sons of Pandu. Recent excavations by the Archaeological Department in the Indus Valley at Harappa in the Punjab, but more particularly at Mohenjo Daro in Sind, carry us back even further. They have uncovered sites of cities bearing the marks and containing the relics of a high civilisation stated by the Department to be Sumerian. The excavations are proceeding under special direction and have excited the greatest interest in scientific circles throughout the world, but the general critic omits several of those remote centuries and takes 600 B.C. or thereabouts as his starting point. At that time much of the country was covered with forest, but the Aryan races, who had entered India from the north, had established in parts a form of civilization far superior to that of the aboriginal savages and to this day there survive cities, like Banares, founded by those invaders. In like manner the Dravidian invaders from an unknown land, who overran the Deccan and the Southern part of the Peninsula, crushed the aborigines, and at a much later period, were themselves subdued by the Aryans. Of these two civilizing forces, the Aryan is the better known, and of the Aryan kingdoms the first of which there is authentic record is that of Magadha, or Bihar, on the Ganges. It was in, or near, this powerful kingdom that Jainism and Buddhism had their origin, and the fifth King of Magadha, Bimbisara by name, was the friend and patron of Gautama Buddha. The King mentioned was a contemporary of Darius, autocrat of Persia (521 to 485 B.C.) who annexed the Indus valley and formed from his conquest an Indian satrapy which paid as tribute the equivalent of about one million sterling. Detailed history, however, does not become possible until the invasion of Alexander in 326 B.C.

Alexander the Great

That great soldier had crossed the Hindu Kush in the previous year and had captured Aornoe, on the Upper Indus. In the spring of 326 he crossed the river at Ohind, received the submission of the King of Taxila, and marched against Porus who ruled the fertile country between the rivers Hydaspes (Jhelum) and Acesines (Chenab). The Macedonian carried all before him, defeating Porus at the battle of the Hydaspes, and crossing the Chenab and Ravi. But at the River Hyphasis (Bias) his weary troops mutinied, and Alexander was forced to turn back and retire to the Jhelum where a fleet to sail down the river to the sea was nearly ready. The wonderful story of Alexander's march through Mekran and Persia to Babylon, and of the voyage of Nearchus up the Persian Gulf is the climax to the narrative of the invasion but is not part of the history of India. Alexander had stayed nineteen months in India and left behind him officers to carry on the Government of the kingdoms he had conquered, but his death at Babylon, in 323, destroyed the fruits of what has to be regarded as nothing but a brilliant raid, and within two years his successors were obliged to leave the Indian provinces, heavily scarred by war but not hellenized.

The leader of the revolt against Alexander's generals was a young Hindu, Chandragupta, who was an illegitimate member of the Royal Family of Magadha. He deposed the ruler of that kingdom, and became so powerful that he is said to have been able to place 600,000 troops in the field against Seleucus, to whom Babylon had passed on the death of Alexander. This was too formidable an opposition to be faced, and a treaty of peace was concluded between the Syrian and Indian monarchs which left the latter the first paramount Sovereign of India (321 B.C.) with his capital at Pataliputra, the modern Patna and Benares. Of Chandragupta's court and administration a very full account is preserved in the fragments that remain of the history compiled by Megasthenes, the ambassador sent to India by Seleucus. His memorable reign ended in 297 B.C. when he was succeeded by his son Bindusara, who in his turn was succeeded by Asoka (269—231 B.C.) who recorded the events of his reign in numerous inscriptions. This king, in an unusually bloody war, added to his dominions the kingdom of Kalinga (the Northern Circars) and then becoming a convert to Buddhism, resolved for the future to abstain from conquest by force of arms. The consequences of the conversion of Asoka were amazing. He was not intolerant of other religions, and did not endeavour to force his creed on his "children". But he initiated measures for the propagation of his doctrine with the result that "Buddhism" which had hitherto been a merely local sect in the valley of the Ganges, was transformed into one of the greatest religions of the world—the greatest, probably, it measured by the number of adherents. This is Asoka's claim to be remembered, this it is which makes his reign an epoch, not only in the history of India, but

in that of the world." The wording of his edicts reveal him as a great king as well as a great missionary, and it is to be hoped that the excavations now being carried on in the ruins of his palace may throw yet more light on his character and times. On his death the Maurya kingdom fell to pieces. Even during his reign there had been signs of new forces at work on the borderland of India; while the independent kingdoms of Bactria and Parthia had been formed, and subsequent to it there were frequent Greek raids into India. The Greeks in Bactria, however, could not withstand the overwhelming force of the westward migration of the Yueh-chi horde, which, in the first century A.D., also ousted the Indo-Parthian kings from Afghanistan and North-Western India.

The first of these Yueh-chi kings to annex a part of India was Kadphises II (A.D. 85—125), who had been defeated in a war with China, but crossed the Indus and consolidated his power eastward as far as Benares. His son Kanishka (whose date is much disputed) left a name which to Buddhists stands second only to that of Asoka. He greatly extended the boundaries of his empire in the North, and made Pushyavar his capital. Under him the power of the Kushan clan of the Yueh-chi reached its zenith and did not begin to decay until the end of the second century, concurrently with the rise in middle India of the Andhra dynasty which constructed the Amaravati stupa, "one of the most elaborate and precious monuments of piety ever raised by man."

The Gupta Dynasty.

Early in the fourth century there arose, at Patliputra, the Gupta dynasty which proved of great importance. Its founder was a local chief, his son Samudragupta, who ruled for some fifty years from A.D. 320, was a king of the greatest distinction. His aim of subduing all India was not indeed fulfilled but he was able to exact tribute from the kingdoms of the South and even from Ceylon, and, in addition to being a warrior, he was a patron of the arts and of Sanskrit literature. The rule of his son, Chandragupta, was equally distinguished and is commemorated in an inscription on the famous iron pillar near Delhi, as well as in the writings of the Chinese pilgrim Fa-hien who pays a great tribute to the equitable administration of the country. It was not until the middle of the fifth century that the fortunes of the Gupta dynasty began to wane: the force of the onsets of the White Huns from Central Asia—and by 450 the dynasty had disappeared. The following century all over India was a scene of great confusion, apparently created only by the rise and fall of petty kingdoms, until a monarch arose, in A.D. 606, capable of consolidating an Empire. This was the Emperor Harsha who rose from Thanesar near Delhi, to control Northern India and extend his power south to the Nerbudda. He was a great warrior, and the Emperor was famous for his generosity in paying adoration to both the Shiva and Buddha at a great public ceremony. Of his times a graphic picture is given in the work of the Chinese pilgrim Fa-hien, "Hsuan Tsang's Travels in India," and the last native para-

death in 648 his throne was usurped by a Minister, whose treacherous conduct towards an embassy from China was quickly avenged, and the kingdom so laboriously established lapsed into a state of internecine strife which lasted for a century and a half.

The Andhras and Rajputs.

In the meantime in Southern India the Andhras had attained to great prosperity and carried on a considerable trade with Greece, Egypt and Rome, as well as with the East. Their domination ended in the fifth century A.D. and a number of new dynasties, of which the Pallavas were the most important, began to appear. The Pallavas made way in turn for the Chalukyas, who for two centuries remained the most important Deccan dynasty, one branch uniting with the Cholas. But the fortunes of the Southern dynasties are so involved, and in many cases so little known; that to recount them briefly is impossible. Few names of note stand out from the record except those of Vikramaditya (11th century) and a few of the later Hindu rulers who made a stand against the growing power of Islam; of the rise of which an account is given below. In fact the history of mediæval India is singularly devoid of unity. Northern India was in a state of chaos from about 650 to 950 A.D. not unlike that which prevailed in Europe of that time, and materials for the history of these centuries are very scanty. In the absence of any powerful rulers the jungle began to gain back what had been wrested from it: ancient capitals fell into ruins from which in some cases they have not even yet been disturbed, and the aborigines and various foreign tribes began to assert themselves so successfully that the Aryan element was chiefly confined to the Doab and the Eastern Punjab. It is not therefore so much for the political as for the religious and social history of this anarchical period that one must look. And the greatest event—if a slow process may be called an event—of the middle ages was the transition from tribe to caste, the final disappearance of the old four-fold division of Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas, and Sudras, and the formation of the new division of pure and impure largely resting upon a classification of occupations. But this social change was only a part of the development of the Hindu religion into a form which would include in its embrace the many barbarians and foreigners in the country who were outside it. The greatest political event of the period was the rise of the Rajputs as warriors in the place of the Kshatriyas. Their origin is obscure but they appeared in the 8th century and spread, from their two original homes in Rajputana and Oudh, into the Punjab, Kashmir, and the Central Himalayas, assimilating a number of fighting clans and binding them together with a common code. At this time Kashmir was a small kingdom which exercised an influence on India wholly disproportionate to its size. The only other kingdom of importance was that of Kanauj—in the Doab and Southern Oudh—which still retained some of the power to which it had reached in the days of Harsha, and of which the renown extended to China and Arabia.

With the end of the period of anarchy, the political history of India centres round the Rajputs. One clan founded the kingdom of Gujarat, another held Malwa, another (the Chauhans) founded a kingdom of which Ajmer was the capital, and so on. Kanauj fell into the hands of the Rathors (circa 1040 A.D.) and the dynasty then founded by that branch of the Gaharwars of Benares became one of the most famous in India. Later in the same century the Chauhans were united, and by 1193 one of them could boast that he had conquered all the country from the Vindhya to the Himalayas, including Delhi already a fortress a hundred years old. The son of this conqueror was Prithwi Raj, the champion of the Hindus against the Mahomedans. With his death in battle (1192) ends the golden age of the new civilisation that had been evolved out of chaos; and of the greatness of that age there is a splendid memorial in the temples and forts of the Rajput states and in the two great philosophical systems of Sanjaya (ninth century) and Ramanuja (twelfth century). The triumph of Hinduism had been achieved, it must be added, at the expense of Buddhism, which survived only in Magadha at the time of the Mahomedan conquest and speedily disappeared there before the new faith.

Mahomedan India.

The wave of Mahomedan invaders that eventually swept over the country first touched India, in Sind less than a hundred years after the death of the Prophet in 632. But the first real contact was in the tenth century when a Turkish slave of a Persian ruler founded a kingdom at Ghazni, between Kabul and Kandahar. A descendant of his, Mahmud (967-1030) made repeated raids into the heart of India, capturing places so far apart as Multan, Kanauj, Gwalior, and Somnath in Kathiawar, but permanently occupying only a part of the Punjab. Enduring Mahomedan rule was not established until the end of the twelfth century, by which time, from the little territory of Ghor, there had arisen one Mahomed Ghorî capable of carving out a kingdom stretching from Peshawar to the Bay of Bengal. Prithwi Raj, the Chauhan ruler of Delhi and Ajmer, made a brave stand against, and once defeated, one of the armies of this ruler, but was himself defeated in the following year. Mahomed Ghorî was murdered at Lahore (1206) and his vast kingdom, which had been governed by satraps, was split up into what were practically independent sovereignties. Of these satraps, Qutb-ud-din, the slave ruler of Delhi and Lahore, was the most famous, and is remembered by the great mosque he built near the modern Delhi. Between his rule and that of the Mughals, which began in 1526, only a few of the many Kings who governed and fought and built beautiful buildings, stand out with distinction. One of these was Ala-ud-din (1296-1316), whose many expeditions to the south much weakened the Hindu Kings, and who proved himself to be a capable administrator. Another was Firoz Shah, of the house of Tughlaq, whose administration was in many respects admirable, but which ended, on his abdication, in confusion.

In the reign of his successor, Mahmud (1398-1418), the kingdom of Delhi went to pieces and India was for seven months at the mercy of the Turkish conqueror Taimur. It was the end of the fifteenth century before the kingdom, under Sikandar Lodi, began to recover. His son, Ibrahim, still further extended the kingdom that had been recreated, but was defeated by Babar, King of Kabul, at Panipat, near Delhi, in 1526, and there was then established in India the Mughal dynasty.

The Mahomedan dynasties that had ruled in capital other than Delhi up to this date were of comparative unimportance, though some great men appeared among them. In Gujarat, for example, Ahmad Shah, the founder of Ahmedabad, showed himself a good ruler and builder as well as a good soldier, though his grandson, Mahmud Shah Begara, was a greater ruler—acquiring fame at sea as well as on land. In the South various kings of the Bahmani dynasty made names for themselves especially in the long wars they waged on the new Hindu kingdom that had arisen which had its capital at Vijayanagar. Of importance also was Adil Khan, a Turk, who founded (1490) the Bijapur dynasty of Adil Shahs. It was one of his successors who crushed the Vijayanagar dynasty, and built the great mosque for which Bijapur is famous.

The Mughal Empire.

As one draws near to modern times it becomes impossible to present anything like a coherent and consecutive account of the growth of India as a whole. Detached threads in the story have to be picked up one by one and followed to their ending, and although the sixteenth century saw the first European settlements in India, it will be convenient here to continue the narrative of Mahomedan India almost to the end of the Mughal Empire. How Babar gained Delhi has already been told. His son, Humayun, greatly extended his kingdom, but was eventually defeated (1540) and driven into exile by Sher Khan, an Afghan of great capabilities, whose short reign ended in 1545. The Sur dynasty thus founded by Sher Khan lasted another ten years when Humayun having snatched Kabul from one of his brothers, was strong enough to win back part of his old kingdom. When Humayun died (1556) his eldest son, Akbar, was only 13 years old and was confronted by many rivals. Nor was Akbar well served, but his career of conquest was almost uninterrupted and by 1594 the whole of India North of the Nerhudda had bowed to his authority and he subsequently entered the Deccan and captured Ahmednagar. This great ruler, who was as remarkable for his religious tolerance as for his military prowess, died in 1605, leaving behind him a record that has been surpassed by few. His son, Jehangir, who married the Persian lady Nur Jahan, ruled until 1627, bequeathing to an admiring posterity some notable buildings—the tomb of his father at Sikandra, part of the palace of Agra, and the palace and fortress of Lahore. His son, Shahjahan, was for many years occupied with wars in the Deccan, but found time to make his court of incredible magnificence

and to build the most famous and beautiful of all tombs, the Taj Mahal, as well as the fort, palace and Juma Masjid at Delhi. The quarrels of his sons led to the deposition of Shahjahan by one of them, Aurangzeb, in 1658. This Emperor's rule was one of constant intrigue and fighting in every direction, the most important of his wars being a twenty-five years' struggle against the Marathas of the Deccan who, under the leadership of Shivaji, became a very powerful faction in Indian politics. His bigoted attitude towards Hindulism made Aurangzeb all the more anxious to establish his Empire on a firm basis in the south, but he was unable to hold his many conquests and on his death (1707) the Empire, for which his three sons were fighting could not be held together. Internal disorder and Maratha encroachments continued during the reigns of his successors, and in 1739 a fresh danger appeared in the person of Nadir Shah, the Persian conqueror, who carried all before him. On his withdrawal, leaving Mahomed Shah on the throne, the old intrigues recommenced and the Marathas began to make the most of the opportunity offered to them by puppet rulers at Delhi and by almost universal discord throughout what had been the Mughal Empire. There is little to add to the history of Mahomedan India Emperors continued to reign in name at Delhi up to the middle of the 18th century, but their territory and power had long since disappeared, being swallowed up either by the Marathas or by the British.

European Settlements.

The voyage of Vasco da Gama to India in 1498 was what turned the thoughts of the Portuguese to the formation of a great Empire in the East. That idea was soon realized, for from 1500 onwards, constant expeditions were sent to India and the first two Viceroys in India—Albion and Albuquerque—laid the foundations of a great Empire and of a great trade monopoly. Goa, taken in 1510, became the capital of Portuguese India and remains to this day in the hands of its captors, and the centre of a series of churches and forts on the coast of Western India, as also farther East at Malacca, to give to the zeal with which the Portuguese laboured to propagate their religion and to defend their trade and their empire. There were great soldiers and great statesmen among them—Albuquerque, da Cunha, da Castro in the former class, St. Francis Xavier in the latter. But the chief of them was a bold and daring leader who it has to be said for, and the constant drain of men and money from Portugal, necessitated by the attacks made on their possessions in India and Malacca, was found most profitable. The junction of Portugal with Spain, which took place in 1580, brought to the door of the Eastern Empire and with Portugal became independent again, it was equal to the task of competing with the Dutch and English. The Dutch had until this time been warring the good cause of their rivals from the Portuguese, but the terrible six years' civil war with Spain forced them to relax their hold upon the coast of India, and during the French

was between 1795 and 1811 England took all Holland's Eastern possessions, and the Dutch have left in India but few traces of their civilisation and of the once powerful East India Company of the Netherlands.

The first English attempts to reach India date from 1498 when Cabot tried to find the North-West passage, and these attempts were repeated all through the sixteenth century. The first Englishman to land in India is said to have been one Thomas Stephens (1579) who was followed by a number of merchant adventurers, but trade between the two countries really dates from 1600 when Elizabeth incorporated the East India Company which had been formed in London. Factories in India were founded only after Portuguese and Dutch position had been overcome, notably in the sea fight off Swally (Suvali) in 1612. The first factory, at Surat, was for many years the most important English foothold in the East. Its establishment was followed by others, including Fort St. George, Madras; (1640) and Hughli (1651). In the history of these early years of British enterprise in India the cession of Bombay (1661) as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza stands out as a landmark. It also illustrates the weakness of the Portuguese at that date, since in return the King of England undertook to protect the Portuguese in India against their foes—the Marathas and the Dutch. Cromwell, by his treaty of 1654, had already obtained from the Portuguese an acknowledgment of England's right to trade in the East; and that right was now threatened, not by the Portuguese, but by Shivaji and by the general disorder prevalent in India. Accordingly, in 1696, the Company turned its attention to acquiring territorial power, and announced its intention to establish such a policy of civil and military power, and create and secure such a large revenue.....as may be the foundation of a large, well-grounded, sure English dominion in India for all time to come. Not much came of this announcement for some time, and no stand could be made in Bengal against the depredations of Aurangzeb. The foundations of Calcutta (1690) could not be laid by Job Charnock until after a humiliating peace had been concluded with that Emperor, and, owing to the difficulties in which the Company found itself in England, there was little chance of any immediate change for the better. The union of the old East India Company with the new one which had been formed in rivalry to it took place in 1708, and for some years peaceful development followed; though Bombay was always exposed by sea to attacks from the pirates, who had many strongholds within easy reach of that port, and on land to attacks from the Marathas. The latter danger was felt also in Calcutta. Internal dangers were numerous and still more to be feared. More than one mutiny took place among the troops sent out from England, and rebellions like that led by Kalgia in Bombay threatened to stifle the infant settlements. The public health was bad and the rate of mortality was at times appalling. To cope with such conditions strong men were needed, and the Company was in this respect peculiarly fortunate, the

long list of its servants, from Oxenden and Aungler to Hastings and Raffles, contains many names of men who proved themselves good rulers and far-sighted statesmen, the finest Empire-builders the world has known.

Attempts to compete with the English were made of course. But the schemes of the Emperor Charles VI to secure a share of the Indian trade were not much more successful than those made by Scotland, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. By the French, who founded Pondicherry and Chandernagore towards the end of the 17th century, much more was achieved, as will be seen from the following outline of the development of British rule.

The French Wars

When war broke out between England and France in 1744, the French had acquired a strong position in Southern India, which had become independent of Delhi and was divided into three large States—Hyderabad, Tanjore, and Mysore—and a number of petty states under local chieftains. In the affairs of these States Dupleix, when Governor of Pondicherry, had intervened with success, and when Madras was captured by a French squadron, under La Bourdonnais (1746) Dupleix wished to hand it over to the Nawab of Arcot—a deputy of the Nizam's who ruled in the Carnatic. The French, however, kept Madras, repelling an attack by the disappointed Nawab as well as the British attempts to recapture it. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Madras to the English. The fighting had shown the Indian powers the value of European troops, and this was again shown in the next French war (1750-54) when Clive achieved enduring fame by his capture and subsequent defence of Arcot. This war arose from Dupleix supporting candidates for the disputed successions at Arcot and Hyderabad while the English at Madras put forward their own nominees. One of Dupleix's officers, the Marquis de Bussy, persuaded the Nizam to take into his pay the army which had established his power, and in return the Northern Circars, between Orissa and Madras, was granted to the French. This territory, however, was captured by the English in the seven years' war (1756-63). Dupleix had by then been recalled to France. Lally, who had been sent to drive the English out of India, captured Fort St. David and invested Madras. But the victory which Colonel (Sir Eyre) Coote won at Wandiwash (1760) and the surrender of Pondicherry and Gingee put an end to the French ambitions of Empire in Southern India. Pondicherry passed more than once from the one nation to the other before settling down to its present existence as a French colony in miniature.

Battle of Plassey.

While the English were fighting the third French war in the South they became involved in grave difficulties in Bengal, where Suraj-ud-Daula had acceded to power. The headquarters of the English at Calcutta were

threatened by that ruler who demanded they should surrender a refuge and should cease building fortifications. They refused and he marched against them with a large army. Some of the English took to their ships and made off down the river, the rest surrendered and were cast into the jail known as the "Black Hole." From this small and stifling room 23 persons, out of 146, came out alive the next day. Clive who was at Madras, immediately sailed for Calcutta with Admiral Watson's squadron, recaptured the town (1757), and, as war with the French had been proclaimed, proceeded to take Chandernagore. The Nawab Suraj-ud-Daula then took the side of the French, and Clive, putting forward Mir Jafar as candidate for the Nawab's throne, marched out with an army consisting of 900 Europeans, 2,000 sepoy and 8 pieces of artillery against the Nawab's host of over 50,000. The result was the historic battle of Plassey (June 23) in which Clive, after hesitating on the course to be pursued, routed the Nawab. Mir Jafar was put on the throne at Murshidabad, and the price of this honour was put at £2,840,000 in addition to the grant to the Company of the land round Calcutta now known as the District of the twenty-four Parganas. In the year after Plassey, Clive was appointed Governor of Bengal and in that capacity sent troops against the French in Madras and in person led a force against the Oudh army that was threatening Mir Jafar, in each case with success. From 1760 to 1765 Clive was in England. During his absence the Council at Calcutta deposed Mir Jafar and, for a price, put Mir Kasim in his place. This ruler moved his capital to Monghyr, organized an army, and began to intrigue with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. He soon found, in a dispute over customs dues, an opportunity of quarrelling with the English and the first shots fired by his followers were the signal for a general rising in Bengal. About 200 Englishmen and a number of sepoys were massacred, but his trained regiments were defeated at Gheria and Odeynullah, and Mir Kasim sought protection from the Nawab of Oudh. But in 1764, after quelling a sepoy mutiny in his own camp by blowing 24 ringleaders from the guns, Major (Sir Hector) Munro defeated the joint forces of Shah Alam, the Mughal Emperor, and the Nawab of Oudh in the battle of Buxar. In 1765 Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey) returned as Governor, "Two landmarks stand out in his policy. First, he sought the substance, although not the name, of territorial power, under the fiction of a grant from the Mughal Emperor. Second, he desired to purify the Company's service, by prohibiting illicit gains, and by guaranteeing a reasonable pay from honest sources. In neither respect were his plans carried out by his immediate successors. But our efforts towards a sound administration date from this second Governorship of Clive as our military supremacy dates from his victory at Plassey." Before Clive left India, in 1767, he had readjusted the divisions of Northern India and had set up a system of Government in Bengal by which the English received the revenues and maintained the army while the criminal jurisdiction was vested in the Nawab. The performance of his se-

could task, the purification of the Company's service, was hotly opposed but carried out. He died in 1771 by his own hand, the House of Commons having in the previous year secured him, though admitting that he did render "great and meritorious services to his country."

Warren Hastings.

The dual system of government that Clive had set up proved a failure and Warren Hastings was appointed Governor, in 1772, to carry out the reforms settled by the Court of Directors which were to give them the entire care and administration of the revenues. This Hastings had to undertake the administrative organization of India, and, in spite of the famous attitude of Philip Francis, with whom he fought a duel and of other members of his Council, he reorganized the civil service, reformed the system of revenue collection, greatly improved the financial position of the Company, and created courts of justice and some semblance of a police force. From 1772 to 1775 he was Governor of Bengal, and from 1775 to 1780 he was the first Governor-General, nominated under an Act of Parliament passed in the previous year. His financial reforms, and the forceful contributions he exacted from the rebellious Chet Singh and the Begam of Oudh, were interpreted in England as acts of oppression and formed, together with his action in the trial of Nuneomar for forgery, the basis of his seven years' trial before the House of Lords which ended in a verdict of not guilty on all the charges. But there is much more for which his administration is justly famous. The recovery of the Marathas from their defeat at Panipat was the cardinal factor that influenced his policy towards the native states. One frontier was closed against Maratha invasion by the loan of a British brigade to the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, for his war against the Rohillas, who were intriguing with the Marathas. In Western India he found himself committed to the two Maratha wars (1775-82) owing to the ambition of the Bombay Government to place its own nominee on the throne of the Peshwa at Poona, and the Bengal troops that he sent over made amends, by the conquest of Gujarat and the capture of Gwalior, for the disgrace of Wadgaon where the Marathas overpowered a Bombay army. In the South—where interference from Madras had already led (1769) to what is known as the first Mysore war, a disastrous campaign against Hyder Ali and the Nizam—he found the Madras Government again in conflict with those two potentates. The Nizam he won over by diplomacy, but against Hyder Ali he had to despatch a large army under Sir Byre Coot. Hyder Ali died in 1782 and two years later a treaty was made with his son Tipu. It was in those acts of intervention in distant provinces that Hastings showed to best advantage as a great and courageous man, cautious, but swift in action when required. He was succeeded after an interregnum, by Lord Cornwallis (1786-93) who built on the foundations of civil administration laid by Hastings, by entrusting criminal jurisdiction to Europeans and establishing an Appellate Court of Criminal Judicature at Calcutta. In the Civil Service he separated the functions of the District Collector and Judge and organized the "writers"

and "inshukhs" of the Company into an administrative Civil Service. This system was subsequently extended to Madras and Bombay. Lord Cornwallis is better known for his introduction, on orders from London, of the Permanent Settlement in Bengal (See article on Land Revenue). A third Mysore war was waged during his tenure of office which ended in the submission of Tipu Sultan. Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth), an experienced Civil Servant, succeeded Lord Cornwallis, and, in 1793, was followed by Lord Wellesley, the friend of Pitt, who "projects were to change the map of India."

Lord Wellesley's Policy.

The French in general, and "the Carnatic" in particular, were the enemy next to be decided for a few years before Lord Wellesley took up his duties in India, and in form of the scheme of definitively ending French schemes in Asia by placing himself at the head of a great Indian confederacy. He started by obtaining from the Nawab of Oudh the cession of large tracts of territory in lieu of payment, overdue as subsidies for British troops, he then won over the Dirm to the British side, and, after expelling the influence of Tipu Sultan with the French, embarked on the fourth Mysore war which ended (1799) in the fall of Srirangapatam and the gallant death of Tipu. Part of Mysore, the Carnatic, and Tanjore roughly constituting the Madras Presidency of to-day then passed to British rule. The two Maratha powers—the Peshwa of Poona, the Gekwar at Baroda, Shadhi of Gwalior, Holkar of Indore and the Rajs of Nagpur—had still to be brought into the British net. The Peshwa, after being defeated by Holkar, fled to British territory and signed the Treaty of Bassein which led to the third Maratha war (1802-03) as it was regarded by Shadhi and the Rajs of Nagpur as a betrayal of Maratha independence. In this the most successful of British campaigns in India, Sir Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington) and General (Lord) Lake carried all before them, the one by his victories of Assaye and Argaum and the other at Aligarh and Laswari. Later operations, such as Colonel Monson's retreat through Central India, were less fortunate. The great acquisitions of territory made under Lord Wellesley proved so expensive that the Court of Directors, becoming impatient, sent out Lord Cornwallis a second time to make peace at any price. He, however, died soon after his arrival in India; and Sir George Barlow carried on the government (1805-7) until the arrival of a stronger ruler, Lord Minto. He managed to keep the peace in India for six years, and to add to British dominions by the conquest of Java and Mauritius. His foreign policy was marked by another new departure, inasmuch as he opened relations with the Punjab, Persia, and Afghanistan, and concluded a treaty with Ranjit Singh, at Lahore, which made that Sikh ruler the loyal ally of the British for life.

The successor of Lord Minto was Lord Melra who found himself obliged almost at once to declare war on the Gurkhas of Nepal, who had been encroaching on British territory. After initial reverses, the English, under General

Ochterlony, were successful and the Treaty of Sagauli (1816) was drawn up which defines British relations with Nepal to the present day. For this success Lord Morra was made Marquis of Hastings. In the same year he made preparations for the last Maratha war (1817-18) which was made necessary by the lawless conduct of the Pindaris, gangs of Pathan or Rohilla origin, whose chief patrons were the rulers of Native States. The large number of 120,000 that he collected for this purpose destroyed the Pindaris, annexed the dominions of the rebellious Peshwa of Poona, protected the Rajput States; made Sindhu enter upon a new treaty, and compelled Holkar to give up part of his territory. Thus Lord Hastings established the British power more firmly than ever, and when he resigned, in 1823, all the Native States outside the Punjab had become parts of the political system and British interests were permanently secured from the Persian Gulf to Singapore. Lord Amherst followed Lord Hastings, and his five years' rule (1823-28) are memorable for the first Burmese war and the capture of Bharatpur. The former operation was undertaken owing to the insolent demands and raids of the Burmese, and resulted in the Burmese ceding Assam, Aracan, and the coast of Malabar and their claims to the lower provinces. The capture of Bharatpur by Lord Combermere (1826) wiped out the repulse which General Lake had received there twenty years earlier. A disputed succession on this occasion led to the British intervention.

Social Reform.

A former Governor of Madras, Lord William Bentinck, was the next Governor-General. His epitaph by Macaulay, says. "He abolished cruel rites; he effaced humiliating distinctions; he gave liberty to the expression of public opinion; his constant study was to elevate the intellectual and moral character of the nations committed to his charge."

Some of his financial reforms, forced on him from England, and his widening of the gates by which educated Indians could enter the service of the Company, were most unpopular at the time, but were eclipsed by the acts he took for the abolition of *Sati*, or widow-burning; and the suppression—with the help of Captain Sleeman—of the professional hereditary assassins known as *Thugs*. In 1832 he annexed Cachar, and, two years later, Coorg. The incompetence of the ruler of Mysore forced him to take that State also under British administration—where it remained until 1881. His rule was marked in other ways by the despatch of the first steamship that made the passage from Bombay to Suez, and by his settlement of the long educational controversy in favour of the advocates of instruction in English and the vernaculars. Lord William Bentinck left India (1835) with his programme of reforms unfinished. The new Charter Act of 1833 had brought to a close the commercial business of the Company and emphasized their position as rulers of an Indian Empire in trust for the Crown. By it the whole administration, as well

as the legislation of the country, was placed in the hands of the Governor-General in Council, and authority was given to create a Presidency of Agra. Before his retirement Bentinck assumed the statutory title of Governor-General of India (1834), thus marking the progress of consolidation since Warren Hastings, in 1774 became the first Governor-General of Fort William. Sir Charles Metcalfe, being senior member of Council, succeeded Lord William Bentinck, and during his short tenure of office carried into execution his predecessor's measures for giving entire liberty to the press.

Afghan Wars.

With the appointment of Lord Auckland as Governor-General (1836-42) there began a new era of war and conquest. Before leaving London he announced that he looked with exultation to the prospect of "promoting education and knowledge, and of extending the blessings of good Government and happiness to millions in India;" but his administration was almost exclusively comprised in a fatal expedition to Afghanistan, which dragged in its train the annexation of Sind, the Sikh wars, and the inclusion of Baluchistan in the protectorate of India. The first Afghan war was undertaken partly to counter the Russian advance in Central Asia and partly to place on the throne at Kabul the dethroned ruler Shah Shuja in place of Dost Mahomed. The latter object was easily attained (1839) and for two years Afghanistan remained in the military occupation of the British. In 1841 Sir Alexander Burnes was assassinated in Kabul and Sir William Macnaghten suffered the same fate in an interview with the son of Dost Mahomed. The British Commander in Kabul, Gen. Elphinstone, was old and feeble, and after two months' delay he led his army of 4,500 and 12,000 camp followers back towards India in the depth of winter. Between Kabul and Jallalabad the whole force perished, either at the hands of the Afghans or from cold, and Dr Brydon was the only survivor who reached the latter city. Lord Ellenborough succeeded Lord Auckland and was persuaded to send an army of retribution to relieve Jallalabad. One force under Gen Pollock relieved Jallalabad and marched on Kabul, while Gen Nott, advancing from Kandahar, captured Ghazni and joined Pollock at Kabul (1842). The bazaar at Kabul was blown up, the prisoners rescued, and the army returned to India leaving Dost Mahomed to take undisputed possession of his throne. The drama ended with a bombastic proclamation from Lord Ellenborough and the parade through the Punjab of the (spurious) gates of Somnath taken from the tomb of Mahmud of Ghazni.

Sikh Wars.

Lord Ellenborough's other wars—the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier and the suppression of an outbreak in Gwalior—were followed by his recall, and the appointment of Sir Henry (1st Lord) Hardinge to be Governor-General. A soldier Governor-General was not unacceptable for it was felt that a trial

grace to British arms led to several attacks on frontier outposts which were brilliantly defeated. Manipur was occupied by British troops and the government of the State was reorganised under a Political Agent. Lord Lansdowne's term of office was distinguished by several other events such as the passing of the Parliamentary Act (Lord Cross's Act, 1892), which increased the size of the Legislative Councils as well as the number of non-officials in them. legislation aimed at social and domestic reform among the Hindus and the closing of the Indian Mints to the free coinage of silver (1898).

Frontier Campaigns.

Lord Elgin, who succeeded Lord Lansdowne in 1894, was confronted at the outset with a deficit of Rs 2½ crores, due to the fall in exchange (In 1895 the rupee fell as low as 1s. 1d.) To meet this the old five per cent import duties were reimposed on a number of commodities, but not on cotton goods: and within the year the duty was extended to piece-goods, but not to yarn. The re-organisation of the Army, which involved the abolition of the old system of Presidency Armies, had hardly been carried out when a number of risings occurred along the North-West Frontier. In 1895 the British Agent in Chitral—which had come under British influence two years previously when Sir H. M. Durand had demarcated the southern and eastern boundaries of Afghanistan—was besieged and had to be rescued by an expeditionary force. Two years after the Wazirs, Swatis, and Mohmands attacked the British positions in Malakand, and the Afridis closed the Khyber Pass. Peace was only established after a prolonged campaign (the Tirah campaign) in which 40,000 troops were employed, and over 1,000 officers and men had been lost. This was in itself a heavy burden on the finances of India, which was increased by the serious and widespread famine of 1896-97 and by the appearance in India of bubonic plague. The methods taken to prevent the spread of that disease led, in Bombay, to rioting, and elsewhere to the appearance in the vernacular press of seditious articles which made it necessary to make more stringent the law dealing with such writings.

Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty.

With famine and plague Lord Curzon also, who succeeded Lord Elgin in 1899, had to deal. In 1901 the cycle of bad harvests came to an end; but plague increased, and in 1904 deaths from it were returned at over one million. Of the many problems to which Lord Curzon directed his attention, only a few can be mentioned here: some indeed claim that his greatest work in India was not to be found in any one department but was in fact the general gearing up of the administration which he achieved by his unceasing energy and personal example of strenuous work. He had at once to turn his attention to the North-West Frontier. The British garrisons beyond our boundary were gradually withdrawn and replaced by tribal levies, and British forces were concentrated in British territory behind them as a support. An attempt was made to check

the arms traffic and work on strategic railways was pushed forward. The fact that in seven years he only spent a quarter of a million upon repressive measures and only found it necessary to institute one blockade (against the Mahsud Waziris) is the justification of this policy of compromise between the Lawrence and Forward schools of thought. In 1901 the trans-Indus districts of the Punjab were separated from that Province, and together with the political charges of the Malakand, the Khyber, Kurram, Tochi, and Wana were formed into the new North-West Frontier Province, under a Chief Commissioner directly responsible to the Government of India. That year also witnessed the death of Abdur Rahman, the Amir of Afghanistan, and the establishment of an understanding with his successor Habibullah. In 1904 the attitude of the Dalai Lama of Tibet being pro-Russian and anti-British, it became necessary to send an expedition to Lhasa under Colonel (Sir Francis) Younghusband. The Dalai Lama abdicated and a treaty was concluded with his successor.

In his first year of office Lord Curzon passed the Act which, in accordance with the recommendations of the Fowler Commission, practically fixed the value of the rupee at 1s. 4d., and in 1900 a Gold Reserve fund was created. The educational reforms that marked this Viceroyalty are dealt with elsewhere: chief among them was the Act of 1904 reorganising the governing bodies of Indian Universities. Under the head of agrarian reform must be mentioned the Punjab Land Alienation Act, designed to free the cultivators of the soil from the clutches of money-lenders, and the institution of Agricultural banks. The efficiency of the Army was increased (Lord Kitchener was Commander-in-Chief) by the re-armament of the Indian Army, the strengthening of the artillery, and the reorganisation of the transport service. In his relations with the Feudatory Chiefs, Lord Curzon emphasized their position as partners in administration, and he founded the Imperial Cadet Corps to give a military education to the sons of ruling and aristocratic families. In 1902 the British Government obtained from the Nizam a perpetual lease of the Assigned Districts of Berar in return for an annual payment of 25 lakhs. The accession of King Edward VII was proclaimed in a splendid Durbar on January 1, 1903. In 1904 Lord Curzon returned to England for a few months but was re-appointed to a second term of office, Lord Amthill, Governor of Madras, having acted as Viceroy during his absence. The chief act of this second term was the partition of Bengal and the creation of a new Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam—a reform, designed to remove the systematic neglect of the trans-Gangetic areas of Bengal, which evoked bitter and prolonged criticism. In 1905 Lord Curzon resigned, being unable to accept the proposals of Lord Kitchener for the re-adjustment of relations between the Army headquarters and the Military Department of the Government, and being unable to obtain the support of the Home Government. Lord Curzon was succeeded by Lord Minto, the grandson of a former Governor-General. It was a stormy heritage to which Lord Minto succeeded, for the unrest which

ad long been noticed developed in one direction into open sedition.

Outside Bengal attempts to quell the disaffection by the ordinary law were fairly successful but scarcely any province was free from disorder of some kind and, though recourse was made to the deportation of persons without reason assigned under an Act of 1818, special Acts had to be passed to meet the situation, viz — an Explosives Act, a Prevention of Seditious Meetings Act, and a Criminal Law Amendment Act which provides for a magisterial inquiry in private and a trial before three judges of the High Court without a jury. Concurrently with these legislative measures steps were taken to extend representative institutions. In 1907 a Hindu and a Mahomedan were appointed to the Secretary of State's Council, and in 1909 a Hindu was appointed for the first time to the Viceroy's Council. The Indian Councils Act of 1909 carried this policy farther by reconstituting the legislative councils and conferring upon them wider powers of discussion. The executive councils of Madras and Bombay were enlarged by the addition of an Indian member.

As regards foreign policy, Lord Minto's Viceroyalty was distinguished by the conclusion (1907) between Great Britain and Russia of an agreement on questions likely to disturb the friendly relations of the two countries in Asia generally, and in Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet in particular. Two expeditions had to be undertaken on the North-West Frontier, against the Zakka Khels and the Mohmands, and ships of the East Indies Squadron were frequently engaged off Maskat and in the Persian Gulf in operations designed to check the traffic in arms through Persia and Mekran to the frontier of India.

Visit of the King and Queen.

Sir Charles (Lord) Hardinge was appointed to succeed Lord Minto in 1910. His first year in India was marked by the visit to India of the King Emperor and the Queen, who arrived at Bombay on December 2, 1911. From there they proceeded to Delhi where, in the most magnificent durbar ever held in India, the coronation was proclaimed and various boons, including an annual grant of 50 lakhs for popular education, were announced. At the same ceremony His Majesty announced the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi; the union of the two Bengals under a Governor-General; the formation of a new Lieutenant-Governorship for Behar, Orissa, Nagpur and Orissa and the restoration of Assam to the charge of a Chief Commissioner.

In August, 1913, the demolition of a lavatory attached to a mosque in Cawnpore was made the occasion of an agitation among Indian Mahomedans and a riot in Cawnpore led to heavy loss of life. Of those present at the riot, 108 were put on trial but subsequently released by the Viceroy before the case reached the Sessions, and His Excellency was able to settle the mosque difficulty by a compromise that was acceptable to the local and other Mahomedans.

Still more serious trouble occurred in September, 1914, when a riot at Luder-Pudge among a number of Sikh emigrants returned from Canada gave a foretaste of the revolutionary plans entertained by those men. The sequel, revealed in two conspiracy trials at Lahore, showed that the "Ghadr" conspiracy was widespread and had been consistently encouraged by Germany.

India after the War.

Post-war India has a strange and baffling history. In 1910 Englishmen troubled little about affairs in the East: they were engrossed by the settlement of peace and the refusal of the United States either to ratify the Treaty of Versailles or to join the League of Nations. In 1930, however, the eyes not only of the British Empire but of the entire world were set upon India, when Mr. Gandhi and his followers for the second time attempted to make the non-co-operation movement effective.

Ideas rule the world. India had participated in the "war to end war." It was a war waged in defence of Belgium and it ended in a peace ostensibly proclaiming the sanctity of national aspirations throughout the world. For the sake of nationalism the structure of Europe had been broken into fragments. What then was to be India's share in the spoils of peace? The Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms did not satisfy extremist opinion. They were the result of an agreed policy at home, and an agreed policy meant concessions to reactionary opinion.

The Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms worked, and in some Provinces they worked well. Because they worked well, it was never possible to withhold reforms. Because experience revealed their shortcomings, it was imperative that greater reforms should be made. Lord Morley and Lord Minto expressly denied that their reforms allowed Parliamentary institutions. Yet the logical conclusion of these reforms was the Montagu-Chelmsford Report, which definitely established Parliamentary institutions, and that report prepared the way to Dominion Status. Ten years after the war we find the Viceroy and Mr. Gandhi working by different methods for the same end.

Yet to one living through those fevered years the issues were not always clear. Mahomedan and Hindu aspirations did not always coincide. The evil mischances that persuaded Turkey to associate with the Central Powers in the European War sorely tried Mahomedan loyalty. The Khalifatist movement assumed great proportions, and the consequence was war; for King Amanullah, who had just ascended the throne of Afghanistan, believed that India was in open revolt. He decided, therefore, to invade the country. The Afghan War was unfortunately a prolonged campaign, and increased the sense of post-war exhaustion in this country. A few years later King Amanullah visited India on an errand of peace. His country had entered the comity of nations, and he would tour Europe as an enlightened monarch. In 1928 he returned to his country, which, however, he was destined soon to leave. The pace of his reforms had been too rapid for his country. He abdicated in favour of his brother Inayatullah, who abdicated

himself a few hours later. It was not until General Nadir Khan was elected King in the summer of 1929 that peace came to the unhappy land; but the keenness with which India followed the progress of the revolution showed how closely were the fortunes of the two countries associated.

The appointment of Lord Reading to be Viceroy in 1921 was a landmark in Indian history. Throughout his tenure of office there was opposition and disorder. The Duke of Connaught came to open the new council, and the *Swarajists* did their utmost to boycott the visit. The Prince of Wales came a year later on a non-political visit, but his arrival in Bombay was the signal for severe rioting.

Mr. Gandhi's weapons of attack were boycott and the wearing of *Khaddar*. *Khaddar*, as an Indian cloth, weakened the importation of foreign cloth. The boycott was directed not only against British goods, but against the entire machinery of Government. In 1923 Lord Reading's certification doubled the Salt-Tax, thus showing that the Legislative Assembly had no real control over finance. The responsibilities of the Assembly were few. Since the Government could override its decisions, its decisions became irresponsible. In the Provinces, however, there was less irresponsibility, and consequently the members of the Legislative Councils were often the allies of Government. But it took time for Indian opinion to realise that the Legislative Councils, however imperfect, were the instruments of order and good government. Some years later, the boycott broke down. Mr. C. R. Das, one of Mr. Gandhi's chief lieutenants, decided to associate with the Legislature—ostensibly to destroy the reforms, but actually because he and many others had grown tired of a policy of mere negation. The downfall of non-co-operation was further signalled by the election of a great *Swarajist*, Mr. V. J. Patel, to be President of the Legislative Assembly—an office which he held until the summer of 1930.

When Lord Irwin succeeded Lord Reading in 1926, the prospects of peace improved. It was ordained by Statute that a Commission should examine the Indian Reforms within ten years of the inception of the Government of India Act. In 1927 both the British Government and the Government of India agreed that the Commission should be appointed as early as possible. Accordingly, in the autumn, it was announced that Sir John Simon and other members of Parliament should be members of a new Statutory Commission. Their appointment was the occasion of a new outburst. Neither Mr. Gandhi's followers nor the moderates would support the Commission. It was to be boycotted from the start. The chief complaint was that all the members of the Commission were Europeans. The Congress party, and even the moderates, demanded in its place a Round Table Conference and the promise, if not the immediate offer, of Dominion Status. The boycott, however, was not very effective. One by one the Provincial Councils decided to co-operate with the Simon Commission, the Legislative Assembly, almost alone among the Legislatures, stood consistently for boycott. Yet it is significant that before the Simon Commission had published its report, the Viceroy not only announced that the goal of Government in India

was Dominion Status, but invited representatives of India to a Round Table Conference in London. He stood where the moderates and half the Congress had stood two years before. Meanwhile, Congress became still more extremist. In January 1929, Mr. Gandhi announced that if India was not given Dominion Status within a year, he would lead the campaign for Independence. He kept his word, and the Lahore Congress of December 1929, under the guidance of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru rather than Mr. Gandhi, voted in favour of Independence.

The new struggle began in earnest in March, 1930. Mr. Gandhi first decided to break the Salt Laws. He made an imposing march from Ahmedabad to the coast, where he ceremoniously manufactured salt that could not be taxed. Non-co-operation was in full swing. For a short time Bombay was virtually a Congress City. There were numerous arrests.

The Statutory Commission meanwhile published its report, but it met with violent criticism in India. A new scheme to consult Indian opinion on constitutional reforms was evolved in the shape of a Round Table Conference to which representatives of British India, the Indian States and the British parties were invited. The Princes, at first, assumed the lead. They stood for a Federal Government in which the States and British India should be partners. At once the extremists, who had intended to ignore the Conference, showed the keenest concern. The Conference, despite all evil prognostications, represented the voice of India.

In February 1931 the Round Table Conference delegates returned to India on the understanding that there was to be a second Round Table Conference in London, but that meanwhile certain problems, such as that of separate communal electorates, were to be worked out among themselves in India. The first thing they did on their return was to attempt to persuade Congress to call off the Civil Disobedience Movement and participate in the Conference. Congress, however, were in bitter mood, many local committees even did their best to prevent the decennial census in February from being an accurate index to the state of the population. There were a number of feverish conferences between Lord Irwin, Mr. Gandhi, and Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru. Mr. Gandhi and other prominent Congress leaders were released from prison specially to confer with Government officials and the conferences were conducted in a friendly and informal fashion. The upshot was the signing of the Irwin-Gandhi Pact at Delhi in March which provided on the one hand for Congress to call off the civil disobedience movement, the no-tax campaign, the boycott of British goods, and other cognate activities, and on the other hand for Government to extend an amnesty to political prisoners, to permit the manufacture of salt on the coast, and make a number of similar concessions.

When in April Lord Willingdon arrived in India to take up his duties as Viceroy and Governor-General, Lord Irwin left the country amid many tributes to his statesmanship. Lord Willingdon's first few months were spent in preparing the way for the second Round Table Conference, the opening of which was fixed for

and avoidance of cut-throat competition—an agreement which was later ratified by the Indian legislature

The good will engendered by this (I. es-Mody) pact was followed up and in Indo-British trade agreement was concluded in 1934. The operation of this and the Ottawa Agreements helped Indian commerce and industry by facilitating the exchange of commodities and merchandise between India and Britain and other parts of the Empire. A policy of economic nationalism began to be adopted by almost all European countries which imposed exchange and quota restrictions on foreign imports. As a result of this Indian exports to Italy, Germany, Roumania and Turkey suffered a great deal

Nevertheless India turned the corner and at the time of writing seems within sight of economic revival, if not prosperity. The budget for 1934-35 actually showed a surplus after allowing for the full restoration of salary cuts and a slight reduction in the income-tax rates

Politically, 1934-35 was a year of peace. Mr Gandhi yielded to the insistent demands of peace followers and formally called off civil disobedience which had been dead for months. The elimination of this negative policy led to a constructive programme. Right Wing Congressmen revived the old Swaraj Party. They contested the elections to the Assembly and scored signal success, winning 45 seats. Their triumph is all the more striking because of the rivalry between them and another wing of the Congress which had quarrelled with the parent body on the Communal Award. Various causes have been suggested for their success, the most important of which was the wave of sentimental loyalty to an institution which had given up its barren programme and—following the removal of the Government ban—resumed its normal functions

The Indian National Congress met in October 1931 after three and a half years of inaction

Mr Gandhi announced his decision to leave that body, with a view partly to enable it to function independently and unobscured by his personality and partly to devoting his time and energy to an intensive rural uplift programme. This has been described as a subtle move on the part of Mr Gandhi to consolidate his position among the masses. Not to be outdone by Mr Gandhi, the Government of India sanctioned one crore of rupees to ameliorate the condition of the agricultural population

The year witnessed a keen and bitter controversy over the Communal Award, Hindu protesting it was unjust and Muslims insisting on retaining it. Between the two, the Congress chose to remain neutral. This attitude displeased both, and a section of Hindu Congressmen formed a separate party and ceaselessly strove to upset the Award

Another outstanding feature was the publication of the report of the Joint Parliamentary Committee which examined British and Indian witnesses (officials and non-officials) on the Government's proposals contained in the White Paper. The report differed little from the White Paper and formed the basis of the India Bill which, at the time of writing, is being discussed by the House of Commons in Committee. Both the Committee's report and the Bill raised a storm of protest in India, where the proposed reforms were regarded by most people, including the Liberals, as inadequate, but a small section of opinion was in favour of working the scheme to get the best out of it and to pave the way for a further instalment of political reform

The Indian Princes created some surprise by refusing to accept the proposals as they stood and demanding a number of changes. A section of public opinion regarded their decisions as a withdrawal from the proposed federation, but the Princes repudiated this interpretation and protested that they only asked for changes which would safeguard their status, privileges and treaty rights

The Government of India.

The impulse which drove the British to India was not conquest but trade. The Government of India presents the slow evolution from conditions established to meet trading requirements. On September 24, 1599, a few years before the deaths of Queen Elizabeth and Akbar, the merchants of London formed an association for the purpose of establishing direct trade with the East and were granted a charter of incorporation. The Government of this Company in England was vested in a Governor with a General Court of Proprietors and a Court of Directors. The factors and affairs of the Company on the East and West Coasts of India, and in Bengal, were administered at each of the principal settlements of Madras (Fort St. George), Bombay and Calcutta (Fort William), by a President or Governor and a Council consisting of the senior servants of the Company. The three "Presidencies" were independent of each other and subordinate only to the Directors in England.

Territorial Responsibility Assumed.

The collapse of government in India consequent on the decay of Mughul power and the intrusion of the French on the East Coast forced the officers of the Company to assume territorial responsibility in spite of their own fears and the insistent orders of the Directors. Step by step the Company became first the dominant, then the paramount power in India. In the changed circumstances the system of government by mutually independent and unwieldy councils of the merchants at the Presidency towns gave rise to grave abuses. Parliament intervened, and under the Regulating Act of 1773, a Governor-General and four councillors were appointed to administer the Presidency of Fort William (Bengal), and the supremacy of that Presidency over Madras and Bombay was for the first time established. The subordinate Presidencies were forbidden to wage war or make treaties without the previous consent of the Governor-General of Bengal in Council, except in cases of imminent necessity. Pitt's Act of 1784, which established the Board of Control in England, vested the administration of each of the three Presidencies in a Governor and three councillors, including the Commander-in-Chief of the Presidency Army. The control of the Governor-General-in-Council was somewhat extended, as it was again by the Charter Act of 1793. Under the Charter Act of 1833 the Company was compelled to close its commercial business

and it became a political and administrative body holding its territories in trust for the Crown. The same Act vested the direction of the entire civil and military administration and sole power of legislation in the Governor-General-in-Council, and defined more clearly the nature and extent of the control to be extended over the subordinate governments. After the Mutiny, there was passed, in 1858, an Act transferring the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. This Act made no important change in the administration in India, but the Governor-General, as representing the Crown, became known as the Viceroy. The Governor-General is the sole representative of the Crown in India; he is assisted by a Council, composed of high officials, each of whom is responsible for a special department of the administration.

Functions of Government.

The functions of the Government in India are perhaps the most extensive of any great administration in the world. It claims a share in the produce of the land and in the Punjab and Bombay it has restricted the alienation of land from agriculturists to non-agriculturists. It undertakes the management of landed estates where the proprietor is disqualified. In times of famine it undertakes relief work and other remedial measures on a great scale. It manages a vast forest property and is the principal manufacturer of salt and opium. It owns the bulk of the railways of the country, and directly manages a considerable portion of them; it has constructed and maintains most of the important irrigation works; it owns and manages the post and telegraph systems. It has the monopoly of the Note issue, and it alone can set the mints in motion. It lends money to municipalities, rural boards, and agriculturists and occasionally to owners of historic estates. It controls the sale of liquor and intoxicating drugs and has direct responsibilities in respect to police, education, medical and sanitary operations and ordinary public works of the most intimate character. The Government has also close relations with the Indian States which collectively cover more than one-third of the whole area of India and comprise more than one-fifth of its population. The distribution of these great functions between the Government of India and the provincial administrations has fluctuated and was definitely regulated by the Reform Act of 1919.

THE REFORMS OF 1919.

Great changes were made in the system of government in India by the Government of India Act, 1919, which, together with the Government of India Order-in-Council of 1919, came into operation in January 1921. The Act was the result of an inquiry conducted in India in the winter of 1917-18 by the Secretary of State (Mr. Montagu) and the Viceroy

(Lord Chelmsford), the results of which were embodied in their Report on Indian Constitutional Reform issued in the spring of 1918. The recommendations in this report were supplemented by those of two Committees which toured in India in the winter of 1918-19, and which issued their Reports in the spring of 1919. A third Committee was appointed during the latter year to make recommendations for the

modification of the system of administration of Indian affairs in the United Kingdom, and issued their Report while the Government of India Bill was under examination by a Joint Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament. The Joint Select Committee in their turn issued an exhaustive Report on the Bill, which was passed in a form practically identical with that recommended by the Joint Committee, and received the Royal Assent on the 23rd December 1919.

The Divisions—British India for administrative purposes is divided into 15 provinces, each with its separate Local Government or administration. In ten of the provinces—the three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa the Central Provinces, Burma, Assam and the North West Frontier Province—the Local Government consists of a Governor, an Executive Council of not more than four members, and two or more Ministers. Burma, which was excluded from the original scheme, was brought into line with it in 1922. An Act of Parliament was passed, constituting Burma a Governor's Province, with a Governor, an Executive Council and Ministers and a Legislative Council elected on a very democratic franchise, which gave the vote to women. The remaining provinces were then, inclusive of the N.W. Frontier Province, directly administered by Chief Commissioners, who are technically mere agents of the Central Government of India. No change was made by the Act of 1919 in the system of administration in these six minor provinces but the Frontier Province was, after the Burma precedent, made a Major Province in 1932.

Dyarchy—In ten nine provinces the executive Government is a dual organism which owes its unity to the Governor. One half of the organism consists of the Governor and his executive Council, all of whom are appointed by the King. This body is responsible for the administration of those subjects which are "reserved." The other half of the executive organism is the Governor acting with the advice of Ministers who are appointed by him, hold office during his pleasure, and must be elected members of the Provincial Legislative Council. To the Governor acting with Ministers is entrusted the administration of "transferred" subjects.

The Object—The framers of the Act of 1919 had a twofold object in view. Their primary object was to devise a plan which would render possible the introduction by successive stages of a system of responsible government in British India in modification of the previous system under which the Governments in India both central and provincial, received their mandates from the British Parliament acting through the Secretary of State for India, the Cabinet Minister responsible to Parliament for the administration of Indian affairs.

The Provinces—Starting from the premise that it was in the provinces that the first substantial steps must be taken towards the development of a system of responsible government the framers of the Act of 1919 provided

for a statutory demarcation of the functions to be exercised by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments respectively, in their administrative capacity. No attempt was made in this connection to limit the field open to the Indian Legislature, which still retains a concurrent (though not an overriding) power of legislation for the affairs of the provinces in general and of individual provinces; but the rules under the Act provide specifically for the exercise of this right in certain specified provincial matters, and the theory upon which the Act proceeds assumes that a convention will be established and rigorously observed which will confine intervention by the Indian Legislature in provincial affairs to matters so specified.

Finance—The "revenues of India"—or, rather, their sources—are definitely divided between the Central and Provincial Governments; the Provincial Governments have now almost complete control over the administration of their "allocated" revenues, they have power to supplement them by raising loans on the security of these revenues, and their right, subject in certain cases to the Governor-General's sanction, to initiate new taxation measures is formally recognised.

It was found impossible to devise any scheme of allocation of revenues between the Central and Provincial Governments which did not leave the former with a deficit. This deficit is to be met in part by an annual contribution from seven of the eight Governors' provinces, the province of Bihar and Orissa, owing to the comparative exiguousness and inelasticity of its own revenues, having been exempted from this contribution. The aggregate sum thus due from the provinces to the Government of India at the outset was Rs. 983 lakhs, of which Madras contributed Rs. 348 lakhs, the United Provinces Rs. 240 lakhs, the Punjab Rs. 175 lakhs, and the other four provinces sums ranging from Rs. 15 lakhs to Rs. 64 lakhs. The annual contribution was in no case to be subject to increase in the future and if reduction of the aggregate were found possible by the Government of India, reductions were to be made in fixed proportions from the quota of the several provinces. The Provincial contributions were gradually foregone and finally extinguished by the Government of India in the years of its successive annual prosperity. Budgets before the commencement of the world wide economic depression in 1929.

Responsibility—The first steps towards responsibility were to transform the Provincial Legislative Council into a body of sufficient size and with a sufficiently large elected majority (which the Act fixes at 70 per cent as a minimum) to represent adequately public opinion in the province, and to create an electorate. The first franchise rules gave the vote to about 5,000,000 of the adult male population, and have enabled the Legislative Council of any "Governor's province" to extend to the franchise women.

The following table shows the number of members of the Provincial Councils—

Province.	Elected	Nominated		Total.
		Official	Non-official	
Madras	12	—	—	12
Bombay	11	—	—	11
Bengal	11	—	—	11
United Provinces	10	—	—	10
Punjab	7	—	—	7
Bihar and Orissa	7	—	—	7
Central Provinces	5	—	—	5
Assam	5	—	—	5
Burma	5	—	—	5
North-West Frontier Province	5	—	—	5

The figures for a Provincial Council are maxima in every case, and are less than the maximum number of officials nominated to any Council; the number of nominated non-officials must be increased in proportion; e.g., if there are only 16 officials (nominated and elected) on the United Provinces Council there must be seven nominated non-officials. The official members who have seats ex-officio are the members of the Executive Council who are at present four in number, the statutory maximum in Madras, Bombay, and Bengal three in Bihar and Orissa, and two in each of the remaining provinces. These Executive Councils contain an equal

number of Indian and British members except in Bombay and Orissa where the British members are British.

Electoralities.—The electoralities in the provinces are framed for the most part on a basis which does not take into account representation on the various boards, committees, and specialist institutions which the different groups of the Indian population are naturally forming themselves. Although there are many variations from province to province, a table showing the character in each province (Bengal) will give a better idea of the general position.

Class of Electorate.	No. of Electors in the Class.	No. of Members attributable to Electors in the Class.
Non-Muhammadian	—	—
Muhammadian	—	—
European	—	—
Anglo-Indians (in the technical sense of persons of mixed European and Asiatic descent).	—	—
Landholders	—	—
University	—	—
Commerce and Industry	—	—
Total	—	—

Of the 94 constituencies in Bengal, all but nine (those representing the University and Commerce and Industry) are arranged on a territorial basis, i.e., each constituency consists of a group of electors having the prescribed qualifications which entitle them to a vote in a constituency of that class, who inhabit a particular area. The normal area for a "Muhammadian" or "non-Muhammadian" constituency is a district (or where districts are large and populous, half a district) in the case of rural constituencies, and, in the case of urban constituencies, a group or adjacent municipal towns. Some large towns form urban constituencies by themselves, and the City of Calcutta provides eight separate constituencies, six "non-Muhammadian" and two "Muhammadian", the latter, of course, being coterminous with the former.

Throughout the electoral rules there runs a general classification of the various kinds of constituencies into two broad categories, those

which are deemed to represent special interests such as Landholders, Universities, Planters or Commerce being described as "special" constituencies, and those which are based on a racial distinction—Muhammadian, European, Sikh, etc.—being known as "general" constituencies.

Voters' Qualifications.—The qualifications for electors (and consequently for candidates) vary in detail from province to province, chiefly on account of variations in the laws and regulations which form the basis of assessment of income or property values. Generally speaking, both in rural and urban areas the franchise is based on a property qualification as measured by the payment of a prescribed minimum of land revenue or of its equivalent, or of income tax, or of municipal taxes, but in all provinces retired, pensioned or discharged officers and men of the regular army are entitled to the vote, irrespective of the amount of their income or property.

POWERS OF PROVINCIAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS.

In origin the legislative authority in British India was a meeting of the Governor-General (or, in the case of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, of the Governor) with his Executive Council, "for the purpose of legislation." When met for this purpose there were added to the Executive Council certain "additional members," at first very few in number, and those few all nominated by the Governor-General or the Governor, as the case might be. A Council so constituted had originally no powers or duties beyond those immediately arising out of the discussion of the particular legislative measure which at the time was engaging its attention, and its functions were confined strictly to the discussion and enactment of legislative measures. In course of time the number of "additional" members, and the proportion of these who were non-official Indians, were steadily increased, the principle of election was gradually substituted for nomination as the means of selecting non-official members, and the functions of the Councils were extended so as to include the right of interpellation, of the discussion of matters of general public interest, and of criticising and discussing the budget proposals of the Executive Government. This extension of the powers of the Councils was in the main the result of the "Morley-Minto Act" of 1909. The Indian Councils Act of 1892 had given power to discuss the budget but not to divide the Council upon it. Lord Morley's Act went further and provided that notwithstanding the terms of the Indian Councils Act of 1861 which had restricted the powers of all Councils to the discussion of legislative measures, the Local Government might make rules authorising the discussion of the annual financial statement, of any matter of general public interest, and the asking of questions under such conditions and restrictions as might be imposed by the rules, and these rules recognised the right of the Councils to vote on motions thus submitted for their discussion. The other results of the Act of 1909 were definitely to recognise the principle of election as the means of selecting non-official members of all Councils (although the method adopted was mainly that of indirect election), a considerable increase in the number of both non-official and official members, and the setting up in every province of a non-official (though not, save in one province, an elected) majority. A further important, though indirect, result of the Morley-Minto Act was the appointment of an Indian member to the Executive Council of the Governor-General and to such Provincial Executive Councils as were then in existence and subsequently created.

Old System—But although the Legislative Councils (which, originally created in two provinces only in addition to the Governor-General's Legislative Council, existed in 1919 in nine provinces) had steadily acquired a more and more representative character and a large share of the normal functions of a legislative assembly as generally understood, they still remained in theory up to the passing of the Act of 1919 mere accessories to the Executive Government of the provinces. The pur-

enacting, legislation. It is true that the non-official element in the Provincial Councils as constituted by Lord Morley's Act of 1909 had acquired a considerable measure of control over legislation, in view of the fact that in most provinces that Act and the rules framed under it placed the non-official members in a slight majority over their official colleagues, but for various reasons this control even in the sphere of legislation, can hardly be described as definite popular control, and over matters outside the legislative sphere the Councils had no controlling voice at all.

The Changes—The most important changes made by the Act of 1919 in the powers of the Provincial Councils were—

(i) the power to vote (and consequently to withhold) supplies;

(ii) a greatly enhanced freedom of initiation in the matter of legislation; and

(iii) power to frame their own rules of procedure in matters of detail, subject to the Governor's concurrence.

A further right which the Councils will acquire after four years from the time of their commencement is the right to elect their own President. At the outset the President is nominated by the Governor, but from the start every Council has an elected Deputy President. The Governor (who formerly was *ex officio* President of his Legislative Council) no longer has any direct connection with its proceedings. The first-named of these newly acquired powers is of sufficient importance to require a detailed explanation of its scope, which can best be given in the terms of the Act itself (section 72d).

72d—(1) The provisions contained in this section shall have effect with respect to business and procedure in governors' legislative councils.

(2) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the province shall be laid in the form of a statement before the council in each year and the proposals of the local government for the appropriation of provincial revenues and other moneys in any year shall be submitted to the vote of the council in the form of demands for grants. The council may assent, or refuse its assent, to a demand, or may reduce the amount thereon referred to either by a reduction of the whole grant or by the omission or reduction of any of the items of expenditure of which the grant is composed:—

Provided that—

(a) the local government shall have power, in relation to any such demand, to act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent; or the reduction of the amount thereon referred to, if the demand relates to a reserved subject, and the governor certifies that the expenditure provided for by the demand is essential to the discharge of his responsibility for the subject; and

(b) the governor shall have power in cases of emergency to authorise such expenditure as may be in his opinion necessary for the safety or tranquility of the province, or for the carrying on of any department; and

(c) no proposal for the appropriation of any such revenues or other moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the governor communicated to the council.

(3) Nothing in the foregoing sub-section shall require proposals to be submitted to the council relating to the following heads of expenditure :—

(i) Contributions payable by the local government to the Governor-General in Council, and

(ii) Interest and sinking fund charges on loans; and

(iii) Expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law, and

(iv) Salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council, and

(v) Salaries of judges of the high court of the province and of the advocate-general

If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of moneys does or does not relate to the above heads of expenditure, the decision of the governor shall be final.

Executive and Legislature.—In the light of these facts it is now possible to explain more exactly the relationship between the provincial executive and the provincial legislature. The dual character of the former has already been mentioned, and the corresponding bifurcation of provincial subjects into "reserved" and "transferred" categories. The rules under the act prescribe a list of 20 subjects which are transferred to the administration of the Governor acting with Ministers, the more important of which are Local Self-Government, Medical Administration, Public Health, Education (with certain reservations), Public Works, Agriculture, Excise, and Development of Industries. The "reserved" subjects comprise all those in the list of "provincial" (as distinct from "central") subjects which are not transferred.

Machinery.—No change was made by the Act of 1919 in the machinery and methods of administration by the Governor in Council, decisions are taken at the Council Board, as before, by a majority vote, and the Governor is entitled, as before, to overrule such a vote in certain specified circumstances if he disagrees with it. For such decisions the Governor in Council remains, as before, responsible to the Secretary of State and Parliament, and on questions of legislation and supply he has the power of enforcing them despite opposition by a majority of the Legislative Council. But, the whole spirit of the Act and the existence of a large non-official elected majority in every Provincial Legislative Council is an important factor in determining the policy to be pursued by the official half of the Government in its administration of reserved subjects. A further and not less important factor is the existence in the Government, side by side with the Executive Council, of two or more Ministers appointed from the elected members of the legislature, who, though they are not charged by law with, and in fact are legally absolved from, any responsibility for decisions on matters outside the transferred sphere, will necessarily be able, and in fact are expected, to make their opinions felt by their colleagues in the Executive Council. But these factors, while they will doubtless lead to

constant endeavour on the part of the official half of the Government to accommodate its policy to the wishes of its ministerial colleagues and of the majority of the legislature, and to avoid situations which involve resort to the enforcement of its decisions in the face of popular opposition, are not intended to obscure the responsibility to Parliament in the last resort of the Governor in Council for the administration of reserved subjects and the right of His Majesty's Government, and of the Secretary of State as a member thereof, to lay down and require the observance of any principle which they regard as having the support of Parliament and in the last resort of the British electorate.

Transfer of Control.—With regard to transferred subjects the position is very different. Here there has been an actual transfer of control from the British elector and the British Parliament to the elector and the Legislative Council in the Indian province. The provincial subjects of administration are grouped into portfolios, and just as each member of the Executive Council has charge of a portfolio consisting of a specified list of "reserved" subjects or "departments," so each Minister is directly responsible for the administration of those particular transferred "departments" which are included in his portfolio. But his responsibility lies, not, as in the case of a member of the Executive Council, to the Government of India, the Secretary of State and Parliament, but to the Provincial Legislative Council of which he is an elected member and from which he is selected by the Governor as commanding or likely to command the support of the majority of that body. He holds office during the Governor's pleasure, but his retention of office is contingent on his ability to retain the confidence not only of the Governor, but also of the Legislative Council, upon whose vote he is directly dependent for his salary. Further, the control of the Legislative Council over transferred subjects, both as regards supplies and legislation, is almost entirely free from the restrictions just noticed which necessarily qualify its control over the "reserved" subjects. It is thus within the power of the Provincial Council to insist on the pursuit of a policy of its own choice in the administration of transferred subjects by withdrawing its confidence from a Minister who departs from that policy and bestowing it only on a successor who will follow its mandate and this power is dependent on the provincial elector in virtue of his freedom to control the composition of the Legislative Council by the use which he makes of his vote. No doubt this statement requires some qualification before it can be accepted as literally accurate, for, technically, the authority charged with the administration of transferred subjects is "the Governor acting with Ministers appointed under this Act," not the Ministers acting on their own initiative, and, further the Governor, who is not, of course, subject to removal from office by the Legislative Council, is charged personally with responsibility for the peace and tranquillity of his province, and would be entitled, and indeed bound, to recommend the removal of a department from the transferred list if he found the legislature bent on pursuing a policy in its administration which, in his judgment, was incompatible

with the maintenance of peace and tranquillity; yet the powers of control vested in the Legislative Council over the transferred sphere are undoubtedly great, and it was the opinion at all events of the Joint Select Committee that legislature and Ministers should be allowed to exercise them with the greatest possible freedom. "If after hearing all the arguments," observed the Committee, "Ministers should decide not to adopt his advice, then in the opinion of the Committee the Governor should ordinarily allow Ministers to have their way, fixing the responsibility upon them, even if it may subsequently be necessary for him to vote any particular piece of legislation. It is not possible but that in India, as in all other countries, mistakes will be made by Ministers acting with the approval of a majority of the Legislative Council, but there is no way of learning except through experience and the realisation of responsibility."

Provision of Funds—The terms of the Act leave the apportionment of the provincial revenues between the two halves of the executive for the financing of reserved and transferred subjects respectively to be settled by rules, merely providing that rules may be made "for the allocation of revenues or moneys for the purpose of such administration," i.e., the "administration of transferred subjects by the Governor acting with Ministers". Probably the best description available of the method adopted by the rules for the settlement of this matter is the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee whose proposals have been followed with one modification only to enable the Governor to revoke at any time, at the desire of his Council and Ministers an "order of allocation" or to modify it in accordance with their joint wishes. The passage is as follows—

"The Committee have given much attention to the difficult question of the principle on which the provincial revenues and balances should be distributed between the two sides of the provincial governments. They are confident that the problem can readily be solved by the simple process of common sense and reasonable give-and-take, but they are aware that this question might, in certain circumstances, become the cause of much friction in the provincial government, and they

are of opinion that the rules governing the allocation of these revenues and balances should be framed so as to make the existence of such friction impossible. They advise that, if the Governor, in the course of preparing either his first or any subsequent budget, find that there is likely to be a serious or protracted difference of opinion between the Executive Council and his Ministers on this subject he should be empowered at once to make an allocation of revenue and balances between the reserved and transferred subjects which should continue for at least the whole life of the existing Legislative Council. The Committee do not endorse the suggestion that certain sources of revenue should be allocated to reserved and certain sources to transferred subjects, but they recommend that the Governor should allocate a definite proportion of the revenue, say, by way of illustration, two-thirds to reserved and one-third to transferred subjects, and similarly a proportion, though not necessarily the same fraction of the balances. If the Governor desires assistance in making the allocation, he should be allowed at his discretion to refer the question to be decided to such authority as the Governor-General shall appoint. Further, the Committee are of opinion that it should be laid down from the first that, until an agreement which both sides of the Government will equally support has been reached, or until an allocation has been made by the Governor, the total provisions of the different expenditure heads in the budget of the province for the preceding financial year shall hold good.

"The Committee desire that the relation of the two sides of the Government in this matter as in all others, should be of such mutual sympathy that each will be able to assist and influence for the common good the work of the other, but not to exercise control over it. The budget should not be capable of being used as a means for enabling Ministers or a majority of the Legislative Council to direct the policy of reserved subjects; but on the other hand the Executive Council should be helpful to Ministers in their desire to develop the departments entrusted to their care. On the Governor personally will devolve the task of holding the balance between the legitimate needs of both sets of his advisers."

THE CENTRAL

The structural changes made by the Act of 1919 in the system of government outside the "Governors' provinces" are of comparatively minor scope, though the spirit of the Act requires, as has already been shown, considerable modification of the relationship hitherto subsisting between the Provincial Governments on the one hand and the Government of India and the Secretary of State in Council on the other. The only concrete changes made in the constitution of the Central Government are the removal of the statutory bar to the appointment of more than six members of the Governor-General's Executive Council (which, however, has had the far-reaching consequence that three of the eight members of the Council are now Indians), and the reconstitution in a much more enlarged representative and independent form of the central legisla-

GOVERNMENT.

It has already been observed that this body was, in origin, like all other legislative bodies in India, the Governor-General's Executive Council with the addition of certain "additional members" appointed to assist the Executive Council in the formulation of legislation. Despite its steady growth in size and influence, and despite the introduction of the elective system, the existence of "additional members," who of course under Lord Morley's Act greatly preponderated in numbers over the members proper, i.e., the Executive Councillors, still persisted up to the passing of the Act of 1919. That Act, however, has entirely remodelled the "Indian Legislature," as it is now called, which has become, like the Legislative Council in a Governor's province a legislature with all the inherent powers ordinarily attributed to such a body save such

are specifically withheld by the terms of the Act. It consists of two Chambers. The "Council of State" contains 60 members, of whom 34 are elected (including one member to represent Bihar, who, though technically nominated, is nominated as the result of elections held in Bihar) and 26 nominated, of whom not more than 20 may be officials. The "Legislative Assembly" consists of 143 members, of whom 107 are elected (including in the case of the Council of State, one Bihar member who, though actually elected, is technically a nominee). Of the 40 nominated members, not fewer than one third are required to be non-officials. The members of the Governor-General's Legislative Council are not *ex-officio* members of either Chamber, but each of them has to be appointed a member of one or other Chamber and can vote only in the Chamber of which he is a member. Any member of the Legislative Council may, however, speak in either Chamber. The President of the Upper Chamber is a nominee of the Governor-General, as also, for the first four years after the constitution of the Chamber, was the President of the Legislative Assembly. But after that period the Lower Chamber elected its own President, and it elects its own Deputy-President from the outset. The normal lifetime of each Council of State is five years, and of each Legislative Assembly three years, but either Chamber, or both simultaneously, may be dissolved at any time by the Governor-General.

Election.—The method of election for both Chambers is direct, and although the number of electors is considerably smaller than for the Provincial Councils, it is a great advance on the very restricted and for the most part indirect franchise established under the Act of 1909 for the unicameral central legislature which no longer exists. Generally speaking, the electoral scheme for the Lower Chamber is on the same model as that for the Provincial Councils already described except that, *firstly*, the property qualification for voters (and consequently for candidates) is higher in order to obtain manageable constituencies, and *part* service with the colours is not *per se* a qualification for the franchise, and *secondly*, that the constituencies necessarily cover a considerably larger area than constituencies for the Provincial Council. The distribution of seats in both Chambers, and the arrangement of constituencies, are on a provincial basis; that is a fixed number of the elective seats in each Chamber is assigned to representatives of each province, and these representatives are elected by constituencies covering an assigned area of the province.

The following table shows the allotment of the elective seats:—

	Legislative Assembly.	Council of State.
Madras	10	5
Bombay	10	6
Bengal	17	6
United Provinces	10	5
Punjab	12	4
Bihar and Orissa	12	3
Central Provinces	6	2
Assam	4	1
North-West Frontier Province

Bihar	4	2
Delhi	1	..
	<u>100</u>	<u>34</u>

Since the area which returns perhaps 80 members to a Provincial Council is the same as the area which returns perhaps 12 members to the Legislative Assembly—namely, the entire province in each case—it follows that on the direct election system this area must be split into constituencies which are much larger than the constituencies for the local Councils, and just as it is generally correct to say that the normal area unit for the rural constituencies for the latter which are arranged on a territorial basis is the district, it may be said that the normal area unit in the case of the Legislative Assembly is the Division (the territorial unit for the administrative group of districts controlled by a Divisional Commissioner).

The Franchise.—The general result of the first franchise arrangements under the Act is thus that there is in each province a body of electors qualified to vote for, and stand for election to, the Provincial Council, and that a fixed number of the electors are qualified to vote for and stand for election to their seats in the Legislative Assembly which are assigned to the province. The qualifications for candidature for the Legislative Assembly are the same in each province, *mutatis mutandis*, as for candidature for the Provincial Council, except that in all provinces, so long as the candidate can show that he resides somewhere within the province, no closer connection with his particular constituency is insisted upon.

The franchise for the Council of State differs in character from that for the Provincial Council and the Legislative Assembly. The concern of the framers of the Act and rules was to secure for the membership of this body a character as closely as possible approximating to a "Senate of Elder Statesmen," and thus to constitute a body capable of performing the function of a true revising Chamber. With this object, in addition and as an alternative to a high property qualification—adopted as a rough and ready method of enfranchising only persons with a stake in the country—the rules admit as qualifications certain personal attributes which are likely to connote the possession of some past administrative experience or a high standard of intellectual attainment. Examples of these qualifications are past membership of either Chamber of the Legislature as now constituted, or of its predecessor, or of the Provincial Council, the holding of high office in local bodies (district boards, municipalities and corporations), membership of the governing bodies of Universities, and the holding of titles conferred in recognition of Indian classical learning and literature.

Powers.—The powers and duties of the Indian legislature differ but little in character within the "central" sphere from those of the provincial Councils within their provincial sphere, and it has acquired the same right of voting supplies for the Central Government. But as no direct attempt has yet been made to introduce responsible government at the centre, the step in that direction having been avowedly confined to the provinces and as consequently the Executive Government of India remains equally responsible as a whole for the proper fulfil-

ment of its charge to the Secretary of State and Parliament, it follows that the powers conferred on provincial Governors to disregard an adverse vote of the Legislative Council on legislation or supplies are, as conferred on the Governor-

General in his relationship with the Indian Legislature, less restricted in their operation than in the provinces; that is to say, they cover the whole field and are not confined in their application to categories of subjects.

THE INDIA OFFICE.

The Act makes no structural changes in the part played by the India Office in the administration of Indian affairs. Slight alterations have been effected in the number and tenure of office of the members of the Secretary of State's Council, and some relaxations have been made in the statutory rigidity which formerly bound their procedure and that of the Office in general. But provisions now exist which will undoubtedly as time goes on have a material effect on the activities of the Office as it is now constituted. A High Commissioner for India has been appointed for the purpose of taking over, as the direct agent of the Government of India, that portion of India Office functions which is of the nature of agency, as distinct from administrative supervision and control. The process of separation of staff and functions for the purpose of this transfer will necessarily be somewhat slow, but a substantial beginning has been made by handing over to the direct control of the High Commissioner the large departments which are concerned with the ordering and supply of stores and stationery in England for Government use in India, with the payment of pensions to retired members of Indian services resident in

the United Kingdom, and with the assistance of Indian students in England. Concurrently with this change, it is now possible to defray from British revenues the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and that portion of the cost of salaries of India Office staff and general maintenance which is attributable to the exercise of its administrative as distinct from purely agency functions.

In due course the apportionment to British estimates will be the cost of the India Office as it exists after the transfer of functions to the High Commissioner has been completely effected, then the salaries of the High Commissioner and his staff will be the only expenses in the United Kingdom chargeable to Indian revenues. Until that time arrives, however, an estimate was the only basis for settlement, and for five years from 1920-21, the cost of the India Office payable from British revenues has been fixed at 136,500*l.*, which includes the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and a contribution of 40,000*l.*, which has for some years been made by the Treasury towards Indian expenditure, as the result of the recommendations of the Welby Commission.

PERSONNEL AND PROCEDURE.

The Governor-General and the "Executive" members of his Council are appointed by the Crown. No limit of time is specified for their tenure of office, but custom has fixed it at five years. There are seven Executive Members of Council. These Members hold respectively the portfolios of Education, Health and Land; Home, Finance, Commerce & Railways, Industries and Labour, Law. The Viceroy acts as his own member in charge of Foreign affairs. Railways are administered by a Chief Commissioner with the assistance of a Railway Board; and are for administrative purposes grouped under the aegis of the Railways Department. The Commander-in-Chief may also be and in practice always is, an "Ordinary" member of the Council. He holds charge of the Army Department. The Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal become "extraordinary" members if the Council meets within their Presidencies. The Council may assemble at any place in India which the Governor-General appoints. In practice it meets only in Delhi and Simla except for a meeting or two in Calcutta after Christmas, when the Viceroy is usually in residence in the Bengal Capital.

In regard to his own Department each Member of Council is largely in the position of a Minister of State, and has the final voice in ordinary departmental matters. But any question of special importance, and any matter in which it is proposed to over-rule the views of a Local Government, must ordinarily be referred to the Viceroy. Any matter originating in one department which also affects another must be referred to the latter, and in the event of the Departments not being able to agree, the case is re-

ferred to the Viceroy. The Members of Council meet periodically as a Cabinet—ordinarily once or twice a week—to discuss questions which the Viceroy desires to put before them, or which a member who has been over-ruled by the Viceroy has asked to be referred to Council. If there is a difference of opinion in the Council the decision of the majority ordinarily prevails, but the Viceroy can over-rule a majority if he considers that the matter is of such grave importance as to justify such a step. Each departmental office is in the subordinate charge of a Secretary, whose position corresponds very much to that of a permanent Under-Secretary of State in the United Kingdom, but with these differences—that the Secretary is present though does not speak, at Council meetings at which cases under his cognisance are discussed: that he attends on the Viceroy, usually once a week, and discusses with him all matters of importance arising in his Department; that he has the right of bringing to the Viceroy's special notice any case in which he considers that the Viceroy's concurrence should be obtained to action proposed by the Departmental Member of Council, and that his tenure of office is usually limited to three years. The Secretaries have under them Deputy, Under and Assistant Secretaries, together with the ordinary clerical establishments. The Secretaries and Under-Secretaries are often, though by no means exclusively, members of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of India has no Civil Service of its own as distinct from that of the Provincial Governments, and officers serving under the Government of India are borrowed from the Provinces, or, in the case of Specialist recruited direct by contract.

Staff Officer to the Military Adviser-in-Chief, Indian States Forces, Major H C James, M O
Superintendents, L Leicester, I S O (on leave) Rai Bahadur Ramp Das Dhamejah, K P, (on deputation) Dewar (on deputation), Rai Sahib A K Kaul, Rao Sahib B R Subramaniam, G A Heron I S Gonsalves, M O Dover, (on leave) Sardar Sahib Sundar Singh Chhabra, A J Courtney, (on deputation), (offg), S N Chatterjee, M A, (offg) J M Mathews, (offg), T A Coates, (offg), U N Biswas, M A, (offg), A N B Nisai, M A, (offg), and L H Spinks, (offg)

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

Secretary, The Hon'ble T A Stewart, ICS
Joint Secretary, H Dow, CIE, ICS
Deputy Secretary, H S Malik, ICS
Secretary Indian Accountancy Bd, M L Tannan, IES, Bar-at-Law
Assistant Secretary, Rai Sahib Ladi Pershad, BA (on leave), Rai Sahib A N Puri, BA, LLB (offg)
Assistant Secretary, G Corley Smith, MBE
Chief Engineer, Lighthouse Department and Chief Inspector of Lighthouses in British India, J Oswald, M Inst CE.
Nautical Advisers to the Government of India
 Capt E V Whish, OBE, RIM, (Retd)
Chief Surveyor with the Government of India
 Engr Capt J S Page, RIM
Engineer, Lighthouse Department and Inspector of Lighthouses in British India, A N Seal, BSC
Actuary to the Government of India, N Mukerji, MA, B.L., AIA
Officer, on Special Duty—Sudh C Sen, MSc, B.L., Attorney-at-Law

POST AND TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

Director-General, G V Dewool, CIE, ICS

RAILWAY DEPARTMENT (RAILWAY BOARD)

HEADQUARTERS (SIMLA & DELHI)

Chief Commissioner, Sir Guthrie Russell
Financial Commissioner, P R Rau
Member, A L Tylden-Pattenson
Director of Mechanical Engineering, J M D Wrench, CIE
Director of Traffic, F D'Souza
Director of Establishment, R B Matha Das
Director of Finance, T S Sankara Aiyar
Director (Civil Engineering), Lt-Col H. L Woolhouse, M C, RE
Secretary, L H Kirkness, DSO, OBE, VD, MA
Deputy Director (Establishment), T W O Holt
Deputy Director, Traffic (Commercial), H M J. giani.

Deputy Director Traffic (Transportation), Khan Sahib Z H Khan
Deputy Director (Finance), Khan Bahadur Barkat Ali
Deputy Director, Mechanical Engineering, T. G Creighton
Supervisor of Railway Labour, K M Hassan.
Assistant Secretary, H W C C Smith
Timber Advisory Officer, C W Scott, I.F.S.
Officer on Special Duty, M E Bartley
Chief Controller of Standards, J M D Wrench, CIE
Deputy Chief Controller of Standards, L H Swain.
Assistant Chief Controller of Standards, L S Cave
Chief Mechanical Draftsman, T T Lambe
Chief Struc Draftsman J V S Edwards
Superintendents, J S Sequeira (Traffic), K S Raghavan (Finance), Rai Sahib Kishori Lal (Budget), Rai Sahib S L Pures (Establishment), Baldeo Sahay Molhon (Stores) and E Carlson (Works)
Assistant-in-charge, Diwanchand

LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

Secretary, Sir Lancelot Graham, K CIE, ICS, Bar-at-Law
Joint Secretary and Draftsman, Mr B N Rau, CIE ICS
Deputy Secretary, G H Spence, CIE, ICS
Assistant Secretary, Rai Amrita La'a Banerjee Bahadur, BA
Assistant Secretary, A W Chick
Superintendents, L E James, A K Gupta, BA

SOLICITORS BRANCH

Solicitor, A Kirke Smith
2nd Solicitor, S Webb-Johnson, OBE
Asst Solicitor, S N Mushran, Bar-at Law.

SURVEY OF INDIA

Col H J Couchman, DSO, MC

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA

Director, L Leigh Fermor, OBE, ARSV, DSC (London), FGS, FASB, M Inst MM, FRSS
Superintendents, A M Heron, DSC (Edin), FGS, FRGS, IRES, C B Roy, DSI (Birm), MI Min L, FGS, and L L G Clegg, BSc (Manch)
Assistant Superintendents, H Crookshank, BA, BA (Dub), E J Bradshaw, BA, LAI, (Dub) MSc (Cahforma); A L Coulson, DSO (Melb), DIC, FGS, D N. Ward, MA, DSO (Bonn), FGS, FGS, J. A Dunn, DSO (Melb), DIC, FGS, C T Barber, MSc (Birm), FGS, M Inst, PT, E R Gee, MA (Cantab), FGS, W. D West, MA. (Cantab), M S Krishnan, MI (Madras), ARCS, DIC Ph D (London); J B Anden, MA. (Cantab), V P Sondhi, MSc (Punjab), FGS, H L Chhabber, DSc (Punjab), FGS, FGS, P K Ghosh, MSc (Cal), DIC, DSc (Lond), M R Sahni, MA, (Cantab), DSc (Lond), DIC.

BOTANICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

Director, C C Calder, B Sc, B Sc (Agr), I B S
 I R I S, also Superintendent, Royal Botanic
 Garden, Sipur, and Superintendent, Cinchona
 Cultivation, Bengal, Curator, Industrial
 Section, Indian Museum, B N Pal, M Sc,
 Ph D, Systematic Assistant, V Narayana-
 swami, M A, Superintendent, Cinchona
 Cultivation in Burma, P T Russell (on leave)
 Offg Supdt G H Rothargill

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Director General of Archaeology, J T Bickiston,
 Deputy Director General, Khan Bahadur
 Maulvi Zafar Hasan, B A, Superintendent,
 Archaeological Section, Indian Museum
 and in charge Eastern Circle, K N Dikshit,
 M A, Superintendent, Archaeological Survey,
 Burma Circle, G C Chaudra, A I A,
 Superintendent, Archaeological Survey
 Central Circle, U M A, Superintendent
 Archaeological Survey, Western Circle
 M S Vats, M A, Superintendent, Archaeo-
 logical Survey, Southern Circle, Hasan Hayat
 Khan, A R I B A, Superintendent, Archaeo-
 logical Survey, Northern Circle, Mohammad
 Hamid Kurashin, B A, Officiating Superin-
 tendent, Archaeological Survey, Frontier
 Circle, Dr Mohd Nazim, M A, Ph D
 (Cantab), Archaeological Chemist in India,
 Khan Bahadur Mohd Sana Ullah, M Sc,
 I S C, Government Epigraphist for India
 Dr N P Chakravarti, M A, Ph D,
 Superintendent for Epigraphy C R
 Krishnamachari, B A, Assistant Superin-
 tendent for Epigraphy, Vacant, Assistant
 Superintendent, Archaeological Section,
 Indian Museum, N G Majumdar, M A,
 Assistant Superintendent, Archaeological
 Survey, Central India and Rajputana,
 H L Srivastava, M A, Assistant Superin-
 tendent, Archaeological Survey, Western
 Circle, Q M Moncer, B A, Assistant
 Superintendent, Archaeological Survey,
 Central Circle, Vacant, Assistant
 Superintendent, Archaeological Survey,
 Leave Reserve, Vacant, Curator Central
 Asian Antiquities Museum, Dr M A
 Hamid, Ph D, M Sc, I S C, Assistant
 Engineer, Dr K A A Ansari, Ph D, C E,
 Officer on Special Duty, Sir John Marshall,
 Kt, C I E, Litt D, I S A

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS

Director-General, Indian Medical Service,
 (Officiating), Major-General G A Sprawson,
 C I E, I M S

Public Health Commissioner with the Government
 of India, Lt-Col A J H Russell, C B E,
 I M S.

Deputy Director-General, Indian Medical Ser-
 vice, Lt-Col G G Jolly, C I E

Assistant Director-General, Indian Medical
 Service, Lieut-Col R Smeeth, D S O, I M S

Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli,
 Lt-Col J Taylor, D S O, M D, D P H,
 I M S

Offg Assistant Director, Central Research Insti-
 tute, Kasauli, Major W. J. Webster, M. O, M D.

Director-General of Observatories, Poona, C. W. D.
 Norrmand, M A, D Sc.

Director, Kodanjal and Madras Observatories,
 Thomas Royds, D Sc

Meteorologist, Bombay Observatory, Dr S C.
 Ray, D Sc

Librarian, Imperial Library, Calcutta, K. M
 Asadullahi, B A, I S A

Director, Zoological Survey of India, Indian
 Museum, Dr Bunt Prasad, D Sc

Master, Security Printing, Nani Road, Major
 D Fitz John I Rytmarwick

Director, Intelligence Bureau, Sir Horace William-
 son, Kt, C I I

Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and
 Statistics, D. B. Meek.

Deputy Director-General of Commercial Intelli-
 gence and Statistics, Rai Brindar D N
 Banerji, B A

Controller of Patents and Designs, K Rama Pal,
 M A.

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF BENGAL
WILLIAM IN BENGAL

Name	Assumed charge of office.
Warren Hastings ..	20 Oct. 1774
Sir John Macpherson, Bart. ..	8 Feb. 1785
Earl Cornwallis, K G (a) ..	12 Sep 1786
Sir John Shore, Bart (b) ..	28 Oct 1793
(a) Created Marquess Cornwallis, 15 Aug	1792
(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Teliamout	
Lieut-General the Hon Sir Alfred	
Clarke, K C B (offg) ..	17 Mar. 1798
The Earl of Mornington, P O (c) ..	18 May 1798
The Marquess Cornwallis, K G (2nd	
time) ..	30 July 1805
Captain L A P Anderson, Sir George	
H Barlow, Bart. ..	10 Oct 1805
Lord Minto, P C (d) ..	31 July 1807
The Earl of Moira, K G, P C (e) ..	4 Oct 1813
John Adam (offg) ..	13 Jan 1823
Lord Amherst, P O (f) ..	1. Aug ' 1823
William Butterworth Bayley (offg) ..	13 Mar 1828
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck,	
G O B, G C H, P O ..	4 July 1828
(c) Created Marquess Wellesley, 2 Dec	1799
(d) Created Earl of Minto ..	24 Feb 1813
(e) Created Marquess of Hastings 2 Dec.	1816
(f) Created Earl Amherst ..	2 Dec 1826

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C. ..	14 Nov. 1834
Sir Charles Metcalfe, Bart. (a) (<i>offg</i>)20 Mar 1835
Lord Auckland, G.C.B., P.C. (b) .	4 Mar. 1836
Lord Ellenborough, P.C. (c) ..	28 Feb 1842
William Wilberforce Bird (<i>offg</i>).	15 June 1844
The Right Hon. Sir Henry Hardinge, G.C.B. (d) .	23 July 1844
The Earl of Dalhousie, P.C. (e) ..	12 Jan 1848
Viscount Canning, P.C. (f) .	29 Feb 1856
(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Metcalfe	
(b) Created Earl of Auckland, 21 Dec. 1839.	
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Ellenborough.	
(d) Created Viscount Hardinge, 2 May 1846	
(e) Created Marquess of Dalhousie, 25 Aug 1849	
(f) Afterwards (by creation) Earl Canning	

NOTE—The Governor-General ceased to be the direct Head of the Bengal Government from the 1st May, 1854, when the first Lieutenant-Governor assumed office. On 1st April 1912, Bengal was placed under a separate Governor and the appointment of Lieutenant-Governor was abolished.

VICEROYS AND GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name	Assumed charge of office.
Viscount Canning, P.C. (a) .	1 Nov. 1858
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, K.T., G.C.B., P.C. .	12 March 1862
Major-General Sir Robert Napier, K.C.B. (b) (<i>offg</i>) ..	21 Nov. 1863
Colonel Sir William T. Denison, K.C.B. (<i>offg</i>)	2 Dec 1863
The Right Hon Sir John Lawrence, Bart., G.C.B., K.C.S.I. (c) ..	12 Jan 1864
The Earl of Mayo, K.P. ..	12 Jan. 1869
John Strachey (d) (<i>offg</i>) .	9 Feb. 1872

Lord Napier of Merchiston, K.T. (e) (<i>offg</i>)	23 Feb 1872
Lord Northbrook, P.C. (f) .	3 May 1872
Lord Lytton, G.C.B. (g) .	..12 Apl 1876
The Marquess of Ripon, K.G., P.C.	8 June 1880
The Earl of Dufferin, K.P., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C. (h) .	13 Dec 1884
The Marquess of Lansdowne, G.C. M.G. . . .	10 Dec 1888
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, P.C. .	27 Jan 1894
Baron Curzon of Kedleston, P.C.	6 Jan 1899
Baron Ampthill (<i>offg</i>) .	30 Apl. 1904
Baron Curzon of Kedleston, P.C. (i)	13 Dec. 1904
The Earl of Minto, K.G., P.C., G.C. M.G.18 Nov. 1905
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst, P.C., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., I.S.O. (j)	23 Nov 1910
Lord Chelmsford.. .	. Apl 1916
Marquess of Reading ' .	.. Apl. 1921
Baron Irwin Apl 1926
The Earl of Willingdon .	.. Apl. 1931
(a) Created Earl Canning, 21 May 1859	
(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Magdala.	
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lawrence.	
(d) Afterwards Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.	
(e) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Ettrick	
(f) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Northbrook	
(g) Created Earl of Lytton, 28 April 1880	
(h) Created Marquis of Dufferin and Ava. 12 Nov 1888	
(i) Created an Earl .. .	June 1911.
(j) During tenure of office, the Viceroy is Grand Master and First and Principal Knight of the two Indian Orders (G.M.S.I. and G.M.I.E.) On quitting office, he becomes G.C.S.I. and G.C.I.E., with the date of his assumption of the Viceroyalty.	

(7) The demands voted by the legislative assembly shall be submitted to the Governor-General in Council, who shall, if he declares that he is satisfied that any demand which has been refused by the legislative assembly is or entitled to the discharge of his responsibilities, act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the rejection of the amount therein referred to, by the legislative assembly.

(8) Notwithstanding anything in this section the Governor-General shall have power, in cases of emergency, to authorise such expenditure as may, in his opinion, be necessary for the safety or tranquillity of British India or any part thereof.

26. **FINANCIAL POWERS.**—(1) Where either chamber of the Indian Legislature refuses to introduce or fails to pass in a form recommended by the Governor-General any Bill, the Governor-General may certify that the passage of the Bill is essential for the safety, tranquillity or interests of British India or any part thereof, and thereupon—

(a) if the Bill has already been passed by the other chamber, the Bill shall, on signature by the Governor-General, notwithstanding that it has not been assented to by both chambers, forthwith become an Act of the Indian Legislature in the form of the Bill as originally introduced or proposed to be introduced in the Indian Legislature, or (as the case may be) in the form recommended by the Governor-General; and

(b) if the Bill has not already been so passed, the Bill shall be laid before the other chamber, and, if assented to by that chamber in the form recommended by the Governor-General, shall become an Act as aforesaid on the signature of the Governor-General's assent, or, if not so assented to shall, on signature by the Governor-General, become an Act as aforesaid.

(2) Every such Act shall be expressed to be made by the Governor-General and shall, as soon as practicable after being made, be laid before both Houses of Parliament, and shall not have effect until it has received His Majesty's

assent, and shall not be presented for His Majesty's assent until copies thereof have been laid before each House of Parliament for not less than eight days on which that House has sat; and upon the signification of such assent by His Majesty in Council and the notification thereof by the Governor-General, the Act shall have the same force and effect as an Act passed by the Indian Legislature and duly assented to.

Provided that, where in the opinion of the Governor-General a state of emergency exists which justifies such action, the Governor-General may direct that any such Act shall come into operation forthwith, and thereupon the Act shall have such force and effect as aforesaid, subject, however, to disallowance by His Majesty in Council.

27. **SUPPLEMENTAL PROVISIONS.**—(1) In addition to the measures referred to in sub-section (2) of section sixty-seven of the principal Act, as requiring the previous sanction of the Governor-General it shall not be lawful without such previous sanction to introduce at any meeting of either chamber of the Indian Legislature any measure—

(a) regulating any provincial subject, or any part of a provincial subject, which has not been declared by rules under the principal Act to be subject to legislation by the Indian Legislature,

(b) repealing or amending any Act of a local legislature,

(c) repealing or amending any Act or ordinance made by the Governor-General.

(2) Where in either chamber of the Indian Legislature any Bill has been introduced or is proposed to be introduced, or any amendment to a Bill is moved, or proposed to be moved, the Governor-General may certify that the Bill or any clause of it, or the amendment affects the safety or tranquillity of British India, or any part thereof, and may direct that no proceedings, or that no further proceedings, shall be taken by the chamber in relation to the Bill, clause, or amendment and effect shall be given to such direction.

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

President.—The Hon Sir Abdur Rahim, K O S I

Deputy President.—Mr Abdul Matin Chaudhury.

A. ELECTED MEMBERS (105).

Constituency.	Name.
Madras City (Non-Muhammadan Urban)	Mr S Satyamurthi
Ganjam cum Vizagapatam (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr V. V. Giri
Godavari cum Kistna (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr K Nageswara Rao
Guntur cum Nellore (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr N G Ranga Ayyangar
Madras ceded districts and Chittoor (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr M Ananthasayanam.
Salem and Coimbatore cum North Arcot (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr T S Avinashalingam Chettiar
South Arcot cum Chingleput (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr C N Muthuranga Mudaliar
Tanjore cum Trichmopoly (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Dr T S S Rajan
Madura and Ramnad cum Tinnevely (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr P S Kymaraswami Raju
West Coast and Nilgiris (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Samuel Aaron.
North Madras (Muhammadan) . . .	Mr Umashiba
South Madras (Muhammadan) . . .	Moulvi Sayyid Murtuza Saheb Bahadur
West Coast and Nilgiris (Muhammadan)	Haji Abdul Sathar H Esak Sait
Madras (European)	Mr F E James
Madras Landholders . . .	Raja Su Vasudeva Rajah of Kallengode, Kt C I E
Madras Indian Commerce . . .	Mr R Ry Sami Vencatachalam Chetty Garu
Bombay City (Non-Muhammadan Urban)	Dr G V Deshmukh
Ditto	Sir Cowasji Jehangir, K C I E, O B E.
Sind (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Diwan Lalchand Navabhai
Bombay Northern Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Bhulabhai Jivaji Desai
Bombay Central Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Ahmed Ebrahim Haroon Jaffer
Bombay Central Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Keshavrao Marutnau Jodhe
Ditto	Mr N V. Gadgil
Bombay Southern Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr S K Hosmani
Bombay City (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr M A Jinnah
Sind (Muhammadan Rural)	Seth Haji Abdulla Haroon
Ditto . . .	Mr Nabi Baksh Illahi Baksh Bhatta.
Bombay (European) . . .	Mr W B Hossack
Ditto . . .	Sir Leslie Hudson, Kt
The Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau (Indian Commerce)	Mr. Mathuradas Vissaji,
Sind Jagirdars and Zamindars (Landholders) . .	Sir Ghulam Hussain Hidayatullah.

Constituency	Name
Bombay Millowners' Association (Indian Commerce). **	Mr Hormusji Peeroshaw Mody.
Calcutta (Non-Muhammadian Urban) .	Mr Sarat Chandra Bose
Calcutta Suburbs (Non-Muhammadian Urban) .	Dr P N Banerjee
Burdwan Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) .	
Presidency Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Pandit Lakshmi Kanta Maitra
Dacca Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) .	Mr Suryya Kumar Som
Chittagong and Rajshahi Divisions (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Akhil Chandra Datta
Calcutta and Suburbs (Muhammadian Urban)	Sir Abdur Rahim, K C S I, Kt.
Burdwan and Presidency Divisions (Muhammadian Rural)	
Dacca cum Mymensingh (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr A H Ghuznavi
Bakarganj cum Faridpur (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr. A K Fuzlul Huq
Chittagong Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Md Anwarul Azim
Rajshahi Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr M A Baqui
Bengal (European)	Sir Darcy Lindsay, Kt, C B E
Do	Mr J A Milligan
Do.	Mr G Morgan, C I E
Bengal Landholders	Mr Dharendra Kanta Lahuri Chaudhury
Marwari Association, (Indian Commerce)	Babu Bajnath Bajoria
Cities of the United Provinces (Non-Muhammadian Urban)	Dr Bhagavan Das
Meerut Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) .	Chondhri Raghubir Narain Singh
Agra Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Pundit Sri Krishna Dutta Paliwal
Rohilkund and Kumaon Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Pundit Govind Ballabh Pant
Allahabad and Jhansi Divisions (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Sri Prakasa
Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions (Non-Muhammadian Rural)	Munshi Iswar Saran
Lucknow Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) .	Shri Mohan Lal Saxena.
Fyzabad Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) .	Sirdar Jogendra Singh
Cities of the United Provinces (Muhammadian Urban).	Maulana Shankat Ali
Meerut Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Qazi Mohammad Ahmad Kazmi.
Agra Division (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Mr T A K Sherwani
Rohilkund and Kumaon Divisions (Muhammadian Rural)	Maulvi Sir Muhammad Yakub, Kt
United Provinces Southern Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Dr Zia-ud-Din Ahmed, C I E
Lucknow and Fyzabad Divisions (Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Mohammed Aslam Ali.
United Provinces (European) ..	Mr J R Scott
United Provinces Landholders ..	Mr Vijaya Anand Gajapati
Ambala Division (Non-Muhammadian) .	Bhai Parmanand.
West Punjab (Non-Muhammadian)	Lala Sham Lal
Jullundur Division (Non-Muhammadian)	Lala Faqir Chand

Constituency.	Name.
East Punjab (Muhammadan) ..	Syed Ghulam Bhuk Nairang.
East Central Punjab (Muhammadan)	Mr K L Ganba.
West Central Punjab (Muhammadan) ..	Mr H M Abdullah
North Punjab (Muhammadan)	Nawab Sahibzada Sayad Sir Mohammad Meh Shah, Kt
North-West Punjab (Muhammadan) ..	Khan Sahib Shalk Fazal-i-Haq Piracha.
South-West Punjab (Muhammadan) ..	Khan Bahadur Makhdum Sayad Rajan Bakhs Shah
East Punjab (Sikh)	Sirdar Mangal Singh.
West Punjab (Sikh) ..	Sardar Sant Singh
Punjab Landholders	Mr M Ghiasuddin
Darbhanga cum Saran (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr. Satya Narain Singh.
Muzaffarpur cum Champaran (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr Bepin Bihari Varma.
Orissa Division (Non-Muhammadan)	Pandit Nilakantha Das.
Do do	Mr Bhubananda Das
Patna cum Shahabad (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Mr Anugrah Narayan Sinha.
Gaya cum Monghyr (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Mr Shri Krishna Sinha.
Bhagalpur, Purnea and the Santhal Parganas (Non-Muhammadan).	Mr. Deep Narayan Sing.
Chota Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Babu Ram Narayan Singh
Patna and Chota Nagpur cum Orissa (Muhammadan).	Mr Muhammad Nauman.
Bhagalpur Division (Muhammadan) .	Moulvi Badl-uz-Zaman.
Tribut Division (Muhammadan) ..	Moulvi Muhammad Shafce Daoodi.
Bihar and Orissa Landholders	Mr Raja Harihar Prasad Narayan Singh
Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Dr Khare
Central Provinces Hindi Divisions (Non-Muhammadan).	Seth Govind Das
Do. do	Mr Ghansham Singh Gupta.
Central Provinces (Muhammadan) ..	Khan Sahib Nawab Siddique Ali Khan.
Central Provinces Landholders ..	Seth Sheodass Daga
Assam Valley (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Mr Sriyut Nabu Chandra Bardaloi.
Surma Valley cum Shillong (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr Basanta Kumar Das
Assam (Muhammadan)	Mr Abdul Matin Chaudhury
Assam (European)	Mr F W Hockenull.
Burma (Non-European)	U Thein Maung.
Do. . . .	Dr Thein Maung
Do	U Ba Si
Burma (European)	Mr W J C. Richards
Delhi (General)	Mr Asaf Ali
Ajmer-Merwara (General)	Rai Bahadur Seth Bhagchand Soni.
North-West Frontier Province (General) ..	Dr Khan Sahib

Province or body represented.	Name.
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NOMINATED MEMBERS—INCLUDING THE PRESIDENT (41)

(a) OFFICIAL MEMBERS (26)

Government of India	The Hon Chandhuri Muhammad Zafrulla Khan.
Do.	. . .	The Hon Sir Frank Noyce, Kt, CSI, CIL
Do.	. . .	The Hon Sir Nilpendra Nath Sircar, Kt
Do.	. . .	The Hon Sir James Grigg, KCB
Do.	. . .	The Hon Sir Henry Craik, KCSI
Do.	. . .	Mr. P R Ban
Do.	. . .	Mr Lancelot Graham, KCI
Do.	. . .	Mr G. S. Dey, CIL, CBI
Do.	Mr H A F Metcalfe, CSI, CIE, MVO
Do.	. . .	Mr G R F Tottenham, CIL
Do.	.. .	Mr A G Clow
Do.	Mr T Sloan, CIL
Do.	Mr A J Rajaman, CIE
Do.	. . .	Mr H Dow, CIL
Do.	. . .	Mr C Govindan Nannai
Madras	. . .	Rao Bahadur A A Venkatarama Ayyar
Bombay	. . .	Mr J Monteath
Do.	. . .	Mr H K Kripplam
Bengal	. . .	Mr J M Chatterjee
Do.	Mr N R Mukharji
The Punjab	.. .	Khan Bahadur Mian Abdul Aziz, CBE.
The Central Provinces	. . .	Mr D H C Drake, CIL
Assam	Mr W I Scott, CIE.
United Provinces	.. .	Mr L Owen
Bihar & Orissa	.. .	Mr P P Shaha
Burma	.. .	Mr B W Swthbank

(b) Member representative (1) Mr M S Aney

(c) Non-Official Members (14)

Bombay	. . .	Dr R D Dalal
Delhi	. . .	Mr Asaf Ali
Bengal	.. .	Rao Bahadur Sir Satya Charan Mukherjee, Kt, CIL
The Punjab	Sardar Sir Jivahar Singh, Kt, CIL
Do.	.. .	Capt Sardar Sher Mohammad Khan, CIE, MBE
Do.	. . .	Honr Capt Rao Bahadur Lal Chand, OBE,
Do.	. . .	Nawab Malik Allah Baksh Khan Trwana, MBE
Bihar and Orissa	. . .	Mr Ramaswami Srinivasa Sastry, CIL
North West Frontier Province	Major Nawab Ahmad Nawaz Khan, CIE, OBE,
Associated Chambers of Commerce	. . .	Nawab of Dera
Indian Christian	Mr L C Bass
	Dr F X DeSouza
The Depressed Classes	. . .	Rao Bahadur Mylar Chinnathambi Rajah
Anglo-Indian Community	Lt-Col Sir H A J Gidney, Kt
Labour Interests	. . .	Mr N. M Joshi.

THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

President—The Hon'ble Sir Munckji Byramji Dadabhai, K.C.I.E., B.A., Barrister-at-Law

A—ELECTED MEMBERS (33).

Constituency.	Name
Madras (Non-Muhammadan)	Diwan Bahadur Sir S. M. Annamalai Chettiar, Kt.
Do	Mr. Yarlazidda Ringinayrulu Naidu.
Do.	Mr. V. C. Vellangiri Gounder.
Do	Diwan Bahadur G. Narayanaiah Chetti, C.I.E.
Madras (Muhammadan)	Syed Muhammad Pashai Sahib Bahadur.
Bombay (Non-Muhammadan)	Sardar Shri Jagannath Maharaj Pandit.
Do	Mr. Shantulal Ashkhar.
Do	Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, Kt., C.B.E.
Bombay Presidency (Muhammadan)	Sirdar Sahib Sir Suleman Cassum Haji Mitha, Kt., C.I.E.
Sind (Muhammadan)	Mr. Ali Dakhil Muhammad Hussain.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce	Mr. J. Miller.
East Bengal (Non-Muhammadan)	Babu Jagadish Chandra Banerjee.
West do do	Kumar Nripandra Narayan Sinha.
West do do	Mr. Satyandra Chandra Ghose Maulik.
West Bengal (Muhammadan)	Mr. Mahmood Suhrawardy.
East do do	Khan Bahadur Syed Abdul Hafeez.
Bengal Chamber of Commerce	Mr. S. D. Gladstone.
United Provinces Central (Non-Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Lala Mathura Prasad Mehrotra.
United Provinces Northern (Non-Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Lala Jagdish Prasad.
United Provinces Southern (Non-Muhammadan)	Pandit P. N. Sanyal.
United Provinces West (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Hafiz Muhammad Halim.
United Provinces East (Muhammadan)	Shahid Musfir Hosain Kidwai.
Punjab (Non-Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Saran Das, C.I.E.
Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Dule Singh.
East Punjab (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Chandra Muhammad Din.
West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Raja Ghazanfar Ali Khan.
Bihar and Orissa (Non-Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Radha Krishna Jalan.
Do.	Raja Raghunandan Prasad Singh.
Bihar and Orissa (Muhammadan)	Mr. Abu Abdullah Syed Hussain Imam.
Central Provinces (General)	Mr. V. V. Kalikar.
Assam (Non-Muhammadan)	Sgt. H. P. Barua.
Burma (General)	Mr. P. C. D. Chan.
Burma Chamber of Commerce	Mr. J. B. Glass.

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11. 11. 1944

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(1) f is a \mathbb{Q} -homomorphism

2. In Reply to the Mr. George S. Brinkman, Knapstad.

(c) Non-Official Members.

United Provinces	Sir David Kaye, Kt
Do.	D. D. Sir K. R. Menon
Bombay	Khem Bahadur Pr. Sir N. Choksy, Kt, C.I.E.
Central	Mr. Jyotsnath Ghosh, C.S.I., C.I.L.
Do.	Mr. Bijay Kumar Das
Do.	Nawab Khwaja Habibullah
Central Provinces	Sir Maneckji Byramji Dadabhai, K.C.I.E., Kt., (President)
The United Provinces	Mr. Yashwanthram
Do.	Pundit Gobind Nath Ugr
The Punjab	Raja Charanjit Singh.
Do.	Nawab Malik M'd Husayn Khan Noon, C.S.I.
North-West Frontier Provinces	Major Nawab Sir Mohamed Akbar Khan, K.B.E., C.I.E., Khan of Hoti
Bihar	Maharajah Sir Kameshwar Singh, K.C.I.E., of Darbhanga

The Bombay Presidency.

The Bombay Presidency stretches along the west coast of India, from Sind in the North to Kanara in the South. It has an area of 123,023 square miles and a population of 23,040,500. Geographically included in the Presidency but under the Government of India is the first class Native State of Baroda, with an area of 8,104 square miles and a population of 2,443,007. There are no States in political relations with the Government of Bombay, as they are all now under the Government of India.

The Presidency embraces a wide diversity of soil, climate and people. In the Presidency Proper are the rich plains of Gujarat, watered by the Nerbudda and the Tapti, whose fertility is so marked that it has long been known as the Garden of India. South of Bombay City the provinces are divided into two sections by the Western Ghats, a range of hills running parallel to the coast. Above Ghats are the Deccan Districts, south of these come the Karnatic districts. On the sea side of the Ghats is the Konkan, a rice-growing tract, intercepted by creeks which make communication difficult. Then in the far north is Sind, totally different from the Presidency Proper, a land of wide and monotonous desert except where irrigation from the Indus has brought abounding fertility. It is proposed to constitute Sind into a separate province with the coming reforms.

The People.

The population varies as markedly as soil and climate. In Sind Mahomedans predominate. Gujarat has remained true to Hinduism although long under the dominion of powerful Mahomedan kings. Here there is an amplitude of caste divisions, and a people, who although softened by prosperity, are amongst the keenest trading races in the world. The Deccan peasant has been seasoned by adversity; the saying goes that the Deccan expects a famine one year in every three, and gets it, the population is much more homogeneous than in Gujarat, and thirty per cent are Mahratias. The Karnatic is the land of the Lingayets, a Hindu reforming sect of the twelfth century, and in the Konkan there is a large proportion of Christians. Four main languages are spoken, Sindhi, Gujarati, Marathi and Kanarese, with Urdu a rough *lingua franca* where English has not penetrated. The main castes and tribes number five hundred

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports sixty-four per cent of the population. In Sind the soils are wholly alluvial, and under the influence of irrigation produce yearly increasing crops of wheat and cotton. In Gujarat they are of two classes, the black cotton soil, which yields the famous Broach cottons, the finest in India, and alluvial, which under careful cultivation in Ahmedabad and Kaira makes splendid garden land. The dominant soil characteristic of the Deccan is

black soil, which produces cotton, wheat, gram and millet, and in certain tracts rich crops of sugarcane. The Konkan is a rice land, grows under the abundant rains of the submontane regions, and in the south the Shirwar cotton vies with Broach as the best in India. There are no great perennial rivers suitable for irrigation, and the harvest is largely dependent upon the seasonal rainfall, supplemented by well irrigation. A chain of irrigation works, consisting of canals fed from great reservoirs in the region of unfailing rainfall in the Ghats, is gradually being completed, and this will ultimately make the Deccan immune to serious drought. More than any other part of India the Presidency has been scourged by famine and plague. The evils have not been unmixed, for tribulation has made the people more self-reliant, and the rise in the value of all produce, synchronising with a certain development of industry, has induced a considerable rise in the standard of living. The land is held on what is known as the *rotwari* tenure, that is to say, each cultivator holds his land direct from Government under a moderate assessment, and as long as he pays this assessment he cannot be dispossessed.

Manufactures.

Whilst agriculture is the principal industry, others have no inconsiderable place. The mineral wealth of the Presidency is small and is confined to building stone, salt extracted from the sea, and a little manganese. But the handicrafts are widely distributed. The handloom weaver produces bright-coloured saris, and to a diminishing extent the exquisite *kincoos* of Ahmedabad and Surat. Bombay silverware has a place of its own, as well as the brass work of Poona and Nashik. But the tendency is to submerge the indigenous handicrafts beneath industry organised on modern lines. Bombay is the great centre in India of the textile trade. This is chiefly found in the headquarter city, Bombay.

Number of Looms in Bombay Island.	73,200
Number of Spindles in Bombay Island	33,00,000
Number of hands employed in the Textile Industry in Bombay Island (daily average)	1,19,943
Consumption of Cotton by the Mills in Bombay Island	4,96,988
(in bales of 784 lbs)	
Number of Spindles in Ahmedabad.	19,78,314
Number of Looms in Ahmedabad	47,224
Number of Spindles in Sholapore Dist.	3,19,624
Number of Looms in Sholapore	6,000
Number of Spindles in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	31,68,106
Number of Looms in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	60,322

Great impetus has been given to Bombay-industries by the provision of electric power generated fifty miles away on the Ghats, and the year 1919 witnessed a phenomenal flotation of new industrial companies of almost every description.

The situation of Bombay on the western sea-board in touch at once with the principal markets of India and the markets of the West has given Bombay an immense sea-borne trade. The older ports, Surat, Broach, Cambay and Mandvi, were famous in the ancient days, and their bold and hardy mariners carried Indian commerce to the Persian Gulf and the coasts of Africa. But the opening of the Suez Canal and the increasing size of ocean steamers have tended to concentrate it in modern ports with deep water anchorages, and the sea-borne trade of the Presidency is now concentrated at Bombay and Karachi, although attempts are being made to develop Mormugao in Portuguese territory into an outlet for the trade of the Southern Mahratta Country, and Port Okha as a port of considerable importance for Kathiawar and Gujarat.

Administration.

The Presidency is administered by a Governor and an Executive Council of two members, with the assistance of two Ministers. The exact change made in the functions of the Provincial Governments is indicated in the section on the Provincial Governments (q v) where a description is given of the division of the administration into two branches, the Reserved Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Council and the Transferred Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Ministers, the whole Government commonly meeting and acting as one. In another part of that section the division between Reserved and Transferred subjects is shown. This new form of administration under the Reform Act of 1919 came into operation in January 1921. All papers relating to public service business reach Government through the Secretariat, divided into seven main departments, each under a Secretary (a) Finance. (b) Revenue. (c) Home and Ecclesiastical (d) Political and reforms, (e) General and Educational; (f) Legal; (g) Public Works. The senior of the Civilian Secretaries is entitled the Chief Secretary. The Government is in Bombay from November to the end of May; and in Poona from June to November, but the Secretariat is always in Bombay. Under the Governor-in-Council the Presidency is administered by four Commissioners. The Commissioner in Sind has considerable independent powers. In the Presidency Proper there are Commissioners for the Northern Division, with headquarters at Ahmedabad, the Central Division at Poona; and the Southern Division at Belgaum. Each district is under a Collector, usually a Covenanted Civilian, who has under him one or more Civilian Assistant Collectors, and one or more Deputy Collectors. A collectorate contains on an average from eight to ten talukas, each consisting of from one to two hundred villages whose whole revenues belong to the State. The village officers are the patel, who is the

head of the village both for revenue and police purpose; the talati or kulkarni, clerk and accountant; the messenger and the watchman. Over each Taluka or group of villages is the mamlatdar, who is also a subordinate magistrate. The charge of the Assistant or Deputy Collector contains three or four talukas. The Collector and Magistrate is over the whole District. The Commissioners exercise general control over the Districts in their Divisions.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to the High Court sitting in Bombay, and comprising a Chief Justice, who is a barrister, and nine puisne judges, either Civilian, Barristers, or Indian lawyers. In Sind the Court of the Judicial Commissioner (The Judicial Commissioner and three Additional Judicial Commissioners) is the highest court of civil and criminal appeal. The growing importance of Karachi and Sind has, however, necessitated the raising of the status of the Judicial Commissioner's Court and the passing of the Sind Courts Act in August 1920, which contemplates the creation of a Chief Court for Sind with a Chief Judge and three or more Puisne Judges. The Act, however, has not yet been put into effect owing to financial difficulties. Of the lower civil courts the court of the first instance is that of the Subordinate Judge recruited from the ranks of the local lawyers. The Court of first appeal is that of the District or Assistant Judge, or of a first class subordinate judge with special powers. District and Assistant Judges are Indian Civilian, or members of the Provincial Service or the Bar. In cases exceeding Rs 5,000 in value an appeal from the decision of the Subordinate or Assistant Judge and from the decision of the District Judge in all original suits lies to the High Court. District and Assistant Judges exercise criminal jurisdiction throughout the Presidency but original criminal work is chiefly disposed of by the Executive District Officers and Resident and City Magistrates. Capital sentences are subject to confirmation by the High Court. In some of the principal cities Special Magistrates exercise summary jurisdiction (Bombay has six Presidency Magistrates, as well as Honorary Magistrates exercising the functions of English Justices of the Peace) and a Court of Small Causes, corresponding to the English County Courts.

Local Government.

Local control over certain branches of the administration is secured by the constitution of local boards and municipalities, the former exercising authority over a District or a Taluka, and the latter over a city or town. These bodies are composed of members either nominated by Government or elected by the people, who are empowered to expend the funds at their disposal on education, sanitation, the construction of roads and tanks, and general improvements. Their funds are derived from cesses on the land revenue, the toll, ferry funds, and local taxes. The tendency of recent years has been to increase the elective and reduce the nominated element, to allow these bodies to elect their

own chairmen, whilst larger grants have been made from the general revenues for water supply and drainage.

The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act of 1925 works further advance in the matter of local Self-Government in the Presidency. The Act provides more adequate basis for Municipal Administration in the larger cities of the Bombay Presidency. The larger municipalities are now styled as Municipal Boroughs which are now 30 in number. The executives of these Borough Municipalities are invested with larger powers than hitherto exercised. Another important change introduced by the Act was the extension of municipal franchise to occupiers of dwellings or buildings with annual rental values of Rs 12 or with capital value of not less than Rs 200

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the control of two Chief Engineers who act as Secretaries to the Government, one for Roads, Buildings, Railways, etc., and the other for Irrigation. Under them are Superintending Engineers in charge of Circles and Executive Engineers in charge of divisions, the Consulting Architect and the Electrical Engineer. The chief irrigation works are in Sind and consist of a chain of canals fed by the annual inundations from the Indus. The Lloyds Barrage and canals project which was inaugurated in 1923 is the greatest Irrigation Scheme in the world and is designed to ensure the vast areas of fertile land in Sind a regular and constant supply of water. It will enable about 6 million acres of crops to be irrigated annually, i.e., about as much area irrigated in Egypt. The scheme is not only vital to the future of Sind but of indirect benefit to the whole of India. The whole scheme is estimated to cost over 15 million sterling or 20 crores of rupees. The Barrage was formally opened by the Viceroy and Governor General of India on 13th January 1932. In the Presidency proper there is a chain of protective irrigation works, originating in reservoirs in the Ghat regions. The principal works are the Nira Canals fed by Lake Whiting impounded by the Lloyd Dam at Bhatgar, the Pravara Canals fed by Lake Arthur Hill, impounded by Wilson Dam at Bhandardara, the Mutha Canals fed by Lake Fife at Khadakvasla, the Godavari Canals fed by Lake Beale at Nandur Madhmeshwar and the Gokak Canal. The Mutha Canals and the Gokak Canal were completed in 1896-97, the Nira Left Bank Canal in 1905-06, the Godavari Canals in 1915-16 and the Pravara Canals in 1926-27. The Nira Right Bank Canal which has been under construction since 1912 is nearing completion. The Wilson Dam at Bhandardara the second highest yet constructed by Engineers the world over was opened by His Excellency the Governor on 10th December 1926. The Lloyd Dam at Bhatgar which is 5,333 feet in length, 190 feet in height and 124 feet in width was opened by H. E. Sir Leslie Wilson on 27th October 1928. It cost Rs 172 lakhs. It is remarkable as being the largest Dam in volume hitherto constructed and contains 21½ million cubic feet of masonry. The Assuan Dam in Egypt is popularly supposed to be the largest Dam in existence but that contains 19 million

cubic feet. It cost also nearly 50 per cent more than the Lloyd Dam. An idea of the magnitude of the Lloyd Dam can be gathered from the fact that if a wall 6 feet high and 15 inches thick were constructed from the masonry in the Dam it would stretch a distance of 520 miles, say from Bombay to Nagpur. These projects will irrigate certain tracts most liable to famine.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into 3 categories, viz., District Police, Railway Police and the Bombay City Police. The District and Railway Police in the Presidency proper are for the purpose of control under the Inspector-General of Police who is assisted by three Deputy Inspectors-General, of whom two are in charge of Ranges and the third is in charge of the Criminal Investigation Department and the Finger Print Bureau. District and Railway Police in Sind are under the Deputy Inspector-General of Police for Sind, subject to the control of the Commissioner-in-Sind. The executive management of the Police in each district and on Railways in the Presidency proper, as well as in Sind is vested in a Superintendent of Police under the general direction of the Magistrate of the District concerned except in the case of the Railway Police. For the purposes of effective supervision over the investigation and prevention of crime, some of the larger districts are divided into one or more sub-divisions each under a Sub-Divisional Officer who is either an Assistant Superintendent of Police, or an Inspector of Police, a Deputy Superintendent of Police. Sub-Inspectors are the officers in charge of Police Stations and are primarily responsible under the law, for the investigation of offences reported at their Police Stations. Officers appointed directly to the posts of Assistant Superintendents of Police, Deputy Superintendents of Police, Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors undergo a course of training at the Central Police Training School at Nasik before being posted to Districts for executive duty. The Bombay City Police is a separate force under the Commissioner of Police who is directly responsible to Government.

Education.

Education is imparted partly through direct Government agency, and partly through the medium of grants-in-aid. Government maintain Arts Colleges at Bombay, Andheri, Poona, Ahmedabad and Dharwar; the Grant Medical College, the Poona College of Engineering, the Agricultural College, Veterinary College, School of Art, Law College and a College of Commerce. Most of the secondary schools are in private hands. The primary schools are maintained by Local Authorities, with a grant-in-aid. The Bombay Municipality is responsible for primary education in Bombay City- (q. v., Education).

The Quinquennial Report on Public Instruction in the Bombay Presidency for the years 1927-1932 reveals much information regarding the progress of education in recent years. The passing in 1928, of the Primary Education Act was perhaps the most important event in the history of Primary Education in the Bombay Presidency during the last 30 or 40

years whereby the control of Primary Education was transferred from the Department to the Local Authorities. Most of the Boards have prepared schemes for the expansion of education, some of them on a compulsory basis, and many boards have levied additional taxation but the finances of Government have not permitted them to perform to the full the part contemplated by the Act. The fact, however, must not be lost sight of that during the quinquennium the assignments of Government to Primary Education fell from Rs 1,21,59,848 to Rs 1,18,17,308 the decrease was mainly due to retrenchment in Government grants during 1931-32.

"Reports on Public instruction in this presidency during the last five or six years however point to the fact that there has been considerable decline in the efficiency of Primary Education since the transfer of control" says the Director of Public Instruction. "It will be seen from these reports that the factor which has militated more than any other against efficiency has been communalism." The composition of the various District Local Boards has had its effect on the working of the Primary Education Act. The majority of School Boards which came into existence developed communal tendencies and this attitude influenced the selection of the supervising and teaching staff and then transfers and promotions."

The quinquennium has been noticeable for the greater recognition given to the Educational needs of the backward classes especially in Primary Education and a very liberal system for these classes has been introduced by Government since 1921.

Lack of funds has cramped the activities of Government in the field of Primary and Secondary Education. Economy has been the dominating note of the Educational policy throughout the quinquennium. In view of the present financial stringency which precludes Government from providing additional funds for Secondary Education there would appear to be some grounds for raising the fees in Government Schools, but Government have decided not to take any action in this direction at present. In the case of Primary Education Government were compelled to apply a cut of 5 per cent to the grants payable to local authorities in 1931-32. Since then it has become necessary to increase the cut to 20 per cent. So far from it being possible to provide the funds required for the expansion of Secondary and Higher Education, it has been necessary to exercise retrenchment, and that too in directions in which it could not be applied without educational loss. As one instance only, the Director of Public Instruction mentions the discontinuance of the scheme of Medical Inspection after it had been in existence for a year. Among the chief purposes for which additional funds are required, perhaps the most important is that for additional provision for Technical and Industrial Education, including the expansion of the College of Engineering and the establishment of a Technological institution of an advanced nature. The total expenditure on Education increased from Rs 3,61,49,440 in 1926-27 to Rs 3,99,27,898 in 1931-32 or an increase of 4.7 per cent against 29.6 per cent during the last quinquennium.

The total number of institutions increased during the quinquennium from 16,211 to 17,159. Recognised institutions increased by 1,145 to 15,929 while unrecognised institutions decreased by 197 to 1,230. Of the recognised institutions 16 are Arts and 11 Professional Colleges and 686 Secondary Schools, 14,694 Primary Schools and 349 Special Schools.

The total number of recognised and unrecognised educational institutions during the year 1932-33, was 16,871 and the number of pupils 1,332,087.

Out of a total of 26,848 towns and villages 10,763 possessed schools, the average area served by each town or village with a school being 11.5 square miles. The percentage of pupils in recognised institutions to the total population of the Presidency was 5.95, in 1932-33. Of the total number of 1,332,087 pupils under instruction, 1,033,521 were boys and 298,566 were girls.

Hindu pupils in recognised institutions numbered 966,230, Muhammadans 234,146, Indian Christians 39,070, Parsis 17,903, Europeans and Anglo-Indians 5,489. The rest comprised 35,354.

The total expenditure on education in 1932-33 was Rs 381½ lakhs, of which 44.4 per cent was met from Government funds, 18.9 per cent from Board funds, 22.2 per cent from fees, and 14.7 per cent from other sources. Primary schools absorbed over Rs 205 lakhs, exclusive of expenditure on inspection, construction, and repairs.

The Educational Department is administered by a Director, with an Inspector in each Division and a Deputy or Assistant Inspector in each district.

Higher education in the Presidency is controlled by the Bombay University which was established in 1857. The constitution of the University has recently undergone, however, considerable changes in virtue of a new enactment known as the Bombay University Act of 1928. This Act altered the whole constitution of the University so as to make it adequately representative with a view to bringing into closer association with the public the industrial, commercial and civic life of the people of the Presidency to enable it to provide greater facilities for higher education in all branches of learning including Technology and to undertake on a larger scale than heretofore post-graduate teaching and research, while continuing to exercise due control over the teaching given by colleges affiliated to it from time to time. The new University Department of Chemical Technology was formally inaugurated by His Excellency the Governor of Bombay on 15th November 1933. The authorities of the University, as now constituted, are chiefly the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, the Syndicate, the Academic Council and the Senate. The Senate consisting of fellows is the supreme governing body of the University. The number of fellows is 144 of whom 40 are nominated by the Chancellor and 11 are ex-officio. The Academic Council consisting of educational experts deals with all purely academic questions. This body works in collaboration with the Syndicate which is the principal executive of the University.

The principal educational institutions are.—

Government Arts Colleges—

Elphinstone College, Bombay, Principal,
Mr. G. B. Jathar (Offg)
Ismail College, Andheri (Bombay) Principal,
Dr. M. B. Rehman, M.A. (Punjab), Ph
D (Cambridge)
Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, Principal,
G. Findlay Sherras, M.A., F.S.S. (Offg)
Karnatak College, Dharwar, Principal, Mr
A. O. Farran
Royal Institute of Science, Bombay, Principal,
Dr. Thomas S. Wheeler, F.R.C., Ph.D., F.R.S.I.

Private Arts Colleges—

St. Xavier's, Bombay (Society of Jesus)
Principal, Rev. G. Palacios, S.J.
Wilson College, Bombay (Scottish Mission)
Principal, Rev. J. Mackenzie, M.A.
Fergusson College, Poona (Deccan Educa-
tional Society), Principal, G. S. Mahajan,
M.A., B.Sc.
Baroda College, Baroda (Baroda State)
Principal, S. G. Burrow, B.Sc.
Samaldas College, Bhavnagar (Bhavnagar
State) Principal, Mr. T. K. Shahani, M.A.
Bahauddin College, Junagadh State, Principal
Mr. Charles Saldanha
Sir Parashrambhai College, Principal, R. D.
Karmarkar, Poona
M. T. B. Arts College, Surat, Principal, N. M. Shah
D. J. Sind College, Karachi, Principal, S. B.
Butani
Sind National College, Hyderabad, Principal,
B. R. Kumari.
Gokhale Education Society's H.P.T., Arts
College, Nasik, Principal, T. A. Kulkarni
Willington College, Kupwad (Sangli), Prin-
cipal, P. M. Lamaye

Private Art Colleges—

Rajaram College, Kolhapur, Principal, Dr
Balkrishna
Nowrosjee Wadia College, Poona, Principal,
K. M. Khadyo
The Lingaraj College, Belgaum, Principal,
Dr. N. C. Nandimath.
C and S College, Shikapur Sind, Principal,
G. P. Hazari, M.A., A.I.R.O.

Special Colleges—

Grant Medical College, Bombay (Govern-
ment), Dean, Major S. L. Bhatia, L.M.S.
College of Engineering, Poona (Government),
Principal, Mr. O. Graham Smith, O.B.E.
Agricultural College, Poona (Government),
Principal, V. G. Gokhale
Chiefs' College, Rajkot, Principal, Mr. A.
C. Miller, O.B.E.
Law College, Bombay, Principal, Mr. A. A.
A. Fyze, M.A., (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law
College of Commerce, Bombay, Principal,
Mr. M. J. Antia (Offg).
Veterinary College, Bombay, Principal, Mr.
V. E. Phadke, D.V.C., J.P.
Haffline Institute, Bombay, Director, Lt
Col. Sahib Singh Sokhey, I.M.S.
Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay (Govern-
ment), Director, Mr. W. E. G. Solomon
Victoria Technical Institute, Bombay, Prin-
cipal, G. W. Burley, D.Sc.

Special Colleges—

Secondary Training College, Bombay,
Principal, H. V. Hampton

Private Professional Colleges—

Sethi G. S. Medical College, Bombay, Dean
Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta,
N. E. D. Civil Engineering College, Karachi
Principal, Mr. G. W. Gokhale
Law College, Poona, Principal, Mr. J. H.
Gharpure
Sir Lalubhai Shah Law College, Ahmedabad,
Principal, Mr. D. S. Setna
Sind Collegiate Board's Law College, Karachi,
Principal, Mr. C. Lobo
Law College, Kolhapur, Principal, S. K.
Kelavkar.

Medical.

The Medical Department is in the charge of the Surgeon-General who is a member of the I.M.S., and Public Health in that of the Director of Public Health, who is usually a not I.M.S. Officer. Civil Surgeons stationed at each district headquarters are responsible for the medical work of the district, whilst sanitation is entrusted to one of the Assistant Directors of Public Health. Four large hospitals are maintained by the Government in Bombay, and the accommodation in them has been recently increased by 300 beds in one hospital and 180 beds in another hospital. A number of beds in the Bombay City had to be closed during 1931-32 owing to shortage of funds. Well equipped hospitals exist in all important up-country stations. Over 3,734,874 persons including 104,534 inpatients were treated during the year 1932. The Presidency contains 6 Lunatic Asylums and 16 institutions for the treatment of Lepers. Vaccination is carried out by a staff under the direction of the Director of Public Health. Sanitary work has received an immense stimulus from the large grants made by the Government from time to time.

Finance.

Under the Reform Scheme of 1919 Provincial Finance entered on a new phase. Before the passing of this Act Provincial finance was incorporated in Imperial Finance. The Provinces had certain heads of revenue of their own and other heads which they divided with the Government of India. By the new constitution a comparatively clean cut was made between the finances of the Government of India and those of the Provinces. Such revenues as they enjoy the Provinces enjoy in full, and in return they make cash contributions to the Government of India, fixed for a term of years. The general principle underlying this settlement is that those contributions shall gradually disappear. These contributions have now been remitted.

The Finance Member, introducing the budget estimates for 1934-35, in the Bombay Legislative Council spoke as follows:—"Sir, Government have re-organised their finances on a basis of solvency. But they realise as well as do members of this House that this is a budget of attenuation and that much has yet to be done to place their finances on a fully sound basis. The continuance of economic depression throughout the presidency is a matter of most serious concern to government and they are examining in concert with other governments in India what measures are necessary for the alleviation of the distress of the agricultural class. This is a problem which is to-day engaging the attention of all governments in the world."

Estimated Revenue for 1934-35.

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE.

		Rs
V	Land Revenue	4,77,98,000
VI	Excise	3,52,71,000
VII	Stamps	1,56,00,000
VIII	Forests	48,30,000
IX	Registration	10,20,000
IXA	Scheduled Taxes ..	18,50,000
Total ..		10,69,69,000

<i>Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment, &c</i>		
XIII	Works for which Capital Accounts are kept ..	41,25,000
XIV	Work for which no Capital Accounts are kept ..	15,63,000
Total ..		56,88,000

<i>Debt Service</i>		
XVI	Interest	1,39,83,000

<i>Civil Administration.</i>		
XVII	Administration of Justice	19,78,000
XVIII	Jails and Convict Settlements	3,40,000
XIX	Police	7,38,000
XXI	Education	10,10,000
XXII	Medical	14,94,000
XXIII	Public Health	18,08,000
XXIV	Agriculture	4,65,000
XXV	Industries	10,000
XXVI	Miscellaneous Departments	14,82,000
Total ..		99,81,000

<i>Civil Works.</i>		
XXX	Civil Works	41,72,000
XXXI	Bombay Development Scheme	7,60,000
Total ..		49,32,000

<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		
XXXII	Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	11,90,000
XXXIII	Receipts in aid of Superannuation ..	10,19,000
XXXIV	Stationery and Printing	2,60,000
XXXV	Miscellaneous	30,90,000
Total ..		55,59,000

XL	Extraordinary Receipts ..	41,70,000
Total Revenue ..		15,12,32,000

<i>Debt heads —</i>		
Deposits and advances ; Loans and advances by provincial Government Advances from provincial Loans Fund, etc ..		
		2,90,32,000
<i>Add —</i>		
	Opening Balance	96,54,000
Grand Total ..		18,99,19,000

Estimated Expenditure for 1934-35

DIRECT DEMANDS ON THE REVENUE.

		Rs.
Land Revenue		62,90,000
Excise		47,45,000
Stamps		2,30,000
Forest		32,71,000
Forest Capital outlay ..		59,000
Registration		6,28,000
Scheduled Taxes		28,000
Total ..		1,52,51,000

<i>Irrigation, Embankment, &c, Revenue Account</i>		
Interest on works for which Capital Accounts are kept ..		
		1,03,01,000
Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue		
		11,24,000
(1) Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Famine Relief fund		
		10,89,000
Total ..		1,25,14,000

<i>Debt Services</i>		
		Rs
19.	Interest on Ordinary Debt ..	2,07,51,000
20.	Interest on other obligations ..	2,27,000
21.	Reduction or avoidance of debt	4,34,000
Total ..		2,14,12,000

<i>Civil Administration.</i>		
22	General Administration ..	2,06,24,000
24.	Administration of Justice ..	69,28,000
25.	Jails and Convict Settlements ..	20,94,000
26.	Police	1,76,02,000
27.	Ports and Pilotage	7,000
30.	Scientific Department	92,000
31.	Education	1,80,22,000
32.	Medical	46,50,000
33.	Public Health	25,92,000
34.	Agriculture	25,60,000
35.	Industries	4,08,000
37	Miscellaneous Departments ..	5,47,000
Total ..		7,60,56,000

Surgeon-General—Vacant
Oriental Translator—Abdul Kadir M Hussain, J.P.
Chief Conservator of Forests—C E L Gilbert
Talukdars Settlement Officer—A H. Dracup, B A (Cantab)
Inspector-General of Registration—J P Brander, I O S
Director of Agriculture—B S Patel
Registrar of Co-operative Societies—K L Punjabi, I O S
Municipal Commissioner, Bombay—I H Taunton, I O S, (on leave), C B B Clee, (Offs)
Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University—V N Chanda varkar, Bar-at-Law
Registrar, Bombay University—S R Dongerkery, B A, LL B.
Commissioner of Police, Bombay—W R G Smith
Director of Public Health—Major A Y Dabholkar, I M S, (Officiating)
Accountant-General—P Mohan Rao, M A
Inspector-General of Prisons—Lt - Col E E Doyle, D S O, I M S.
Postmaster-General—C D Rae
Collector of Customs—M Slade, I O S
Collector of Salt Revenue—Maneklal Lalubhai (Offg)
Commissioner of Excise—J P Brander, M A, I O S
Consulting Surveyor to Government—T H G Stamper, F S I
Registrar of Companies—H O B Mitchell
Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information—J N Gennings, C B E, Bar-at-Law.
Sheriff—Sir Shapoorjee Billimoria, Kt

GOVERNORS OF BOMBAY.

Sir Abraham Shipman 1662
 Died on the island of Anjediva in Oct 1664
 Humfrey Cooke 1665
 Sir Gervase Lucas 1666
 Died, 21st May 1667
 Captain Henry Garey (Officiating) .. 1667
 Sir George Oxenden 1668
 Died in Surat, 14th July 1669.
 Gerald Auziger 1660
 Died in Surat, 30th June 1677.
 Thomas Rolt 1677
 Sir John Child, Bart. 1681
 Bartholomew Harris 1690
 Died in Surat, 10th May 1694.
 Daniel Annesley (Officiating) 1694
 Sir John Gayer 1694
 Sir Nicholas Walte.. .. 1704
 William Aislabe 1708
 Stephen Strutt (Officiating) 1715
 Charles Boone 1715
 William Phipps 1722
 Robert Cowan 1729
 Dismissed.
 John Horne 1734
 Stephen Law 1739
 John Geekie (Officiating) 1742
 William Wake 1742
 Richard Bouchier.. .. 1750
 Charles Crommelm.. .. 1760
 Thomas Hodges 1767
 Died, 23rd February 1771
 William Hornby 1771
 Rawson Hart Boddam 1784

Rawson Hart Boddam 1785
 Andrew Ramsay (Officiating) 1788
 Major-General William Medows 1788
 Major-General Sir Robert Abercromby, K C B (a). 1790
 George Dick (Officiating) 1792
 John Griffith (Officiating) 1795
 Jonathan Duncan 1795
 Died, 11th August 1811.
 George Brown (Officiating) 1811
 Sir Evan Nepean, Bart 1812
 The Hon Mountstuart Elphinstone .. 1819
 Major-General Sir John Malcolm, G C B. 1827
 Lieut-General Sir Thomas Sidney Beckwith, K C B. 1830
 Died, 15th January 1831.
 John Romer (Officiating) 1831
 The Earl of Clare 1831
 Sir Robert Grant, G O H. 1835
 Died, 9th July 1838.
 James Farish (Officiating) 1838
 Sir J Rivett-Carnac, Bart 1839
 Sir William Hay Macnaghten, Bart (b) .
 George William Anderson (Officiating) .. 1841
 Sir George Arthur, Bart, K O H 1842
 Lestock Robert Reid (Officiating) 1846
 George Russell Clerk 1847
 Viscount Falkland 1848
 Lord Elphinstone, G O H., P O 1859
 Sir George Russell Clerk, K C B (2nd time) 1860
 Sir Henry Bartle Edward Frere, K C B. 1862
 The Right Hon. William Robert Seymour Vesey FitzGerald. 1867
 Sir Philip Edmund Wodehouse, K O B. ' .. 1872
 Sir Richard Temple, Bart, K O S I 1877
 Lionel Robert Ashburner, C B I (Acting).. 1880
 The Right Hon Sir James Fergusson, Bart, K O M G. 1880
 James Braithwaite Pelle, C S I (Acting).. 1885
 Baron Reay 1885
 Baron Harris 1890
 Herbert Mills Birdwood, C S I (Acting) .. 1895
 Baron Sandhurst 1895
 Baron Northcote, C B 1900
 Sir James Menteath, K O S I Acting) .. 1903
 Baron Lamington G O M G., G O I E. .. 1903
 J W. P. Muir-Mackenzie, C S I (Acting); 1907
 Sir George Sydenham Clarke G O M G., G O I E (c) 1907
 Baron Willingdon, G O I E. 1913
 Sir George Ambrose Lloyd; G. E. I. E., D S O. (d) 1918
 Sir Leslie Orme Wilson, P C, G O I E, 1923
 C. M. G., D S O.
 Sir Frederick Hugh Sykes, P C, G O I E, 1928
 G B E, K C B, C M G
 The Rt Hon Michael Herbert Rudolf Knatchbull, Lord Brabourne, G C I R, M C 1953
 Sir Ernest Hotson, K C S I, O B F, I C S Acted for six months for Sir F H. Sykes
 (a) Proceeded to Madras on duty in Aug 1793 and then joined the Council of the Governor-General as Commander-in-Chief in India on the 28th Oct 1793.
 (b) Was appointed Governor of Bombay by the Honourable the Court of Directors on the 4th Aug 1841, but, before he could take charge of his appointment, he was assassinated in Cabul on the 23rd Dec 1841.
 (c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Sydenham
 (d) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lloyd.

THE BOMBAY LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon Sir Ali Mahomed Khan Dohlayi, Kt, *President*.Mr. Namdeo Eknath Navle, *Deputy President*.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
Bombay City (North) (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Rao Bahadur R. S. Asavale. Mr A N Surve Dr M D D Gilder Dr. Joseph Alban D'Souza. Dr J A Collaco Mr B. P Wadke. Mr. Gover Rora.
Bombay City (South) (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Mr Pestonshah N Vakil Sardar Davar Temuras Kasyi Modi Mr Vishnu Ganesh Valshavampayan. Mr. Laxman Raghunath Gokhale Mr Bhailal Sarabhai Patel Salichsinhji Juvansingji.
Karachi City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban	Mr Madhavsang Jorbhaj
Ahmedabad City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban	Rao Saheb Bhagwandas Girdhadas Desai. Mr Chaturbhai Narshibhai Patel.
Surat City. (Non-Muhammadan) Urban	Mr Manilal Harilal Mehta
Sholapur City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Dr M K Dixit, L M & S
Poona City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban	Sardar Rao Bahadur Bhumbhai Ranchhodji Naik
Ahmedabad District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	Mr Daulatrao Jayaramrao Zunzarrao Menchershaw M Karbhari
Broach District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Bahadur Namdev Eknath Navle Rao Bahadur Ganesh Krishna Chitale Diwan Bahadur Dongarsing Ramji Patil. Rao Saheb Vaman Sampat Patil. Mr Vithal Nathu Patil
Kaira District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Rao Bahadur Gopalrao Vaman Pradhan Rao Saheb Ramchandra Vithalrao Vandekar. Mr. Gangajirao Mukundrao Kalbhor Rao Saheb Pandurang Dnyaneshwar Kulkarnie. Mr Abnaram Bhimaji Achrekar Mr R. G Soman
Panch Mahals District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	Mr Ramchandarrao Bapurao Shinde. Rao Bahadur S N. Angadi Mr P. B. Chikodi Mr Shankarappa Basalingappa Desai
Surat District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	Diwan Bahadur Siddappa Totappa Kambli. Mr. Vishwanatharao Narayan Jog Mr Ganpati Subrao Gangoli Rao Bahadur Laxman Vishnu Parulekar. Mr. Vyankat Anandrav Surve. Mr Dalumal Lilaram.
Thana and Bombay Suburban Districts. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr Satramdas Sakhawatrai Tolani. Mr Jaywant Ghanashyam More. Mr Narayan Nagoo Patil Mr Namdeorao Budhajirao
Ahmednagar District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	Mr Husenali Mahomed Rahimtulla. Mr Gulamhussen Ibrahim Matchewalla. Mr Muhammad Hashim Gazder
East Khandesh District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr Abdulrehman Khan Karim Khan Resalder
Nasik District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Khan Bahadur Abdul Latif Haji Hajrat Khan Pathan.
Poona District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	
Satara District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	
Belgaum District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Bhapur District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Dharwar District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Kanara District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Ratnagiri District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Eastern Sind (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Western Sind (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Sholapur District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Kolaba District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
West Khandesh District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	
Bombay City. (Muhammadan) Urban	
Karachi City. (Muhammadan) Urban.	
Ahmedabad and Surat Cities (Muhammadan) Urban	
Poona and Sholapur Cities. (Muhammadan) Urban.	

Name and class of Constituency.

Name of Member.

The Northern Division (Muhammadian) Rural	Khan Bahadur Alibhai Esabhai Patel Sir Ali Mahomed Khan Dehlavi.
The Central Division (Muhammadian) Rural	Khan Bahadur Wali Baksh Adambhai Patel Moulvi Sir Rafiuddin Ahmad, Kt
The Southern Division (Muhammadian) Rural	Khan Bahadur S Meherbaksh Mr. Shaikh Abdul Aziz Abdul Latif Mr. Abdul Kadir Jamaluddin Bangi.
Hyderabad District (Muhammadian) Rural	Mr. Haji Ibrahim Jitekar Sardar Mahaboobalikhan Mahamad Akbarkhan Bradar
Karachi District (Muhammadian) Rural	Mr. Bandehal Khan Mir Muhammad Hassan Khan Talpur Sayed Miran Muhammad Shah.
Larkana District (Muhammadian) Rural	Shaikh Abul Majid Lularam. Ghulam Hyder Shah Sahibuddin Shah.
Sukkur District (Muhammadian) Rural	Sir Shah Nawaz Bhutto. Khan Bahadur Ghulam Mahomed Abdulla Khan Isran
Thar and Parkar (Muhammadian) Rural	Khan Bahadur Jan Mahomed Khan Walad Khan Bahadur Shah Passand Khan Khan Bahadur Allahbaksh Khan Saheb Haji Mohomed Umar
Nawabshah District (Muhammadian) Rural	Ghulam Nabi Shah Monjall Shah, Khan Bahadur Sardar Bahadur Haji Mir Allahabad Khan Mir Imam Baksh Khan Sardar Bahadur Jam Jan Mahomed Walad Ma- homed Sharif.
Upper Sind Frontier District (Muhammadian) Rural	Khan Bahadur Sher Muhammad Khan Karam Khan Bujarani
Bombay City (European)	Lt-Col H O Smith
Presidency (European)	Mr A O Owen
Deccan Sardars and Inamdars (Landholders)	Mr Hanumantrao Ramrao Desai
Gujarat Sardars and Inamdars (Landholders)	Sardar Bhasaheb alias Dulabava Raisingji, Thakor of Kervada
Jagirdars and Zamindars (Sind) (Landholders)	Mr Sayed Muhammad Kamishah Qabul Muham- mad Shah
Bombay University (University)	Rao Bahadur Ravji Ramchandra Kale
Bombay Chamber of Commerce and Industry	Mr J B Greaves
Bombay Chamber of Commerce, Commerce and Industry.	Mr G L Winterbotham
Karachi Chamber of Commerce and Industry	Mr. John Humphrey, C.B.E.
Bombay Trades' Association, Commerce and Industry	Mr A Greville Bullocke
Bombay Millowners' Association, Commerce and Industry	Mr. S D Saklatvala
Almedabad Commerce and Industry, Mill-owners' Association	Mr Sakarlal Balabhai

NOMINATED.
Non-Officials.

Mr S H. Prater.
The Rev R S Modak
Mr Sitaram Keshav Bole.
,, Syed Munawar, B.A.
,, R R Bakhale.
Dr B R Ambedkar, Bar-at-Law.
,, Purshottam Solanki, L.M. & S.
Major W. Ellis Jones.
Mr. B S Kamat
Mr Mohamed Suleman Cassam Mitha.
Nawab Shah Rookh Shah Yar Jung
Bahadur.
A E. Serval, ICS

Officials.

Mr. Sayid Amnuddin, ICS
,, C G Treke, ICS
,, H F. Knight, ICS
,, A. W. W. Mackie, C.I.E., ICS
,, C B B Clee, ICS
,, J A Madan, C.I.E., ICS
,, H B Clayton, C.I.F., ICS
,, F O J Roose, M.T. Vech. P.,
V.L.F., ICS
,, C M Lane
,, R M Maxwell, C.S.I., C.I.E., ICS.
Khan Bahadur Azinkhan Inayatullah-
khan
Mr. W. W. Smart, ICS
,, C W. A Turner, C.S.I. C.I.L., ICS.

Twenty-nine spinning and weaving mills were at work during the year and they employed 41,083 operatives. The number of jute mills at work was three. At the close of the year 1933 the number of the other factories in the Presidency was 1,471. These consisted of oil mills, rope works, tile works, etc. Tanning is one of the principal industries of the Presidency and there is considerable export trade in skins and hides. The manufacturing activities which are under the direction of the Department of Industries are mainly confined to the production of soap. There are a number of indigenous match factories run on cottage lines. It is expected that the levy of the excise duty on matches will drive off the market products of inferior quality and it is probable that only the very efficient units of the cottage industry will be able to continue the manufacture of matches once the full force of the excise duty is felt upon the industry. It is slowly becoming recognised that the Madras Presidency is one of the most suitable parts of India for sugarcane cultivation and that the several deep-rooted varieties of cane which have been evolved at Coimbatore and require very little water are especially suited for the conditions which obtain in several areas of the Presidency where they grow better than in the north. The departments of Industries and Agriculture assist the development of the sugar industry by demonstration of the methods of manufacture of white sugar by centrifugals by getting trained sugar technologists, by the award of scholarships and by investigating schemes for starting sugar factories.

The question of finding foreign markets for the products of Madras cottage industries was under the consideration of the Government for sometime and they have passed orders during the year sanctioning an annual subsidy of Rs. 3,000 to the Victoria Technical Institute, Madras, for three years to enable them to appoint an agent in London for the sale of products of Madras cottage industries in European markets.

Education.

The Presidency's record in the sphere of education has been one of continuous progress. There are at present about 51,000 public institutions, ranging from village primary schools to arts and professional colleges, their total strength being about 2,865,000. Special efforts are being made to provide education for boys belonging to the Depressed Classes. The Council passed a resolution in the year 1929 at the instance of a nominated member that poor girls reading in any educational institution in the province—Government, local fund, Municipal or aided—should be exempted from School fees in any Standard up to III Form. The total expenditure of the province on Education is in the neighbourhood of Rs. 539 lakhs. The principal educational institutions in the province are the Madras, Andhra and Annamalai Universities, the Presidency College, the Christian College, the Loyola College, the Pachalyappa College, the Law College, and the Queen Mary's College for Women, Madras; the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, the American College, Madura; the Government College, Kumbakonam; the Government College,

Rajahmundry; the Agricultural College, Coimbatore; the Medical Colleges at Madras and Vizagapatam and the Engineering College at Madras (Guindy).

Cochin Harbour Scheme

The importance of this project lies in the fact that a good harbour at Cochin would lead to the development of a valuable hinterland and provide a ready outlet for agricultural and other produce from an area which is at present not adequately served by a convenient or well-equipped harbour. The scheme involves cutting a passage through the bar which hitherto blocked the entrance from the sea to an extensive backwater and by dredging and reclamation, forming a sheltered harbour accessible and giving full protection and facilities at all seasons of the year. An agreement has been reached between the Government of Madras and the Darbars of Travancore and Cochin States indicating how the work is to be carried out and outlining the financial arrangements necessary. A trial cut was made in 1923 and the effects of the monsoon thereon were observed. The results recorded were examined by a Committee of Harbour Engineers in England who reported favourably on the prospects of the scheme.

The first cut through the bar 400 feet wide by 32½ feet deep was completed on 30th March 1928. The channel through the outer bar is now 3 miles long by 450 feet wide and its average depth after the maintenance dredging in January 4, 1934, was 40.2 ft at low water in the section west of the crest of the bar and 37.4 ft at low water in the Section East of the Crest. The dredging of the mooring area has been completed. Since March 1930 the Harbour has been in constant and regular use by all ships. Details of the berthing accommodation inside the harbour at the end of 1933-34 were—

	Draft ft	Length ft
Mooring Buoy No 1	31 0	500
" " 2	29 3	450
" " 3	24 3	250
" " 4	28 0	475
" " 5	30 0	475
" " 6	26 8	475
" " 7	27 3	475
" " 8	37 8	500
" " 9	38.3	500
Fore and aft berths A	30 0	300
Fore and aft berths B	31 0	280

Proposals have been formulated for the next stage of the works which include the construction of deep water jetties with railway connections, construction of godowns and transit sheds, the installation of rapid handling cranes and other transport facilities. These improvements are to be made on the new reclamation

of which about 300 acres have been formed already by dredging from the harbour. It is intended to connect this to the mainland by a railway bridge across the harbour. Reclamation when completed, will provide sufficient space for about 20 or 30 large vessels to load or unload at the same time. The completion of the further work at the port has been held over pending settlement of certain question connected with the harbour administration. The Shoman Tirukulam line has been converted from metre to broad-gauge and opened for traffic. The line is to be extended to the wharves at the reclamation. These developments will enhance the utility of the port to the planting and agricultural areas in that part of the Presidency. To facilitate navigation during the night, the channels have been lighted, and a hostel is under construction to provide them accommodation for passengers calling at the port.

Local Self-Government.

Local bodies in the Madras Presidency are administered under the following Acts.—

The Madras City Municipal Act, 1919,

The Madras District Municipality Act, 1920, as amended by Madras Act X of 1930, and

The Madras Local Boards Act, 1920, as amended by the Madras Act XI of 1930.

The amending Acts of 1930 which came into force on the 26th August 1930, provide, *inter alia*, for the abolition of the system of nominations to local bodies, for the inclusion of village panchayats within the scope of the Madras Local Boards Act with a view to making the village the unit of local self-government, for direct elections to district boards, for the creation of a municipal and local boards service for the Presidency of Madras, for the removal of the disqualification of women as such in respect of elections to municipal councils and for the cessation of office of the President or Chairman on a motion of non-confidence being passed against him by a prescribed majority. The Acts have undergone subsequent amendments. Taluk Boards have been abolished with effect from the 1st April 1934.

Local bodies are now enabled under the Madras Local Authorities Entertainments Tax Act, 1926, to levy a tax on entertainments given within their jurisdiction.

Irrigation

In March 1925, the Secretary of State sanctioned the Cauvery Reservoir Project, the estimated cost of which amounted to about £ 44 millions. The project has been framed with two main objects in view. The first is to improve the existing fluctuating water supplies for the Cauvery Delta irrigation of over a million acres, the second is to extend irrigation to a new area of 361,000 acres, which will, it is estimated, add 150,000 tons of rice to the food supply of the country. The scheme which was completed in 1934 provides for a large dam at Mettur on the Cauvery to store 98,500 million cubic feet of water and for a canal nearly 88 miles long with a con-

necting distributary system. Owing to the necessity for providing a large supply of water for the disposal of flood water to the phenomenal floods of 1921 and to other causes, the estimate had to be revised and the revised estimate stands at about £ 44 millions. A saving of nearly £ 3 millions anticipated. Another important project is the Periyar project, which is intended not only for irrigation purposes but also for providing water power for generating electricity. Entailing it due to the Western Ghats, the river flows into the Arabian Sea through Travancore State territory. After prolonged negotiations, the Travancore Durbar consented to the water being caught and stored in the Travancore hills for being diverted to waste the East some three thousand feet above sea level a concrete and masonry dam has been constructed and nearly 50 feet below the crest level of the dam a channel through the summit of the range carries the water into the eastern watershed where they are led into the river Vaalool. The total quantity of water impounded to create level is 15,600 million cubic feet. By this work, a river ordered by Nature to flow into the Arabian Sea has been led across the Peninsula into the Bay of Ben. Irrigating on its way well over 100,000 acres of land. The irrigable area commanded by the Periyar system is 243,000 acres, while the supply from the lake was sufficient only for 170,000 acres. To make up for this deficit, a scheme for increasing the effective capacity of the lake by lowering the watershed cutting is in progress. The area already under irrigation in the Madras Presidency total about 7.5 million acres. Of this over 3 million acres are irrigated by petty irrigation works numbering about 24,000.

Electric Schemes

The first stage of the Pykara Hydro-Electric project which was under construction by the Government of Madras has now been completed and is in operation from 1st April 1933. It consists in utilizing a fall of over 1,000 ft. in the Pykara river as it descends the Nilgiris Plateau for the generation of electrical energy and its transmission for supply to the neighbouring districts, viz. the Nilgiri, Coimbatore, Salem and Trichinopoly. The Glen Morgan scheme started in 1925 with the object of supplying power to the main construction works of the Pykara project has now been merged with it. In its present completed form the project consists of the main power house at Singara with an installed plant capacity of 23,000 B.H.P. and the transformer station, the reeving station at Colmarator, 7 other sub-stations, 49 miles of 66 K.V. line, 68 miles of 22 K.V. Tower line and 143 miles of 22 K.V. pole line. The booked cost upto 31st March 1934 against an original estimate of Rs. 1,37,36,640 is Rs. 1,09,88,000 and the revised estimates for 1934-35 include an expenditure of Rs. 5,22,000. The revenue anticipated during 1934-35 is about Rs. 8.75 lakhs against an estimated revenue of Rs. 4,70,000. The following places receive supply from the Pykara Project at present.—

The towns of Ootacamund, Coonoor, Methupallam, Karamadai, Pollachi, Trichappur, Avanasbi, Bhavani, Erode, Salem, and Palghat, besides the tea estates of Devichola, Prospect, Parkside,

Ibex and Nonsuch, Bhavani and Glendale in the Nilgiris District and Kallayar, Akkamalais, Karimalai, Vellamala, and Pachmalains in the Anamalais.

It is expected that supply to Trichinopoly, Tiruvarur, Negapatam, and Tanjore will be extended by the end of 1935

The Government of Madras have also a proposal under consideration to start a Hydro-Electric Scheme at Mettur about which they are awaiting sanction from the Secretary of State

Co-operation

On account of the continued general economic depressions, overdues in Societies increased still further during the year 1933-34. There was a further contraction in the loan transactions of Central Banks. The surplus in Central Banks which amounted to more than a crore of rupees at the end of the year 1932-33 was reduced to 54 lakhs at the end of the year 1933-34, as a result of the measures adopted by the banks at the instance of Government. The attention of the department was paid for the last few years more to the consolidation of existing societies than to the expansion of the movement. Only 140 societies were registered during the year as against 107, 127 and 320 in the previous three years. The registration of 462 societies was cancelled during the year 1933-34 as against 691 in 1932-33. Under the scheme of subvention to Central Banks for carrying on rectification and consolidation work, the Provincial Bank paid Rs 17,130 to 22 Central Banks which in their turn spent Rs 131,728 on the work. In spite of the large sums of money spent on rectification work in the last few years by the Provincial and Central Banks, the progress in rectification is slow as complete rectification is aimed at and collection work has become very difficult. The Registrar has also suggested a plan of rectification according to which Central Banks are enabled to take stock of the position and set on foot schemes of rectification of societies to secure their investments. According to the scheme steps have to be taken to recover loans on inadequate security in respect of which there is no chance of securing additional security. The South India Co-operative Insurance Society started in March 1932 continued to do satisfactory work during the year. The Central Land Mortgage Bank which was started in 1929 for the purpose of financing primary land mortgage Banks by floating debentures has now been firmly established and was able to declare a profit of Rs 41,111 for the year. The value of debentures issued by the Banks in circulation at the end of the year was Rs 34.56 lakhs and up to the end of the year loans to the extent of Rs 33.82 lakhs have been granted by it to primary banks. The Government have guaranteed both the principal of and the interest on the debentures issued by the Bank satisfying certain conditions and debentures so guaranteed have become trustee securities according to a recent amendment of the Indian Trusts Act.

Social Legislation.

The Hindu Religious Endowments Act which has for its object the better administration and governance of certain Hindu religious

endowments came into force early in 1925. It provides for the appropriation of the surplus funds of the endowments to religious, educational and charitable purposes not inconsistent with the objects of the institutions to which they are attached. The Act has been working satisfactorily. Doubts having been raised to the validity of the Act it was re-enacted and passed into law as Act No II of 1927. The new Act came into force on 8th February 1927. Another piece of legislation—a non-official Bill—which has raised a heated controversy is the Malabar Tenancy Bill, which aims to confer, subject to certain conditions, occupancy rights on "kanom" tenants and actual cultivators of the soil. As there was a sharp difference of opinion on the very principles of the Bill, the Governor withheld his assent and a committee was appointed to go into the matter thoroughly and its findings were submitted and the same were published with a view to receive objections and suggestions. "The recommendations of the Committee were placed before a Round Table Conference consisting of the representatives of the Jemmes, Tenants and of the Government. The objections and suggestions made by the representatives at the Conference were carefully considered by the Government and the Government re-drafted the Bill and introduced it in the Council on 6th August 1929. The Bill was passed by the Council on 15th October 1929. His Excellency the Governor was of opinion that changes were expedient in respect of certain clauses of the Bill passed by the Council and accordingly returned parts of the Bill to the Legislative Council, under Section 81-A (1) of the Government of India Act, for reconsideration." The Bill was finally passed by the Legislative Council on the 1st March 1930, and received the assent of His Excellency the Governor on the 25th March 1930. The assent of His Excellency the Governor-General was given on the 18th November 1930 and the Act came into force on the 1st December 1930. Noteworthy amongst other efforts at legislation for social reform was the non-official resolution passed by the Council recommending to Government to undertake legislation or to recommend the Government of India to do so to put a stop to the practice of dedicating young women and girls to Hindu temples which has generally resulted in exposing them to immoral purposes under the pretext of caste. Mrs. Muthulakshmi Reddi, Ex-Deputy President of the Legislative Council, introduced a bill in the Legislative Council on 5th September 1928 so as to enfranchise or free the lands held by non-holding Devadasis on condition of service in Hindu temples from such condition. The bill was passed into law on 1st February 1929. The Act received the assent of the Governor on 12th April 1929 and of the Governor-General on 13th May 1929. Rules have been framed to give effect to the provisions of the Act and the enfranchisement of Devadasis is now in progress. On 24th January 1930 Mrs. Muthulakshmi Reddi introduced another bill in the Legislative Council with the object of putting an end to the dedication of young women and girls not only among non-holding Devadasis but among Devadasis as a whole. The bill was discussed in the Council and circulated to elicit opinion. As in the main the

Mrs Muthulakshmi Reddi resigned her membership in the Council, the bill was not proceeded with. Subsequently, the Council also dissolved and the bill lapsed. A bill for the suppression of brothels and of traffic in women and girls was introduced in the Council by Mr. K. R. Venkatarama Ayyar on 5th September 1928 and was passed into law on 31st January 1930. The Act received the assent of the Governor on 24th February 1930 and of the Governor-General on 28th March 1930. It could not however be brought into force immediately owing to certain practical difficulties. To obviate these difficulties, an amending Act was passed by the Legislative Council on 30th October 1931 and received the assent of the Governor on 3rd December 1931 and of the Governor-General on 25th December 1931. The amending act enables the Local Government to bring the Act into force in selected areas and to extend it gradually to other areas as circumstances permit and also to bring into force such of its provisions as may be practicable in any particular area. All the provisions of the Act are now in force in the City of Madras and its environs within a distance of ten miles from the limits of the City. The Act (except sections 6, 7, 8 and 10, is also in force in the following Municipalities and their environs within a distance of five miles from their limits—Trichinopoly, Srirangam, Madura, Ruzvidra, Calicut, Cocanada, Rajahmundry, Bangalore, Vizagapatam, Coimbatore, Erode, Salem and Kumbakonam. It was also resolved by the Government to fix as their goal total prohibition of drink in the presidency within 20 years. In pursuance of this resolution and of the recommendations of the Excise Advisory Committee thereon, Government in 1929 sanctioned a scheme of propaganda against the use of alcoholic liquors and intoxicating drinks. But owing to financial stringency, the work carried on by the Central Propaganda

Board Temperance Publicity Committee and the District Propaganda Committees had to be discontinued from August 1931. The Provisions of the Mussalman Wakf, Act, 1923 (India Act XLII of 1923) were brought into force in this Presidency on 1st January 1932. This Act makes provision for the better management of Mussalman Wakf properties and for ensuring the maintenance and publication of proper accounts in respect of such properties.

Law and Order.

The Superior Court for Civil and Criminal Judicial work in the Presidency is the High Court at Madras, which consists of a Chief Justice and thirteen puisne judges. The existing law provides for a maximum of 20 High Court Judges. For the administration of criminal justice there are 29 Sessions Judges in the Mufassal, (including three for agency tracts) Additional and Assistant Sessions Judges being provided to assist Courts in which the work is heavy. Then there are the District Magistrates, the Subordinate Magistrates and Honorary Magistrates. The administration of civil justice is carried on by 28 District Judges, and 41 Subordinate Judges and 145 District Munsiffs. In the Presidency Town there are a City Civil Court consisting of one Judge and Small Causes Court consisting of a Chief Judge and two other Judges. Madras is a litigious province and the records show one suit for every 74 persons. The Police department is under an Inspector-General who has six deputies, four in charge of ranges of the Presidency, one in charge of the Railway Police and the Criminal Investigation Department and one in charge of the Madras City Police as Commissioner of Police. A Superintendent is stationed at each district. The sanctioned strength of the permanent police force is about 28,220.

FINANCE DEPARTMENT.

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimates, 1934-35.	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS,	Budget Estimates 1934-35.
REVENUE	Rs.	LAND REVENUE	Rs.
I—Taxes on Income		1—Land Revenue	19,54,800
III—S.P.		6—Excise	34,99,300
V—Land Revenue	7,25,13,200	7—Stamps	6,21,400
VI—Forest	4,31,67,800	8—Forest	36,42,800
VII—S.P.	2,29,77,500	8A—Forest Capital outlay charged to Revenue	2,77,700
VIII—S.P.	42,84,800	9—Registration	29,77,000
IX—S.P.	31,20,600	15—Immigration—Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue	47,01,100

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS.	Budget Estimates, 1934-35	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS.	Budget Estimates, 1934-35.
REVENUE—contd	Rs	EXPENDITURE—contd	Rs
XIII—Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Ac- counts are kept— Gross Receipts	5,96,000	XIII.—Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage works for which Capital Ac- counts are kept— Working Expenses	49,52,900
XIV.—Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	1,90,500	16—Construction of Irri- gation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	3,91,600
XVI—Interest	27,12,600	19—Interest on Ordinary Debt	69,51,700
XVII—Administration of Justice	16,99,500	20—Interest on other Obligations	9,800
XVIII—Jails and Convict Settlements	5,39,600	21—Appropriation for Re- duction or Avoid- ance of Debt	27,29,000
XIX—Police	5,49,700	22—General Administration.	2,76,71,500
XX—Ports and Pilotage		24—Administration of Justice	97,59,800
XXI—Education	8,31,500	25—Jails and Convict Settle- ments	22,07,800
XXII—Medical	8,98,000	26—Police	1,65,07,500
XXIII—Public Health	1,54,900	27—Ports and Pilotage	13,600
XXIV—Agriculture	3,81,800	30—Scientific Department	91,900
XXV—Industries	13,64,700	XXXXA—Hydro-Electric Schemes Working Expenses	4,74,800
XXVI—Miscellaneous De- partments	43,62,700	31—Education	2,51,40,100
XXX—Civil Works	17,75,900	32—Medical	93,73,800
XXXI—Hydro-Electric Schemes—Gross Receipts	6,22,100	33—Public Health	26,28,600
XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	2,54,400	34—Agriculture	39,37,300
XXXIV.—Stationery and Print- ing	3,92,500	35—Industries	24,07,300
XXXV—Miscellaneous	9,72,500	37—Miscellaneous Depart- ments	52,58,600
Total Revenue	16,43,63,100	41—Civil Works	1,43,01,000
Revenue	16,43,63,100	41B—Capital Expenditure on Hydro-Electric Schemes met from Revenues	
Excess of Revenue over Expendi- ture ..	4,46,500	43—Famine	1,00,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Government ..	35,99,100	45—Superannuation Allo- wances and Pensions	70,41,200
		45A—Commuted value of Pen- sions financed from Ordinary Revenues .	10,07,200
		46—Stationery and Printing	18,21,300
		47—Miscellaneous	4,74,100
		Total—Expenditure charged to Revenue	16,39,16,500
		DISBURSEMENTS	Rs
		Expenditure	16,39,16,500
		Excess of Expenditure over Re- venue	
		52A—Capital outlay on Forests	

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimates, 1934-35	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimates, 1934-35
REVENUE—contd	Rs	EXPENDITURE—contd	Rs
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund Government of India		35—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works	30,31,100
Suspense	18,53,200	56C—Capital outlay on Industrial Development	88,300
Subventions from Central Road Development Account	6,00,000	58—Capital Outlay on Hydro-Electric Schemes	46 07,400
Civil Deposits	1,36,000	60—Civil Works—Not charged to Revenue	
Depreciation Funds	1,99,800	60B—Payment of commuted value of Pensions	
Miscellaneous Government Accounts		Total	78,16,800
Famine Relief Fund	1 94,300	Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	55 13,700
Appropriation for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	27,29,000	Advances from Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India	27,29,000
		Suspense	18 53,200
		Subventions from Central Road Development Account	9 22 800
Total—Receipts	17,36,74,700	Civil Deposits	1,34,700
		Depreciation Funds	60,800
Opening { Famine Relief Fund	59,85 074	Miscellaneous Government Accounts	
Balance { General Balances	2,94,72,071	Famine Relief Fund	
		Total—Disbursements	18,29,47,500
		Closing { Famine Relief Fund	61,79,574
		Balance { General Balances	2,00,04,771
Grand Total	20,91,31,845	Grand Total	20,91,31,845

Governor.

His Excellency the Lord Erskine, G C I E

Personal Staff

Private Secretary, A D Crombie, ICS

Military Secy., Capt T F H Kelly, O B E

Surgeon, Major D P. Johnstone, C I E, O B E, R A M C. (Retd)

Aides-de-Camp, Capt. R S Wright, Lieut R W Madoc, Lieut. A R C Southby and Lieut P. Goodeve-Docker

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Risaldar Major Sher Bahadur Khan

Commandant, H E the Governor's Body Guard, Capt, R F Rintledge, M O

Members of Council

The Hon Sir Kurma Venkatarreddi Nayudu, Kt

The Hon Mr A T Pannirselvam

The Hon Mr C A Souther.

Ministers

The Hon the Raja of Bobbili (Local Self-Government, Medical, Public Health, Religious and Charitable Endowments)

The Hon. Mr. P T (Rajan, Agriculture Co-operative Societies, Public Works and Registration)

The Hon Diwan Bahadur S Kumaraswami Reddier (Education, Fisheries, Industries and Excise)

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT.

Chief Secretary, G T H. Bracken, C S I, C I E, ICS

Secretary, Finance Department, C E Jones, ICS

Secretary, Local Self-Government Department, T B Russell, ICS

Joint Secretary, Local Self Government Department, Rao Bahadur R Subhaya Nayudu

Secretary, Public Works and Labour Departments, Diwan Bahadur N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar

Secretary, Development Department, C A, Henderson, ICS

Secretary, Revenue Department, H R. Uziel, C I E, ICS

Secretary, Law and Education Department G T Boag, C I E, ICS

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, H Champion M A (offg)

Inspector-General of Police, Sir Charles B Cunningham, Kt, C S I

Surgeon-General, Major General, Sir F. P. Connor, Kt, D S O., K H S, J M S.

Director of Public Health, Lieut-Col A. J. H. Russell, OBE, MA, MD, DPH, IMS (on other duty), Lieut-Col J. R. D. Webb, OBE, IMS. (Officiating)

Accountant-General, L. B. Ward.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt-Colonel M. M. Khan, IMS

Postmaster-General, G. B. Power, CIE.

Collector of Customs, C. R. Watkins, CIE

Commissioner of Excise, E. F. Thomas, OIL, IOS

Inspector-General of Registration, Diwan Bahadur B. V. Sri Hari Rao Nayudu

Director, Kodakulana and Madras Observatories, T. Royds, D. Sc., A. L. Narayan, MA, D. Sc.

Supdt., Govt. Central Museum, and Principal Librarian, Connemara Public Library, Dr F. H. Gravely

Director of Agriculture, S. V. Ramamurti, IOS

Director of Industries, V. Ramakrishna, IOS

Director of Fisheries, Dr B. Sundara Raj

Chief Conservator of Forests.—A. Wimbush, IFS

Director of Veterinary Services, P. T. Saunders, OBE, MRCVS, JVS.

Presidents and Governors of Fort St George in Madras.

William Gyfford	1684
Ellhu Yale	1687
Nathaniel Hugginson	1692
Thomas Pitt	1698
Gulston Addison	1709

Died at Madras, 17 Oct., 1709

Edmund Montague (<i>Acting</i>)	1709
William Fraser (<i>Acting</i>)	1709
Edward Harrison	1711
Joseph Collet	1716
Francis Hastings (<i>Acting</i>)	1720
Nathaniel Elwick	1721
James Macrae	1725
George Morton Pitt	1730
Richard Benyon	1735
Nicholas Morse	1744
John Hinde
Charles Floyer	1747
Thomas Saunders	1750
George Pigot	1755
Robert Falk	1763
Charles Bouchler	1767
Fomas DuPre	1770
Alexander Wynch	1773
Lord Pigot (<i>Suspended</i>)	1775
George Stratton	1776
John Whitehill (<i>Acting</i>)	1777
Sir Thomas Rumbold, Bart.	1778
John Whitehill (<i>Acting</i>)	1780
Charles Smith (<i>Acting</i>)	1780
Lord Macartney, K.B.	1781

Governors of Madras.

Lord Macartney, K.B.	1785
Alexander Davidson (<i>Acting</i>)	1785
Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell, K.B.	1786
John Hollond (<i>Acting</i>)	1789
Edward J. Hollond (<i>Acting</i>)	1790
Major-General William Medows	1790
Sir Charles Oakeley, Bart.	1792
Lord Hobart	1794
Major-General George Harris (<i>Acting</i>)	1798
Lord Clive	1799
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck	1803
William Petrie (<i>Acting</i>)	1807
Sir George Hilary Barlow, Bart., K.B.	1807
Lieut-General the Hon. John Abercromby.	1813
The Right Hon. Hugh Elliot	1814
Major-General Sir Thomas Munro, Bart., K.O.B. Died 6 July, 1827.	1820
Henry Sullivan Gröme (<i>Acting</i>)	1827
Stephen Rumbold Lushington	1822
Lieut-General Sir Frederick Adam, K.O.B.	1832
George Edward Russell (<i>Acting</i>)	1837
Lord Elphinstone, G.O.B., P.O.	1837
Lieut-General the Marquess of Tweeddale, K.T., O.B.	1842
Henry Dickinson (<i>Acting</i>)	1848
Major-General the Right Hon. Sir Henry Pottinger, Bart., G.O.B.	1848
Daniel Elliott (<i>Acting</i>)	1854
Lord Harris	1854
Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.O.B.	1859
William Ambrose Morehead (<i>Acting</i>)	1860
Sir Henry George Ward, G.C.M.G.	1860
Died at Madras, 2 August, 1860.	
William Ambrose Morehead (<i>Acting</i>)	1860
Sir William Thomas Denison, K.C.B.	1861
(<i>Acting</i> Viceroy and Governor-General 1863 to 1864.)	
Edward Maltby (<i>Acting</i>)	1863
Lord Napier of Merchistoun, Kt. (a)	1866
(<i>Acting</i> Viceroy and Governor-General, 1872)	
Alexander John Arbuthnot, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. (<i>Acting</i>)	1872
Lord Hobart	1872
Died at Madras, 27 April, 1875.	
Sir William Rose Robinson, K.C.S.I.	1875
(<i>Acting</i>)	
The Duke of Buckingham and Chandos, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1875
The Right Hon. W. P. Adam, P.C., C.I.F.	1880
Died at Ootacamund, 24 May, 1881.	
William Hudleston, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1881
The Right Hon. M. E. Grant Duff, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1881

The Right Hon. Robert Bourke, P.C. .. 1857	Right Hon. Baron Pentland, P.C., G.C.S.I., 1911
Lord Connemara, 12 May, 1857 (by creation)	G.C.I.E
John Henry Garstin, C.S.I. (Acting) .. 1890	Baron Willingdon G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., 1911
Baron Wenlock, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E F.C.B. . 1891	G.C.I.E, G.B.F. (c)
Sir Arthur Elbank Havelock, G.C.M.G. . 1896	Sir Alexander Cardew, K.C.S.I. (Acting) .. 1911
Baron Ampthill, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E, E.C.B. .. 1901	Sir Charles Todhunter, K.C.S.I. (Acting) . 1921
Acting Viceroy and Governor-General, 1904.	Lord Goschen, P.C., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.F., C.B.E. 1921
Sir James Thomson, K.C.S.I. (Acting) ... 1902	(Acting Viceroy and Governor-General 1929)
Sir Gabriel Stokes K.C.S.I. (Acting) .. 1906	Sir Norman Macbride K.C.S.I. F.C.I.E.
Hon. Sir Arthur Lawley, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.F., 1906	(Acting) 1921
Sir Thomas David Gibson-Carmichael, 1911	Lieut.-Col. the Right Hon'ble Sir George 1921
Bart. G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., F.C.M.G. (b)	Frederick Stanley, P.C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G.
Became Governor of Bengal, 1 April 1911	Lord Erskine, G.C.I.F. (1934).
Sir Murray Hammett, K.C.S.I., C.I.E 1915	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Ettrick.
(Acting).	(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Carmichael of Shirlang.
	(c) Afterwards Earl of Willingdon.

THE MADRAS LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT :

The Hon. Mr B Ramachandra Reddi.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT.

Rao Bahadur G Jagannadha Raja.

I.—MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Ex-Officio

The Hon. Sir Venkata Kurma Reddi, Kt

The Hon. Rao Bahadur A. T. Pannirselvam.

The Hon. Mr. C. A. Souter. C.S.I., I.C.S.

II.—ELECTED MEMBERS.

(a) Ministers.

The Hon. The Raja of Bobbili.

The Hon. Mr. P. T. Rajan.

The Hon. Diwan Bahadur S Kumaraswami Reddiyar.

(b) Elected Members.

Abdul Hameed Khan Sahib Bahadur.

Moulvi Hafeez Anumanthakudi Mustapha

Ahmed Vengal Sahib Bahadur.

Rao Sahib A. S. Alagannan Chetti.

S. A. A. Annamalai Chettiyar.

H. B. Ari Gowder.

Divan Bahadur A. Appadurai Pillai.

Basheer Ahmed Sayeed Sahib Bahadur.

P. Barappa Reddi.

S. M. K. B. Balani Sahib Bahadur.

Frank Brierly

J. A. Davis, M.B.E.

K. M. Duraiswami Reddiyar.

Divan Bahadur S. Ellappa Chettiyar.

Divan Bahadur M. Gopalaswami Mudaliyar

A. Harschamirudu Nayudu.

C. Iriraksh.

Raja Velugoti Sarvagaya Kumarakrishna

Yachandra Bahadur Varu Kumara, Raja of Venkatagiri.

J. Kuppaswami Choudari.

L. C. Iswaram Pillai.

P. V. Krishnayya Choudari.

B. Madanagopal Nayudu

Lieut.-Colonel Sri Raja Velugoti Sir Govind

Krishna Yachendru Varu Bahadur,

K.C.I.E., Maharaja of Venkatagiri.

Mahboob Ali Baig Sahib Bahadur.

Khan Bahadur Mahmud Schamnad Sahib Bahadur.

M. A. Manikkavelu Narakar.

J. K. Metherell.

W. H. Mullar.

Divan Bahadur B. Muniswami Nayudu.

Rao Sahib C. Jayaram Nayudu.

K. Kesava Ramamurthi Nayudu.

Khan Bahadur P. Khalif-ul-Jah Sahib Bahadur.

Rai Sahib C. Kolanda Reddi.

ELECTED MEMBERS—(contd)

K. Koti Reddi.
W. K. M. Langley.
Khan Bahadur T. M. Mordoo Sahib Bahadur
P. C. Moses.
K. P. V. S. Muhammad Meera Ravutta-
Bahadur.
Diwan Bahadur A. M. M. Murugappa
Chettiyar.
M. A. Muthiah Chettiyar.
Rao Bahadur P. C. Muthu Chettiyar
K. A. Nachiyappa Gounder.
A. P. N. V. Nadimuthu Pillai
T. Narasa Reddi.
Rao Sahib D. V. Narasimhaswami
V. P. Narayanan Nambiyar
Rao Bahadur T. M. Narayanaswami Pillai
Rao Bahadur C. Natesa Mudaliyar
R. M. Palat
C. B. Parthasarathi Ayyangar
Sriman M. G. Patnaik Mahasaya
Rao Bahadur Sir A. P. Patro, Kt
K. Pattabhiramayya
B. Pocker Sahib Bahadur
Pattagar of Palayakottai
P. Reddi Raju
P. Ratnavelu Thevar
Raja Sri Ramachandra Marda Raja Deo
Garu, Raja of Kallikote
Sri Sri Sri Krishna Chandra Gajapathi
Narayana Deo, Raja of Parlakumedi
P. K. Ramachandra Padayachi
A. Ramakrishna Reddi
Diwan Bahadur T. A. Ramalingam Chettiyar
K. P. Raman Menon
T. S. Ramaswami Ayyar

V. M. Ramaswami Mudaliyar
A. Ranganatha Mudaliyar.
G. Ranganatha Mudaliyar.
M. D. T. Ranganatha Mudaliyar
M. B. Rangaswami Reddi.
Diwan Bahadur C. S. Ratnasabapathi
Mudaliyar
G. Rameswara Rao
I. Sandana Gounder
Rao Bahadur B. P. Sesha Reddi
A. B. Shetty.
Gade, Simhachalam Garu.
K. S. Sivasubrahmanya Ayyar
J. M. Smith
M. S. Sreshta
T. C. Srinivasa Ayyangar
Dr. P. Subbarayan
U. C. Subrahmanya Bhatt
T. Sundara Rao Nayudu.
Khan Sahib, Syed Tajudin Sahib Bahadur.
Thomas Daniel
M. Vedachala Mudaliyar
K. R. Venkatarama Ayyar.
Rao Bahadur R. K. Venugopal Nayudu.
Khan Bahadur Yahya Ali Sahib Bahadur
Yakub Hasan Sahib Bahadur.
T. V. K. Kama Raja Pandia Nayakar,
Zamindar of Bodinayakanur.
Shri Vyricherla Narayana Gajapati Raju,
Zamindar of Chemudu
K. C. M. Venkatachala Reddiyar, Zamindar
of Minampalli
Mirzapuram Rajaguru alias Venkataramay-
ya Appa Rao Bahadur Garu, Zamindar
of Mirzapuram

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Mrs K. Alamelumanga Thayarammal.
V. T. Arasu
C. Basu Dev.
A. V. Bhanoyi Rao
G. T. Boog, C.I.E., I.C.S.
M. Devadason.
Rao Sahib V. Dharmalingam Pillai.
B. Foulkes
H. M. Hood, I.C.S.
H. M. Jagannatham.
C. E. Jones, I.C.S.
Rao Bahadur D. Krishnamurthi
C. Krishnan.
Diwan Bahadur Sir Alladi Krishnaswami
Ayyar, Kt.
P. Madhusoodhanan Thangal

Rao Sahib V. J. Muniswami Pillai
Diwan Bahadur N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar
Subadar-Major S. A. Nanjappa Bahadur.
G. R. Premayya
P. V. Rajagopala Pillai
Rao Sahib Pandit Ganala Ramamurti.
Rao Sahib N. Siva Raj
T. B. Russell, I.C.S.
W. P. A. Soundara Pandian
Rao Bahadur B. Srinivasan.
G. Srinamulu
Rao Sahib P. Subrahmaniam Chetti.
A. S. Swami Sahajanandham
J. A. Thorne, C.I.E., I.C.S.
V. G. Vasudeta Pillai

SPECIAL MEMBERS

Rao Bahadur Khan Bahadur Javad Hussain
D. H. Boulton, I.C.S.

W. Erlam Smith, M.A., I.C.S.
Rao Bahadur K. V. Krishnaswami Ayyar.

and tobacco is grown for local consumption; in nearly every district of Bengal. The area under tea in 1931 was 207,600 acres. There were 923 plantations employing a daily average of 184,539 permanent and 7,410 temporary hands.

Manufacture and Trade—Agriculture is the principal industry of Bengal. In addition to this there are the jute mill industry, the tea industry (confined to the districts of Jalpaiguri including the Dooars and Darjeeling), the coal mining industry and the sugar industry. The jute mills in and around Calcutta and in the tripartite tracts of the districts of Howrah and Hooghly constitute the principal manufacturing industry of the Presidency.

There was some improvement in the jute trade of Bengal (which began to decline since the year 1928-29) due to a rise in the price of raw jute, as a result of the policy of voluntary restriction of jute crop, undertaken by the Government of Bengal.

General.—The world-wide economic depression coupled with the instability of certain foreign exchange continued to affect the normal course of the trade of this province during the year 1933-34, and the total value of private merchandise was the lowest for the last thirty years. Exports were hampered by the low prices offered for raw material and agricultural produce, and by tariff barriers which have been raised in many countries.

The aggregate value of the total trade of the province (excluding treasure) with foreign countries and other Indian ports declined for Rs. 1,22.00 crores in 1932-33 to Rs. 1,20.40 crores during year 1933-34. This decline is due mainly to the fall under imports, which receded from Rs. 37.83 crores in 1932-33 to Rs. 33.28 crore in 1933-34. Foreign exports showed some improvement, viz., from Rs. 56.43 crores in 1932-33 to Rs. 64.12 crores in 1933-34. In the coasting trade there was a general falling off; the imports decline from Rs. 18.90 crores to Rs. 14.15 crore, and exports from Rs. 11.82 crores to Rs. 8.83 crores.

Imports—The imports of liquors of all description declined from 1,599,718 gallons valued at Rs 63 72 lakhs to 1,169,252 gallons valued at Rs 60.42 lakhs. The import trade in sugar has been practically killed by the growth by the Indian industries due to high protective duties, the total quantity imported amounting to 20,930 tons valued at Rs. 70 71 lakhs as against 118,159 tons valued at Rs 1 22 lakh. The total quantity of salt during 1933-34 was considerably less than last year, being 422,992 tons valued at Rs 1,04 47 lakhs as against 528 892 tons valued at Rs 1.21 53 lakhs.

The total quantity of tobacco imported during 1932-33 declined from 3,241,202 lbs. valued at Rs. 44 37 in 1932-33 to 2,696,799 lbs. valued at Rs. 29 57 lakhs. This fall is attributable to a fall in imports in unmanufactured tobacco and to a slight extent in cigarettes, while cigars and other sorts of manufactured tobacco showed a slight increase.

The People.

On the inhabitant int of the Province 27,810,100
 or 74 44 per cent are Mahomedans and
 25 55 56 Hindu. These two major religions
 are 99 99 but 2 00 per cent of the population,
 Christians, Buddhists and Animists combined,
 are 1 01 01

Probably spoken by about two per cent of the population of the Presidency, and Hindi and Urdu 1.7 per cent. The Oriya-speaking population—159,554 and Nepali is the tongue of 134,147 persons principally resident in the Districts of Balasore and Talchur in districts. The greater majority of the speakers of the Mundia languages are found in West and North Bengal.

Industries

[illegible]

There was a further fall in the import of the total quantity of Mineral oils, from 104,693,789 gallons valued at Rs 5,82 05 lakhs in 1932-33 to 89,478,086 gallons valued at Rs 3,86 48 lakhs in 1933-34. Java and Roumania have come in a large suppliers of kerosene oil, largely at the expense of Russia and United States, while the importation from Burma has decreased apparently due to increased production of kerosene on the mainland of India. Petrol from Burma has increased from 4,470,958 gallons valued at Rs 43 80 lakhs to 5,711,724 valued at Rs 32 24 lakhs. It is also noteworthy that while the quantity has increased, the value has decreased, ports of petrol from foreign sources was negligible.

For the first time since 1929-30, the motor vehicles trade showed an improvement, the total number of motor vehicles increasing from 2,007 valued at Rs 37 35 lakhs in 1932-33 to 2,969 valued at Rs 51 09 in 1933-34. Of the 2,354 motor cars imported, the United Kingdom supplied 1,560 Canada, 452 and United States 263. Motor Cycles and scooters showed a decrease from 202 in 1932-33 to 195 in 1933-34, while there was a remarkable increase in the import of motor omnibuses, vans and lorries from 187 in 1932-33 to 440 in 1933-34. Tyres and tubes increased in quantity from 100,531 to 109,590, but decreased in value from Rs 23 88 lakhs in 1932-33 to Rs 21 51 lakhs in 1933-34.

During the year under report, imports of drugs, medicines and chemicals continued to show some improvement from Rs 1,67,13 lakhs in 1932-33 to Rs 1,76 87 lakhs in 1933-34. The total value of glassware and earthenware imports registered a decrease from Rs 47 27 lakhs in last year to Rs 44 45 in the current period.

There was a substantial increase in the import of machinery and millwork to the extent of Rs 4,95 69 lakhs as against Rs 3,81 02 lakhs in 1932-33. Of this imports from the United Kingdom, Germany and other countries contributed largely to the increase in import figure, while those from United States and Belgium marked a decline. Owing to the continued development of the indigenous sugar industry, sugar machinery to the value of Rs 2,13 95 lakhs were imported as against Rs 1,31 53 lakhs in 1932-33. Paper mill machinery, cotton machinery and boilers made notable increases, while jute and tea machineries showed some decline.

The total quantity of imports of iron and steel increased from 102,291 tons valued at Rs 1,61 95 lakhs in 1932-33 to 105 908 tons valued at Rs 1,79 75 lakhs in 1933-34 with the exception of a few items there was a general increase in the value of articles of iron and steel. The United Kingdom continues to have the largest shares of the iron and steel trade, which was responsible for increasing the value of the United Kingdom trades by about 16 per cent. On the other hand the trade with Belgium, Germany and the United States of America decreased. The figures for protected and non-protected goods are 56,896 tons valued at Rs 94 72 lakhs and 49,072 tons valued at Rs 85 08 lakhs respectively. Metals and ores other than iron and steel recorded some decrease

from 530 687 cwts. valued at Rs 1,42 06 lakhs to 508 283 cwts valued at Rs 1,41 60 lakhs. In this trade United Kingdom has maintained a leading position as supplier of aluminium, articulation metal and bracs. Considerable quantities of copper have been imported from U.S.A. and from Portuguese East Africa.

Imports of paper showed an increase from 601,943 cwts valued at Rs 68 86 to 613,782 cwts valued at Rs 70 88 lakhs. The quantity and value of pasteboard, millboard, etc., decreased from 129,975 cwts. valued at Rs 12 48 crores to 118,420 crores valued at Rs 11 01 lakhs. The imports of wood pulp show a considerable increase over 1932-33 viz, from 233,181 cwts valued at Rs 19 75 lakhs to 365,693, cwts valued at Rs 24 05 lakhs.

The total value of cotton piecegoods imported showed a decline from Rs 5,44 68 lakhs to Rs 3,19 22 lakhs in 1933-34, and the quantity from 351,101,868 lbs to 204,904,098 lbs in 1933-34. The quantity and value of cotton twist and yarn also showed a decrease from 16,018,061 lbs at Rs 1,10 63 lakhs to 15,351,012 lbs at Rs 1,04 49 lakhs during the period under review. The total value of all classes of cotton goods showed a great decline from Rs 7,12 56 lakhs in 1932-33 to Rs 4,86 17 lakhs in 1933 34. The only item that registered an increase is other cotton fabrics from Rs 57 24 lakhs to Rs 62 46 lakhs, while piecegoods and cotton manufactures fell heavily from Rs 5,44 68 lakhs and Rs 6,01 92 lakhs to Rs 3,19 22 lakhs and Rs 3,81 68 lakhs respectively. China and Japan were the chief suppliers of cotton twist and yarn, while United Kingdom came next in order. Japan was the chief supplier of every variety of cotton piecegoods except grey-bordered and white dunties which came chiefly from the United Kingdom.

During year under report silk and artificial silk of the total value of Rs 26 53 lakhs were imported as against Rs 50 05 lakhs in 1932-33. There was a general decrease in all kinds of silk. In all these varieties Japan was the principal supplier. Italy came next in the supply of artificial silk, and United Kingdom figured third. The respective figures for silk, mixed-silk, and artificial silk piecegoods are Rs 3 56, Rs 4 13 and Rs 26 53 lakhs.

The total value of woollen goods imported during the year under report remained practically the same viz, Rs 46 83 lakhs as against Rs 46 75 lakhs in 1932-33. Italy's share of import, however, diminished, while that of United Kingdom increased. The figures for the year were: brads 2,360 lbs valued at Rs 05 lakhs, carpets, rugs and blankets 2,992,827 lbs. valued at Rs 15 550 lakhs, hosiery 106 667 lbs valued at Rs 3 95 lakhs, piecegoods 20,81,709 lbs valued at Rs 2,129 lakhs, shawls 34,706 lbs valued at Rs 1 34 lakhs; yarn and knitting wool 294,676 lbs valued at Rs 3 95 lakhs; and other sorts 74,350 lbs valued at Rs 75 lakhs.

Of the articles of minor importance, the articles to show improvement in imports, were lac from Rs 56 lakhs to Rs 11 23 lakhs in consequence of a recovery of trade from the Straits Settlements, living animals from Australia increased by Rs 11 37 lakhs, Railway carriages increased by Rs 9 92 lakhs, toys and requisites for games by Rs 4 56 lakhs, Manures by Rs 5 53 lakhs, rubber by Rs 4 07 lakhs, tea chests, by Rs 4 99 lakhs, and instruments, etc by Rs 2 58 lakhs. The trade in umbrella and umbrella fittings remained almost steady. Japan increasing her share at the expense of Germany, on the other hand there were heavy falls in imports of jewellery by Rs 28 lakhs, grain, pulse and flour by Rs 17 61 lakhs for which wheat from Australia was mainly responsible and non-mineral oils by Rs 16 39 lakhs, due to lesser imports of coconut oil from Ceylon. Precious stones decreased by Rs 6 88 lakhs, hardware by Rs 4 48 lakhs and the value of unspecified articles imported by post fell from Rs 65 03 lakhs to Rs 60 86 lakhs.

Exports—The Foreign Export Trade of Bengal marked a tangible increase from Rs 56 43 crores to Rs 64 12 crores in 1933-34, which is due to a general revival in world trade during the period under review.

There was a sharp decline in the total export of grain, pulse and flour the total quantity and value falling from 170,122 tons and Rs 1 62 27 lakhs in 1932-33 to 131 800 tons and Rs 1,17 77 lakhs in 1933-34. The average shipment price per ton of husked rice, wheat and wheat flour fell from Rs 108-9, Rs 126-5 and Rs 130-1 to Rs 85-2, Rs 106-1 and Rs 98-4 respectively. Mauritius, as usual, purchased the biggest quantity of rice, South Africa, Arabia, Netherlands and Ceylon coming off next successively.

The total quantity of Tea exported to foreign countries decreased from 328,824,700 lbs in 1932-33 to 270,822,026 lbs but the value increased from Rs 12,53 26 lakhs to Rs 15 53 84 lakhs. The restriction scheme is responsible for an improvement in the prices of tea, and reduced shipments to most countries were the concomitant of the restriction scheme. United Kingdom was the largest consumer of Indian Tea, while Canada, United States and Africa came next in order. Tea Cey was raised from 6 annas to 8 annas per 100 lbs from 16th September 1933. The value of tea machinery imported, amounted to Rs 5,96,317 which was even less than half the value in 1932-33.

There was a decline in the export of coal to foreign countries, i.e., from 451,364 tons valued at Rs 11 68 lakhs to 372,598 tons valued at Rs 37 10 lakhs in 1933-34. This is chiefly due to the depression prevailing in the Bengal Coal trade.

The total quantity of lac exported during 1933-34 is 727,247 cwts. valued at Rs 2,45 40 lakhs as against 415,550 cwts valued at Rs 1,23 11 lakhs in 1932-33.

There was an appreciable increase in the India and China trade of Bengal, the corresponding figure for 1932-33 and 1933-34 being 15,417 tons valued at Rs 1,96 85 lakhs and 25,174 tons valued at Rs 2,92 47 lakhs.

The total value of metals and ores exported showed a slight fall from Rs 1,59 04 lakhs in 1932-33 to Rs 1,58 60 in 1933-34, but the total quantity exported registered a considerable increase from 483,094 tons to 644,254 tons. In Manganese ore trade, although a slight decline from 187,224 tons to 134,613 is recorded, the reduction in prices marked a good reduction from Rs 37 29 lakhs to Rs 24 80 lakhs. The United Kingdom and Japan have increased their takings while shipments to France and Belgium, usually two of the principal purchasers of this ore, fell considerably. There was a considerable increase in the export of pig iron, Japan alone taking 183,832 tons as against 71,371 tons in 1932-33, but there was no proportionate increase in value.

The export trade in mica also showed a good increase from 34,354 cwts valued at Rs 26 03 lakhs to 55,697 cwts valued at Rs 35 59 lakhs. While United Kingdom her share in the trade, demand from the United States of America greatly increased from 7,881 cwts in 1932-33 to 26,529 cwts in 1933-34, but prices, however, failed to keep pace with the increase in the volume of trade. United States and United Kingdom contributed to more than three-fourths of the volume of the export trade.

The total value of oil-seeds, vegetable oils and oil-cakes exported during the year was Rs 2,39 36 lakhs as against Rs 1,07 80 lakhs in 1932-33. There has been a striking increase in the export trade in linseed to the United Kingdom, viz., 124,811 tons valued at Rs 1,36 96 lakhs in 1933-34 as against 13,950 tons valued at Rs 15 80 lakhs in the preceding year. This must be due largely to the Imperial Preference granted by the United Kingdom as a result of the Ottawa Agreement. Castor Seed, Tea seeds and other seeds marked a decrease while vegetable oils increased from 383,832 gallons to 463,928 tons.

Shipments of raw cotton showed a good increase from 3,749 tons valued at Rs 21 83 lakhs to 8,548 tons valued at Rs 40 68 lakhs during the period. United States and Japan contributed chiefly to this increase the respective quantities and values being 3,011 tons and Rs 15 10 lakhs and 3,038 tons and Rs 14 62 lakhs as against 849 tons and Rs 5 27 lakhs and 407 tons and Rs 1 95 lakhs in 1932-33.

The exports of hemp increased from 201,050 cwts valued at Rs 22 69 lakhs to 297,038 cwts valued at Rs 24 07 lakhs during the period under review.

The total shipments of jute during 1933-34 was 1,372,987 tons valued at Rs 31,49 86 lakhs as against 1,220,984 tons valued at Rs 31,00,11 in 1932-33. This increase in trade is attributable to a general increase in demand and to a considerable extent the efforts made by the Government of Bengal in the direction of restriction of acreage under jute crop. Excepting gunny-bags which fell from 397,504 tons to 380,618 all other items under jute and jute manufactures registered an increase in quantity, while the prices realised for jute manufactures was less than last year. The total quantity of raw jute exported during year increased from 542,462 tons valued at

at Rs. 9,34.70 lakhs to 701.842 tons valued at Rs 10,16 58 Germany taking the largest quantity and United Kingdom, France and Italy coming off next.

The total export of myrobalam, myrobalam extracts and other sorts also showed an increase, viz, 541,466 cwts as against 499,190 cwts in 1932-33, but the value fell from Rs 29 57 lakhs to Rs 24 64 lakhs in 1933-34. This rise in quantity is due mainly to greater off take from United Kingdom, France, Germany and U S A.

Of the other items, opium has recorded a large increase from Rs 11 24 lakhs to Rs 72 64 lakhs which was principally due to shipments to Siam, while exports of parrin wax fell by Rs 25 64 lakhs owing to diminished demand from Portuguese East Africa. Shipments of raw wool and woollen manufactures, Indian leather, exports of manures, saltpetre and apparel increased while spices, provisions and oilman's stores decreased.

Trade of Chittagong—Chittagong is the only other foreign trade port of Bengal. The total value of the import into this port from foreign countries amounted to Rs 70 12 lakhs in 1933-34 as against Rs 72 46 lakhs in the last year. This decline is due to a general fall in imports excepting Building and Engineering materials and a few other items.

Coasting Trade of Bengal—The trade of Calcutta with other Indian ports, British and non-British, declined in value from Rs 30 72 crores in 1932-33 to Rs 22 99 crores in 1933-34. The respective import and export trade figures are Rs 14 03 crores and Rs 8 83 crores in 1933-34 as against Rs 18 78 crores and Rs 11 82 crores in 1932-33.

Administration.

The present form of administration in Bengal, dates from January 1921. In 1912 the Government of the Province underwent an important change, when, in accordance with the Proclamation of His Majesty the King-Emperor at Delhi, the Province was raised from the status of a Lieutenant-Governor to that of a Governor-in-Council, thus bringing it into line with the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay. In 1921, under the Reform Scheme, the Local Government was reconstituted, certain of the departments being placed under the control of Ministers appointed from among elected members of the Legislative Council. There are normally four members of the Executive Council who are in charge of the "reserved subjects", and three Ministers, who are in charge of the "transferred subjects."

Bengal is administered by five Commissioners, the divisions being those of the Presidency, Burdwan, Rayahah, Dacca and Chittagong. The unit of administration is the District Magistrate and Collector. As Collector he supervises the ingathering of the revenue and is the head of all the Departments connected with it, while as District Magistrate he is responsible for the administration of criminal justice in the district. The immediate superior of the District Magistrate is the Divisional Commissioner. Commissioners are the channels of communication

between the local officers and the Government. In certain revenue matters they are, in their turn, subject to the Board of Revenue in Calcutta; in other matters they are under the direct control of Government.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to the High Court of Calcutta which consists of the Chief Justice who is a Barrister and 15 Puisne Judges including one additional judge who are Barristers, Civilians or Vakils. Below the High Court are the District and Additional Judges, the Small Causes Court and Subordinate Judges and Munsifs. Of these officers, the District and Additional Judges and a certain number of Subordinate Judges are also endowed with the powers of a Criminal Court while the remainder have jurisdiction in Civil matters only. Criminal Justice is administered by the High Court, the Courts of Session and the Courts of the various classes of Magistrates. On its appellate side, the High Court disposes of appeals from the order of a Court of Session, and it also confirms, modifies or annuls sentences of death passed by Sessions Courts. Calcutta has six Stipendiary Presidency Magistrates, including one temporary Additional Magistrate in charge of the Traffic Court. One of the Presidency Magistrates is in charge of the Children's Court, is helped by Hony. Women Magistrates. It has also two Municipal Magistrates and it possesses a Court of Small Causes with Judges who dispose of cases of the class that are usually heard in County Courts in England.

In addition a number of Union Benches and Courts have been established in selected rural areas for the disposal by honorary agency of petty criminal cases and civil disputes.

Local Self-Government.

By Bengal Act III of 1884, and its subsequent amendments, which hitherto regulated municipal bodies in the interior, the powers of Commissioner of municipalities were increased and the elective franchise was extended. Bengal Act III of 1884 was repealed by Act XV of 1932 by which material changes have been introduced, e.g., the franchise of the electors have been further widened, women have been enfranchised, the proportion of elected commissioners has been increased and the term of office of the Commissioner has been extended from three to four years. Municipal expenditure now comprises a large number of objects, including veterinary institutions, employment of health officer, vaccinators and sanitary inspectors, the training and employment of female medical practitioners, the provision of model dwelling houses for the working classes, the holding of industrial, sanitary and health exhibitions and the improvement of breed of cattle. The Commissioners also have large powers in regard to the water supply and the regulation of buildings.

The Municipal Government of Calcutta is governed by Act III of 1923. This Act, which replaces Act III of 1899, makes the Corporation paramount in matters relating to municipal administration. The Act provides for the appointment of a Mayor, who replaces the chairman of the old Act, a Deputy Mayor, and Executive Officer, and Deputy Executive Officer.

all elected by the Corporation. The appointment of the Chief Executive Officer is subject to the approval of Government. The total number of councillors, after the enactment of the Calcutta Municipal (Second Amendment) Act, 1932, is 61 with 4 Aldermen elected by the Councilors. Of the 61 seats, 34 are elected, of which 21 are reserved for Muhammadans. Ten of the councillors are nominated by Government and the rest elected by the general or special constituencies. In order to improve the sanitary and congested areas of the city, the Calcutta Improvement Trust has been created with extensive powers. In the municipal, district and local boards exercise considerable powers, with regard to public works, education and medical relief.

Bengal Act V of 1919 introduces the new system of self-government by the creation of village authorities vested with the powers and duties necessary for the management of village affairs and entrusted with powers of self-taxation. The new village authority, called the union board, replaces gradually the old chaukidari panchayats and the union committees and deals with the village police, village roads, water supply, sanitation, primary schools and dispensaries. The Act also empowers Government to create out of the members of the union boards, village benches and courts for the trial of petty criminal and civil cases arising within the union. The Act has been extended to all districts in the Presidency except Midnapore and up to March 1933 over 4,701 Union Boards were actually constituted.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department consists of Public Works and Railway Departments and is under the charge of Secretary to Government in the Department of Agriculture and Industries.

The Public Works Department deals with questions regarding the construction of public buildings and roads.

The Railway Department deals with questions regarding acquisition of lands required by the several Railways, the alignment of new lines of Railways, and with Railway projects.

There is a Chief Engineer who is the principal professional advisor of Government.

Marine.

The Marine Department deals with questions connected with the administration of the port of Calcutta and inland navigation, including the control and administration of Government launches except the police launches, and the Government Dockyard, Narayanganj.

Irrigation.

The Irrigation Department deals with irrigation, navigation, flood protection by means of embankments and drainage, the latter including relief from congestion of drainage by regulating the available supplies of water to suit the requirements of agriculture combined with the supply of water for irrigation in cases in which a supply is available.

Police.

The Bengal Police force comprises the Military Police, the District Police, the Railway Police, and the River Police. The Bengal Police are under the control of the Inspector General of Police, the present Inspector General being a member of the Imperial Police Service. Under him are Deputy Inspectors General for the Dacca Range, the Patshahi Range, the Presidency Range, the Burdwan Range and the Bisharkganj Range and also one Deputy Inspector General in charge of the C.I.D. and the Intelligence Branch. Each district has a chief of a Superintendent, and some of the more important districts have one or more Additional Superintendents. The Railway Police is divided into three districts, each under a Superintendent. The River Police is also under a Superintendent. The cadre comprises Assistant Superintendents, Deputy Superintendents, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. There is also a Village Police, composed of daffars and chowkidars, who receive a monthly salary which is collected from the village or union by the Panchayat or Union Board. There is a training college and school of speech in the district of Rajshahi where newly appointed officers and men of the Bengal Police learn their duties. The Calcutta City Police is a separate force maintained by Government under a Commissioner who is responsible direct to Government. The Commissioner has under him Deputy Commissioners, Assistant Commissioners, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. A school for the training of recruits for the Calcutta Police Force has been established at Calcutta. The annual cost of the Police is over 277 lakhs.

The head of the Medical Department is the Surgeon General with the Government of Bengal. In the districts the Civil Surgeons are responsible for medical work. There are 41 hospitals and dispensaries in Calcutta, 11 of which are supported by the Government and 560,510 persons were treated at these institutions of whom 37,177 were in-patients. In the Mofussil districts there are 1,200 hospitals and dispensaries, the number of patients treated in them as well as in several huts, fairs, melas, out-patient and temporary dispensaries and in various medical centres was 9,083,216.

Education.

In the Presidency of Bengal education is imparted partly through Government agency and partly through private bodies, assisted to some extent by Government grants-in-aid. Government maintains four Arts Colleges in Calcutta (of which one is a college for women, one is for Muhammadans and one the Sanskrit College), one at Hughli, one at Krishnagar, three, including the Islamic Inter College, at Dacca, one at Rajshahi and one at Chittagong. It also maintains two training colleges, one at Calcutta and one at Dacca, for teachers who teach in secondary schools through the medium of English, and 6 normal schools, one in each division, for the training of teachers in secondary schools who teach through the

medium of the vernacular also an engineering college at Sibpur and an engineering school at Dacca, two medical colleges, a veterinary college, a school of art and a commercial school in Calcutta, and a weaving school at Serampore. It also provides at the headquarters of all districts except Burdwan and Midnapore, and also at certain other mofussil centres, English high schools for the education of boys, while to some Government Arts Colleges high schools are attached. In Calcutta there are five Government high schools for boys, two of which are attached to the Presidency College and one to the Sanskrit College. Government high schools for girls exist only in the headquarters stations of Calcutta, Dacca, Mymensingh, Comilla and Chittagong. The other secondary schools, with the exception of a few middle schools managed either by Government or by municipal and district boards, are under private control. The administration of primary education in all areas, which are not under municipalities, rests with the district boards, grants being given from provincial revenues to the boards, which contribute only slightly from their own funds. Only in backward localities are such schools either entirely managed, or directly aided, by Government. Apart from the institutions referred to above, 80 institutions called Guru Training Schools are maintained by the Department for the training of primary school teachers. For the education of Mahomedans, there are senior Madrasas at Calcutta, Dacca, Chittagong, Hughli and Rajshahi which are managed by Government. There are also certain Government institutions for technical and industrial education. All institutions for technical and industrial education (except B E College, the Ahsanullah School of Engineering, Dacca, the Government Commercial Institute and the Government School of Art, Calcutta) are now under the control of the Director of Industries. A large proportion of educational work of every grade is under the control of various missionary bodies, which are assisted by Government grants-in-aid.

The municipalities are required to expend a certain proportion of their ordinary income on education. They are mainly responsible for primary education within their jurisdiction, but schools in these areas are eligible also for grants from Government. These bodies maintain a high school at Burdwan, a high school at Santipur, a high school at Kushtia and a high school at Chittagong.

In 1932-33 there were in the Presidency.—

RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS FOR MALES

	Institu- tions	Scholars
Universities	2	1,857
Arts Colleges	45	20,867
Professional Colleges	15	5,040
High Schools	1,122	269,309
Middle Schools	1,864	161,599
Primary Schools	44,623	1,620,101
Special Schools	2,818	119,103

RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS FOR FEMALES

Arts Colleges	6	508
Professional Colleges	3	51
High Schools	64	16,287
Middle Schools	71	8,892
Primary Schools	18,076	466,745
Special Schools	44	2,162

UNRECOGNISED SCHOOLS

Males	1,243	51,327
Females	311	11,377

The Department is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, assisted by an Assistant Director, a special officer appointed temporarily, an Assistant Director for Muhammadan Education and a Director of Physical Education. Each division is in charge of a Divisional Inspector assisted by a certain number of Additional or Second Inspector and Assistant Inspectors for Mahomedan Education according to the requirements of the several divisions. Similarly the administrative charge of the primary education of each district is in the hands of a District Inspector assisted by Sub-Divisional Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of Schools, the latter class of officers being in some instances helped by officers of humbler status, called Assistant Sub-Inspectors and Inspecting Pandits and Maulvis. High education is controlled by the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca established in 1857 and 1921, respectively administered by the Chancellor (the Governor of Bengal), the Vice-Chancellor (appointed by Government) and a number of ex-officio, elected and nominated fellows. The University of Calcutta maintains a Law College, called University Law College, Calcutta. Dacca University also has a Law Department attached to it. Calcutta University is mainly an examining body, but it has now made itself responsible for advanced teaching for which purpose it employs an agency which is mainly distinct from the staffs of the affiliated Colleges.

The percentage of scholars to the total populations —

	Recognised Schools	All Schools
Males	8.46	8.66
Females	2.46	2.72
Total	5.58	5.71

The University at Dacca is of the residential type. There is a Board for Secondary and Intermediate Education at Dacca. It conducts the Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations for the students of Institutions at Dacca and also the Islamic Matriculations and Intermediate Examinations.

The Education of Europeans is mainly conducted by private agency, assisted by Government grants. Government however maintain a special Inspector and also a school for boys, a school for girls (both residential) at Kuron, and attached to the latter a Training College (for women only).

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL.

Estimated Revenue for 1931-35

Heads of Revenue.	The figures are in Thousands of Rs.	
	Sanctioned Estimate	Sanctioned Estimate
	1931-34	1931-35
	Rs.	Rs.
Salt	5,50	2,00
Land Revenue	3,12,38	3,15,16
Excise	1,30,00	1,12,00
Stamps	3,00,00	2,04,00
Forest	15,50	15,25
Registration	10,00	10,00
Scheduled Taxes	11,00	12,50
Subsidised Companies	30	35
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	-1,56	-0,40
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	1,79	2,60
Interest	4,31	3,98
Administration of Justice	13,01	12,54
Jails and Convict Settlements	7,90	6,81
Police	10,93	11,15
Ports and Pilotage	91	77
Education	13,52	13,69
Medical	10,25	9,97
Public Health	1,38	1,97
Agriculture	6,21	5,46
Industries	8,03	7,98
Miscellaneous Departments	16,06	13,04
Civil Works	14,38	18,82
Transfer from Famine Relief Funds	56	50
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	1,28	1,30
Stationery and Printing	5,25	4,50
Miscellaneous	9,14	8,29

Estimated Revenue for 1931-35—contd

Heads of Revenue	The figures are in Thousands of Rs.	
	Sanctioned Estimate	Sanctioned Estimate
	1931-34	1931-35
	Rs.	Rs.
Miscellaneous Adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments	.	1,44
Extraordinary receipts	1,09	1,09
Receipts in England	1	3
Total Revenue receipts	9,27,73	9,19,17
Transfer from Famine Relief Fund	.	50
Famine Relief Fund	57	54
Deposit Account Imperial Council of Agricultural Research	10	61
Depreciation Fund for Government presses	1,00	211
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India	22,51	25,66
Appropriation for Redemption or Avoidance of Debt	1,45,07	1,94,18
Subvention from Central Road Development Account	9,40	211
Suspense	13,70	13,70
Recovery of loans and advances by the Government of Bengal.	5,30	5,50
Total Receipts on Capital Account	15,92	9,67
	2,03,88	2,50,76
Total	11,91,61	11,70,23
Total Opening balance	12,78	12,86
Grand Total	12,04,39	11,83,09

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1934-35

Heads of Expenditure	The figures are in Thousands of Rs	
	Sanctioned Estimate	Sanctioned Estimate
	1933-34	1934-35
	Rs.	Rs
Land Revenue	40,73	36,97
Excise	17,77	17,24
Stamps	4,82	4,95
Forest	15,84	14,48
Forest capital outlay charged to Revenue	48	29
Registration	18,32	17,21
Scheduled taxes	5	5
Interest on works for which capital accounts are kept	18,81	24,28
Irrigation—Other Revenue expenditure financed from ordinary revenues	14,68	10,05
Irrigation,—Other Revenue expenditure financed from Famine Relief Grants		
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works	—1	36
Interest on ordinary debt	12,15	14,07
Interest on other obligations	3	5
Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	9,30	
General Administration	1,22,49	1,23,08
Administration of Justice	98,14	95,48
Jails and Convict Settlements	50,01	44,89
Police	2,27,37	2,24,65
Ports and Pilotage	4,78	5,68
Scientific Departments	30	20
Education	Reserved	12,54
	Transferred	1,15,75
Medical	50,71	49,41
Public Health	39,77	36,98
Agriculture	24,83	23,80
Industries	12,05	12,21
Miscellaneous Departments	2,01	2,22
Civil Works	81,35	94,03
Famine Relief	56	56
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	53,60	58,45
Commutation of pensions financed from ordinary revenues		Nil
Stationery and Printing	20,52	18,95
Miscellaneous	21,29	23,49
Expenditure in England	41,20	41,00
Total expenditure from ordinary revenue	11,32,24	11,28,69

Heads of Expenditure	The figures are in Thousands of Rs	
	Sanctioned Estimate	Sanctioned Estimate
	1933-34	1934-35
	Rs	Rs
Forest capital outlay not charged to Revenue—In England		
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works not charged to Revenue	In India 13,24	6,93
	In England 20	12
Civil works not charged to Revenue	In India 1,80	33
	In England	
Commuted value of pension (not charged to revenue)	6,50	5,72
Famine Relief Fund	56	56
Deposit Account—Imperial Council of Agricultural Research	49	61
Depreciation Fund for Government presses	1 41	23
Repayments to the Government of India of Advances from Provincial Loans Fund	9,30	
Subvention from Central Road Development Account	8,64	12,38
Suspense	5,20	5,00
Loans and Advances by the Government of Bengal	12,02	8,78
Total expenditure on Capital account	59,36	41,86
Total expenditure	11,01,60	11,70,55
Closing balance in Famine Relief Fund	12,79	12,54
Other closing balances
Total closing balance	12,79	12,54
GRAND TOTAL	12,04,39	11,83,09

Administration

GOVERNOR AND PRESIDENT IN COUNCIL.

His Excellency The Right Hon Sir John Anderson, P.C., G.O.B., G.C.I.E

PERSONAL STAFF

Private Secretary, N V H Symons, I.C.S.

Military Secretary, Colonel R B Butler, O.B.E., M.C.

Honorary Physicians —It-Col J. D Sandes, I.M.S., Civil Surgeon of Darjeeling

Assistant Surgeon, Dr B A Irvine

Aides-de-Camp, Capt L H Methuan O.B.E., M.C.
The Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders,
Lieut A P Sikes, The King's Royal Rifle Corps,
Lieut E W H Worrall, The Somerset Light Infantry.

ADMINISTRATION—contd

Hony Aides-de-Camp —

Sardar Bashadur S. W. Loden I.A., O.B.E.
 Lieut-Col A. H. Bishop, M.C. V.D., Com-
 manding The Calcutta Presidency Battalion.
 Lieut-Col J. A. Polwhele, V.D., Command-
 ing Northern Bengal Mounted Rifles
 Captain L. W. R. T. Turbott, O.B.E., R.I.M.,
 Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Dept.
 Lieut-Col W. R. Elliot, M.C., Commanding
 the Calcutta Scottish

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Bisaldar Ishar Singh,
 Hudson's Horse

Hony Indian Aide-de-Camp, Honorary Lieut
 Gobordhan Gurung, Subedar Major, Late of
 2-10th Gurkha Rifles

*Commandant, H. E. The Governor's Body
 Guard*—Captain T. M. Lunham, Poona Horse
 (17th Queen Victoria's Own Cavalry)

Superintendent, H. E. Governor's Estates —
 E. F. Watson.

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Sir B. L. Mitter, Kt., K.C.S.I.
 The Hon'ble Khwaja Sir Nazimuddin, K.O.F.,
 Bar-at-Law
 The Hon. Mr. R. N. Reid, C.S.I., O.I.E., I.C.S.
 The Hon. Sir J. A. Woodhead, C.I.L., I.C.S.

MINISTERS

The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur M. Azlul Haque
 (Education)
 The Hon. Nawab Kazi Ghulam Mohiuddin
 Faruqi, Khan Bahadur (Public Works and
 Industries)
 The Hon. Sir Bijoy Prasad Singh Roy, Kt.

(LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT)

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

The Hon. Raja Sir Manmatha Nath Ray Chau-
 dhuri, Kt., of Santosh (President)
 Mr. Razur Rahman Khan, B.L. (Dy. President)
 J. W. McKay, I.S.O., (Secretary)

SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary to Government, E. N. Blandy,
 (Offg.)
Deputy Secretary and Press Officer, B. R. Sen,
 I.C.S.
Secretary, Revenue Department, O. M. Martin,
 I.C.S.
*Secretary, Finance, Commerce and Marine Depart-
 ments*, D. Gladding, I.C.S.
Secretary, Legislative Department, A. de C.
 Williams, I.C.S.
Secretary, Agriculture and Industries, J. D. V.
 Hodge, O.I.E., I.C.S.
Secretary, L. S. G. Dept., G. S. Dutt, I.C.S.
Secretary, Judicial Department, N. G. A. Edgley
 I.C.S., Bar-at-Law.
Secretary, Education Department, J. M. Bottom-
 ley, B.A. (Oxon), I.E.S.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS

Member, Board of Revenue—F. A. Sachse, O.I.E.,
 I.C.S.
Director of Public Instruction, A. K. Chanda
 (Offg.)
Director of Public Health, Dr. R. B. Khambata.
Inspector-General of Police, T. J. A. Craig.
Commissioner, Calcutta Police, L. H. Colson.

Surgeon-General, Lt.-Col. T. C. Boyd, F.R.C.S.I.,
 etc (Offg.)

Collector of Customs, Calcutta, W. J. Ward, B.A.

Commissioner of Excise and Salt, S. K. Haklar,
 I.C.S.

Accountant-General, J. C. Nixon, I.C.S., O.I.E.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. R. E.
 Flowerden, I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, Ral Bahadur P. N. Mukerji,
 O.B.E.

Inspector-General of Registration, Khan Bahadur
 Shamsuddin Ahmad, B.L.

Director of Agriculture, K. McLean, (Offg.)

Director of Industries, A. T. Weston, M.A.,
 M.I.C.I., etc.

Rural Development Commissioner, H.P.V.
 Townsend, I.C.S.

Protector of Emigrants, Lt.-Col. Arthur Denham
 White, I.M.S., M.D.

Superintendent, Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta,
 C. C. Calder

Labour Commissioner, R. L. Walker, I.C.S.

Reforms Commissioner, R. N. Gheerist, C.I.F.,
 I.E.S.

Curator of Herbarium, Royal Botanic Gardens,
 Kalipada Biswas

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF BENGAL

Frederick Y. Halliday	1854
John P. Grant	1859
Cecil Beadon	1862
William Grey	1867
George Campbell	1871
Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I.	1874
The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I.	1877
Sir Stewart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I. (Offg.)	1879
A. Rivers Thompson, C.S.I., O.I.E.	1883
H. A. Cockerell, C.S.I. (Officiating)	1885
Sir Stuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I., O.I.E.	1887
Sir Charles Alfred Elliott, K.C.S.I.	1890
Sir A. P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (Offg.)	1893
Sir Alexander Mackenzie, K.C.S.I.	1895
Retired 6th April 1898	
Charles Cecil Stevens, C.S.I. (Offg.)	1897
Sir John Woodburn, K.C.S.I.	1898
Died, 21st November 1902	
J. A. Bourdillon, C.S.I. (Officiating)	1902
Sir A. H. Leith Fraser, K.C.S.I.	1903
Lancelot Hare, C.S.I., O.I.E. (Offg.)	1904
F. A. Slacke (Officiating)	1904
Sir E. N. Baker, K.C.S.I.	1904
Retired 21st September 1911	
F. W. Duke, C.S.I. (Officiating)	1911

The Office of Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal
 was abolished on April 1st, 1912, when Bengal
 was raised to a Governorship

GOVERNORS OF THE PRESIDENCY OF BENGAL
 WILLIAM III BENGAL

The Rt. Hon. Baron Carmichael of Skirling, G.O.I.E., K.O.M.G.	1912
The Rt. Hon. Earl of Ronaldshay, G.O.I.E.	1917
The Rt. Hon. Lord Lytton	1922
The Rt. Hon. Sir Stanley Jackson, P.O., G.O.I.E.	1927
The Rt. Hon. Sir John Anderson, P.O., G.O.B., G.O.I.E.	1931

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Raja Sir Manmatha Nath Ray Chaudhuri, Kt., of Santosh, *President.*

Razur Rahman Khan, B L, *Deputy President*

Secretary - Mr J. W McKay, I S O

Asst Secretary Mr. K Ali Afzal, Bar-at-Law.

MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Ex-officio—

The Hon'ble Sir John Woodhead, KCSI, CIE, IOS

" " Mr R N Reid, CSI, CIE, IOS

" " Sir Brijendra Lal Mitter, KCSI

" " Khwaja Sir Nazimuddin, K O I E

MINISTERS

Elected—

The Hon'ble Nawab K G M Farouqi, Khan Bahadur.

" " Sir Bijoy Prasad Singh Roy, Kt

" " Khan Bahadur M Azizul Haque

Official Nominated Members—

Mr E N Blandy, CIE

Mr G S Dutt

Mr D Gladding

Mr N G. A Edgley

Mr. H P V Townsend

Mr J D V Hodge, CIE

Mr O M Martan

Mr H R Wilkinson, CIE

Mr A DeO Williams

Mr B R Sen

Mr E N Gilchrist, CIE

Rai Mohendra Nath Gupta Bahadur

Mr J M Bottomley

Mr S O Mitter

Nominated Non-Officials—

Rev. B A Nag

Rai Sahib Rebati Mohan Sarkar

K C. Ray Chaudhuri

Maulvi Latafat Hussain

D J Cohen

Khan Bahadur Maulvi Hafizar Rahman Chaudhuri

P N. Guha

Mukunda Behary Mullick

Elected Members.

Name of Members.

Name of Constituency.

Babu Jatindra Nath Basu	Calcutta North (Non-Muhammadan)
Mr. S. M. Bose, Bar-at-Law	Calcutta East (Non-Muhammadan).
Seth Hunuman Prosad Poddar	Calcutta West (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Dr. Haridhan Dutt Bahadur . . .	Calcutta Central (Non-Muhammadan)
Sir Hari Sankar Paul, Kt	Calcutta South Central (Non-Muhammadan).
Dr Sir Nilratan Sircar, Kt, M.D .. .	Calcutta South (Non-Muhammadan).
Munindra Deb, Rai Mahasai . . .	Hooghly Municipal (Non-Muhammadan)
Dr Amulya Ratan Ghose . . .	Howrah Municipal (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Profulla Kumar Guha	24-Parganas Municipal, North (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Jogesh Chandra Sen Bahadur	24-Parganas Municipal, South (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai S K. Das Bahadur . . .	Dacca City (Non-Muhammadan)
Mr Sallieswar Singh Roy . . .	Burdwan North (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Jitendralal Bannerjee . . .	Birbhum (Non-Muhammadan)
Mr J. N Gupta, CIE, MBE . . .	Bankura West (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Satya Kinkar Sahana Bahadur	Bankura East (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Hoseni Rout . . .	Midnapore North (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr R. Maiti, Bar-at-Law . . .	Midnapore South (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Sahib Sarat Chandra Mukhopadhya	Midnapore South-East (Non-Muhammadan)
Rai Satish Chandra Mukharyl Bahadur	Hooghly Rural (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Haribansa Roy .. .	Howrah Rural (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Sarat Chandra Mittra . . .	24-Parganas Rural Central (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. P Banerji .. .	24-Parganas Rural South (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Debendra Nath Ballabh Bahadur . .	24-Parganas Rural North (Non-Muhammadan).

Name of Members	Name of Constituency.
Mr Narendra Kumar Basu .	Nadia (Non-Muhammadan)
Sriyut Taj Bahadur Singh . . .	Murshidabad (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Amulyadhan Roy .	Jessore South (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Jitendra Nath Roy ..	Jessore North (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Suk Lal Nag	Khulna (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Keshab Chandra Banarji Bahadur .	Dacca Rural (Non-Muhammadan)
Dr Naresh Chandra Sen Gupta .	Mymensingh West (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Satish Chandra Ray Chowdhuri, B L	Mymensingh East (Non-Muhammadan)
Rai Sahib Akshoy Kumar Sen .	Faridpur North (Non-Muhammadan)
Rai Sahib Sarat Chandra Bai .	Faridpur South (Non-Muhammadan)
Mr B C Chatterjee, Bar-at-Law	Bakarganj North (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Lalit Kumar Bai .	Bakarganj South (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Kamini Kumar Das Bahadur, M B E	Chittagong (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Khetter Mohan Ray . . .	Tippera (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Hem Chandra Roy Choudhuri .	Noakhali (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Kishori Mohan Chaudhuri .	Rajshahi (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Prem Hari Barma .	Dinajpur (Non-Muhammadan)
Rai Sahib Panchanan Barma, M B E.	Rangpur West (Non-Muhammadan)
Babu Nagendra Narayan Ray, B L. ..	Rangpur East (Non-Muhammadan)
Dr Jogendra Chandra Chaudhuri .	Bogra cum Pabna (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr Shanti Shekhareswar Roy	Malda (Non-Muhammadan)
„ Prosanna Deb Raikat . .	Jalpaiguri (Non-Muhammadan)
„ A Raheem, C I E	Calcutta North (Muhammadan)
„ H S Suhrawardy, M A. (Oxon and Cal) B SC, B CL (Oxon), Barrister-at-Law.	Calcutta South (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Shaik Rahim Baksh . ..	Hooghly cum Howrah Municipal (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Muhammad Solaiman	Barrackpore Municipal (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Muhammad Sadatullah	24-Parganas Municipal (Muhammadan)
Nawabzada Khwaja Muhammad Afzul, Khan Bahadur.	Dacca City (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Abul Kasem . . .	Burdwan Division North (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Abdul Karim .. .	Burdwan Division South (Muhammadan)
Khan Bahadur A F M Abdur Rahman	24-Parganas Rural (Muhammadan)
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Maulvi Azizul Haque	Nadia (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Abdus Samad .	Murshidabad (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Syed Majid Baksh ..	Jessore North (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Syed Nausher Ali .. .	Jessore South (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Abul Quasem, M A, B L .	Khulna (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Abdul Ghani Chowdhury, B L	Dacca West Rural (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Azizur Rahman .. .	Mymensingh North-West (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Nur Rahman Khan Eusufi .	Mymensingh South-West (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdul Hamid Shah . . .	Mymensingh East (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdul Hakim	Mymensingh Central (Muhammadan).
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Alimuzzaman Chaudhuri	Faridpur North (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Tamuzuddin Khan . . .	Faridpur South (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Muhammad Hossain .. .	Bakarganj North (Muhammadan).
Mr Hashem Ali Khan . . .	Bakarganj West (Muhammadan).

Name of Members	Name of Constituency.
Maulvi Nural Absar Choudhury	Chittagong North (Muhammadan).
Haji Badr Ahmed Choudhury	Chittagong South (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Syed Osman Haidar Chaudhury	Tippera North (Muhammadan)
Khan Bahadur Muhammad Abdul Momin, C I F	Noakhali East (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Muhammad Fazlullah	Noakhali West (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Mohammed Basiruddin . . .	Rajshahi North (Muhammadan)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Emaduddin Ahmed	Rajshahi South (Muhammadan)
Maulvi Hassan Ali . . .	Dinajpur (Muhammadan)
Mr A F Rahman . . .	Rangpur West (Muhammadan).
Kazi Emdadul Hoque . . .	Rangpur East (Muhammadan)
Mr Altaf Ali . . .	Bogra (Muhammadan)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Muazzam Ali Khan	Pabna (Muhammadan)
Nawab Musharruf Hosain, Khan Bahadur	Malda cum Jalpaiguri (Muhammadan)
Mr C. G. Ashworth	Presidency and Burdwan (European)
„ W L Armstrong	Do
„ A. B. E. Lockhart . . .	Do
„ J W R. Steven . . .	Dacca and Chittagong (European)
„ R H. Ferguson . . .	Rajshahi (European)
„ L T Maguire . . .	Anglo-Indian.
„ E T McCluskie . . .	Do.
Raja Bhupendra Narayan Sinha Bahadur, of Mashipur	Burdwan Landholders
Mr Sarat Kumar Roy . . .	Presidency Landholders
„ Arun Chandra Singha	Chittagong Landholders.
Kumar Sahib Shekhareswar Ray	Rajshahi Landholders
Mr. Syamaprosad Mookerjee, Bar-at-Law	Calcutta University.
Rai Shashanka Kumar Ghosh Bahadur, C I F	Dacca University.
Mr. H H Burn	Bengal Chamber of Commerce
„ W H Thompson	Do
„ F T. Homan	Do
„ H Birkmyre . . .	Do
„ C C Miller . . .	Do
„ G A Mason . . .	Indian Jute Mills Association
„ C G Cooper	Do
„ C K. Nicholl . . .	Indian Tea Association
„ J. B. Ross . . .	Indian Mining Association
„ H R. Norton . . .	Calcutta Trades Association
„ Surendra Nath Law . . .	Bengal National Chamber of Commerce
Maharaja Sris Chandra Nandy, of Kasimbazar	Do
Rai Badridas Goenka Bahadur, C I F	Bengal Marwari Association
Mr Ananda Mohan Poddar . . .	Bengal Mahajan Sabha
„ Babu Mohini Nath Basu	Expert—Bengal Court Fees (Amendment) Bill, 1933.
Rai Gurs Chandra Sen Bahadur . . .	Do —All L S G Department Bill-
Lt-Col T. C. Boyd I M S . . .	Do —Bengal Medical (Amendment) Bill, 1932.

The United Provinces.

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh lie in practically the centre of Upper India. They are bounded on the north by Tibet, on the north-east by Nepal, on the east and south-east by Bihar, on the south by two of the Chota Nagpur States of the Central India Agency and the Saugor district of the Central Provinces, and on the west by the States of Gwalior, Dholpur, Bharatpur, Sirmoor, and Jubbulpur, and by the Punjab. Their total area amounts to 108,248 square miles, to which may be added the area of the three Indian States of Rampur, Tehri-Garhwal and Benares with an area of 5,943 square miles, giving a total of 112,191 square miles. The total population is 49,614,883.

The Provinces, originally termed the North-Western Provinces and so amalgamated in 1877, receiving their present designation in 1902, include four distinct tracts of country portions of the Himalayas, including the Kumaon division which consists of three hill districts, two of which are entirely in the hills and one is half in the submontane belt, the sub-Himalayan tract; the great Gangetic plain, and portions of the hill systems of Central India including Bundelkhand. The Gangetic plain is protected by an extensive Canal system, which though somewhat liable to run short of water in extremely dry years, is of great benefit in all ordinary years and years of limited drought. The first two of these tracts are infertile and support a very sparse population and the Central Indian plateau is almost equally infertile, though better populated. The soil of the Gangetic plain, however, possesses an extreme fertility and here the density of population varies from 542 persons per square mile in the west to 555 in the centre and 753 in the east, which gives the Provinces as a whole a greater population pressure on the soil than any other Province in India save Delhi and Bengal. In the south there are low rocky hills, broken spurs of the Vindhyan mountains, covered with stunted trees and jungle, and in the north the lower slopes of the Himalayas, clothed with dense forest, affording excellent big and small game shooting, and rising beyond in a tangled mass of ridges, ever higher and higher, until is reached the line of the eternal snows, but the greater part of the provinces consists of level plain, teeming with highly-cultivated fields and watered by three rivers—the Ganges, Jumna, and Gogra.

The People

The population is mainly Hindu, 84·4 per cent ranking as such whilst Mahomedans number 15 per cent, the total of all other religions being 0·6 per cent composed of Christians (Europeans and Indians), Jains, Sikhs, Parsis, Buddhists and Jews included among the Hindus are the Arya Samajists, followers of the Arya Samaj sect, which obtains widely in the Punjab and has extended its influence to the United Provinces. The three main

physical types are Dravidian, Aryan and Mongoloid, the latter being confined to the Himalayan and sub-Himalayan districts and the former to South Mirzapur and Bundelkhand, whilst the high-caste Aryans frequent the Western districts of the Provinces. Most of the people, however, show a mixed Arya-Dravidian origin. Two languages are spoken by the majority of people in the plains, Urdu and Hindi. Urdu being more common in the urban areas and because of its close relationship with Persian and Arabic on the one hand and Hindi on the other, forming the *lingua franca* of the Province.

Industries

The chief industry is agriculture, which is the principal source of livelihood of 71·1 per cent of the population and a subsidiary source of income to a further 8·2 per cent. The soils of the Provinces fall into three groups: the valley soils of the Himalayas, the main alluvium and the Central Indian alluvium. The chief characteristic soil or the Central Indian alluvium is the black soil, with a lighter variant, though here also there are light loams and gravel. The Himalayan soils are of local origin and vary with the nature of the rock from which they have been formed, whilst the main alluvium soils are sand, clay and loam, the loam being naturally the most productive. The soil generally yields excellent crop of rice, millet, maize, linseed, cotton, wheat, sugarcane, pulses, and barley, rice being grown mostly in low-lying, heavy clays. The greater part of the Provinces is highly cultivated, the rainfall varies from 50 to 60 inches in the Hills, to 40 inches in the Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions, whilst the Agra Division receives only about 25 to 30 inches annually. Drought seriously affected Bundelkhand and the Agra Divisions in the past, improved drainage, and irrigation facilities have effected considerable improvements. In the latter area, however, shortage of water in the canals and the general lowering of the water table still continue to react against full agricultural returns. Steps are being taken to increase the amount of water passing down the canals. Commodity prices showed a definite decline throughout the year 1934. Though in some cases the prices in January of 1934 ruled higher than those of 1933, by December all commodity prices were at a lower level than at the corresponding date of the previous year. In general the harvested crop of 1934 was poorer than that of 1933. It cannot be said that those solely dependent on agricultural produce are in any way better off than in the previous year. Land is held mostly on the ryotwari tenure in Bundelkhand and Kumaon, on zamindari tenure in Agra and taluqdari tenure in Oudh. The principal landowners in Oudh are the Taluqdars, some of whom own very large estates. The area held in taluqdari tenure amounts to 54 per cent of the total area in Oudh.

Manufactures

The provinces are not rich in minerals. Iron and copper are found in the Himalayan districts, and there were mines of importance there formerly, but owing to high cost of production and inaccessibility, most of them have been closed. Gold is found in minute quantities by washing the sands in some of the rivers in the hills. Limestone is found in the Himalayas and in the Etawah district, and stone is largely quarried in the Mirzapur district. Cotton is ginned and spun throughout the Western districts of the provinces as a home industry, and weaving by means of handlooms, is carried on in most districts. Cawnpore is the chief centre for cotton spinning and weaving mills. According to the census of 1931, 45,128 persons were employed on cotton spinning, cleaning and pressing and 408,033 on spinning and weaving. Silk weaving used to be confined to Benares (where the famous 'Kamkhab' brocade is made) but considerable work is now done at Shahjahanpur and Mau and some at Agra as well. Embroidery work is done at Lucknow, where the noted 'Chikan' work of cotton on muslins is produced, and in Benares, where gold and silver work on silk, velvet, crepe and sarsenet obtains. Benares uses local gold thread for embroidery work and 'Kamkhab' weaving. The glass industry is important at Firozabad, Bahjoi, Balawahi and Naini (Allahabad). Moradabad is noted for its lacquered brass-work, Benares for brassware-engraving and repousse. Farrukhabad for its calico prints and Agra for its carpets and marble and alabaster articles, glazed pottery is made at Chunar and Khurja and clay figures of men and fruits at Lucknow.

The making of brass utensils at Mirzapur, Farrukhabad and Oel (District Kheri) the carving and inlay work of Nagina and Saharanpur, the art silk industry of Mau, the lock and brass fittings industry of Aligarh, the copper utensil industry of Almorah, the durnies of Agra and Bareilly, the pottery of Nizamabad (District Azamgarh) and the ivory work of Lucknow also deserve mention.

Cawnpore is the chief industrial centre. It has tanneries, soap factories, oil mills, cotton, woollen and other mills. The woollen mill is the largest in India. Lucknow possesses an important paper-mill. There are cotton ginning and pressing factories at Aligarh, Meerut and Bareilly and cotton mills at Agra, Hathras, Lucknow, Benares and Moradabad. Many sugar mills have been recently started, mainly in the Gorakhpur and Rohilkhand divisions. Excellent furniture is made at Bareilly mostly on cottage lines.

The largest trade centres are Cawnpore, Allahabad, Mirzapur, Benares, Lucknow, Meerut, Aligarh, Hathras, Muttra, Agra, Farrukhabad, Moradabad, Chandausi, Bareilly, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Ghaziabad, Khurja, Gorakhpur, Ghazipur, Pilibhit and Shahjahanpur.

Administration.

The Province was until the close of 1920 administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, chosen from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the Reform scheme the Province was

raised to the status of a Governor-in-Council, the Governor being assisted by two members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and two Ministers from Jan. 12, 1926, in charge of the Transferred Subjects. The medium for the transaction of public business is the Secretariat, the Staff of which consists of 7 Secretaries (including Chief Secretary) and 6 Deputy Secretaries including the Director of Public Instruction and the Deputy Legal Remembrancer who are *ex-Officio* Deputy Secretaries in the Education and Judicial Departments respectively. The Chief Secretary is in charge of Appointment, General Administration, Executive, Political, Newspaper and Police Departments, the Finance Secretary deals mainly with the Finance Department, the Revenue Secretary is in charge of the Revenue, Scarcity, Ecclesiastical and Forest Departments and also the Buildings and Roads branch of the Public Works Department, the Education Secretary looks to the Education, Industries, Agriculture and Excise Departments; the L & S Secretary to the local Self-Government, Municipal, Medical and Public Health Departments and the Judicial Secretary is in charge of the Judicial and Legislative Departments. The seventh Secretary belongs to the Public Works Department (Irrigation Branch) and is also Chief Engineer for the Irrigation Branch of the P & W Department. Government spends the cold weather, October to April, in Lucknow and Allahabad, mostly in Lucknow, though the Secretariat remains throughout the year at Lucknow. The Governor and the Secretaries spend the hot weather in Naini Tal, but during the monsoon the Governor tours the plains, as he does also in the cold weather. The Board of Revenue is the highest court of appeal in revenue and rent cases, being the chief revenue authority in the province. There are forty-eight British districts, thirty-six in Agra and twelve in Oudh, average area 2,200 square miles and average population a million. Each district is in charge of a District Officer, termed a Collector and Magistrate in Agra and a Deputy Commissioner in Oudh and Kumaon. The districts are grouped together in divisions. Each division is under a Commissioner, except the Kumaon division, the charge of which is held by the Deputy Commissioner, Naini Tal, in addition to his duties. There are ten divisions, having an average area of nearly 10,600 square miles and an average population of nearly 5 millions. The districts are sub-divided into *tahsils*, with an average area of 500 square miles and an average population of 236,000. Each *Tahsil* is in charge of a *Tahsildar*, who is responsible for the collection of revenue, and also exercises judicial powers. *Tahsils* are divided into *parganas* which are units of importance in the settlement of land revenue. Subordinate to the *Tahsildars* are *naiib tahsildars* and *kamungos*. Ordinarily there are three *kamungos* and one *naiib tahsildar* to a *tahsil*. The *Kamungos* supervise the work of the *patwaris*, or village accountants, check their papers and form a link direct between the villagers and Government. For judicial purposes (revenue and criminal), the District Officer assigns a sub-division, consisting of one or more *tahsils*, as the case may be to each of his subordinates, who may be covenanted civilians (Joint

approximately 2 square miles, with a discharge of 33,000 gallons per hour and is intended to irrigate on the average 150 acres of sugarcane and 250 acres of wheat annually. Water is sold on a volumetric basis to individual cultivators thus greatly conserving water by the prevention of waste.

5 Another development in hand is the construction of the Daurala sugarcane tramway for tapping an area of 14,000 acres or canal irrigated sugarcane in the Meerut district. Sixteen miles of this are already working and a further twelve will be ready by June 1935. When finished this tramway will be in a position to carry 105,000 tons of cane from remote areas to the rail-head on the North-Western Railway at $\frac{1}{2}$ pie per maund per mile.

Police

The Police Force is administered by an Inspector-General, with three Deputies and two Assistants, forty-six Superintendents, forty-four Assistant Superintendents and sixty-three Deputy Superintendents including three temporary officers. There is a Police Training School at Moradabad under a Superintendent of Police as Principal. There is a C I D forming a separate department, under a Deputy Inspector-General with three Assistants. The armed police of the three police ranges have recently been rearmed with the .410 musket, the .476 musket and the Martini Henri rifle having formed their late armament. The administration of the Jail Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Prisons, who is a member of the Indian Medical Service.

Education.

Education is maintained in part by the State and partly by means of grants-in-aid. There are five universities, the four residential universities of Allahabad, Lucknow, Aligarh (Muslim) and Benares (Hindu) and the affiliating University of Agra. The last named was established in 1927 and consists, besides six affiliated colleges situated outside the United Provinces, of the eight colleges, formerly associated with Allahabad University on its external side, viz, the Agra and St. John's Colleges at Agra, the Christ Church, D.A.V. and Sanatan Dharma Colleges at Cawnpore, the Meerut College, Meerut, the Bareilly College, Bareilly and St. Andrew's College, Gorakhpur. There are Intermediate Colleges which prepare boys for the high school and intermediate examinations conducted by the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, which controls high school and intermediate education. The Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow and the Crosthwaite Girls' College at Allahabad impart university education to Indian girls and the Theosophical National Girls' School and Women's College at Benares, the Muslim Girls' Intermediate College at Aligarh Mahula Vidyalaya Intermediate College at Lucknow teach up to the intermediate stage. In addition to these there are A V High Schools English Middle and vernacular Lower Middle schools and primary schools throughout the province for the education of Indian girls; they are controlled by Chief Inspectress of Girls, Schools under instructions from the Education Department. The St. George's Intermediate

College, Mussoorie, the Phulander-Smith College, Naini Tal, the St. Joseph's College, Naini Tal, and the Martiniere College, Lucknow, are the well-known institutions for European and Anglo-Indian children in the province which teach up to the intermediate stage. Besides these there are many excellent educational institutions for European boys and girls both in the hills and plains which are attended by students from all over India. Government maintain Training Colleges for teachers in Lucknow, Allahabad and Agra and a training department is attached to Christian Intermediate College, Lucknow. There are training departments attached to the Aligarh Muslim University and the Benares Hindu University. There is a Government Engineering College at Roorkee (Thomson College), a School of Art and Crafts in Lucknow and an Agricultural College, and a Technological Institute at Cawnpore, there is also a non-Government Agricultural Institute at Naini, Allahabad. Education in law is given at the four residential universities and at the Agra and Meerut colleges, and at the Dajananad Anglo-Vedic and Sanatan Dharma Colleges at Cawnpore and at the Bareilly College Instruction in commerce for the B Com degree of the Agra University is given in the Sanatan Dharma and the D A V Colleges at Cawnpore and in the St. John's College at Agra, a commerce department for B Com degree is also attached to Allahabad and Lucknow Universities. The King George's Medical College, Lucknow, now merged in the Lucknow University, prepares candidates for the M B B S degree of the Lucknow University. Besides this there are two medical schools at Agra for males and females, and also a College of Ayurveda and Tibbiya is attached to the Benares Hindu and the Aligarh Muslim Universities respectively. Public schools for secondary and primary vernacular education are almost entirely maintained or aided by district and municipal boards and vernacular education is almost entirely in their hands.

Medical

The Medical Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, who is assisted by a lady Superintendent for Medical aid to women in the administration of the Dufferin fund affairs. A post of Personal Assistant to the I G. Civil Hospitals has also been created from December 8, 1934 to relieve the I G. of the routine duties in connection with the control of his office. A Civil Surgeon is in charge and is responsible for the medical work of each district and in a few of the larger stations he has an assistant. In two stations (Ranikhet and Roorkee) Medical Officers in military employ hold collateral civil charge. There are 112 Provincial Medical service officers in charge of important Mofussil dispensaries and on the reserve list and a large number of Provincial subordinate medical service officers. Lady doctors and women sub-assistant surgeons visit *pardanashin* women in their own homes and much good work is done in this manner.

The best equipped hospitals for Indian patients are the Thomson Hospital at Agra, King George's Hospital and the Balrampur Hospital at Lucknow the Prince of Wales

Hospital, Cawnpore, King Edward VII Hospital, Benares, the Civil Hospital at Allahabad (for Europeans, Anglo-Indians and Indians living in European style) and Saint Mary's Cottage Hospital, Mussoorie. The Ramsay Hospital for Europeans at Naini Tal is a first class institution and there are also the Lady Dufferin Hospitals, King George's Medical College, Lucknow, is one of the best equipped colleges in the country, with a staff of highly efficient professors, and the hospital attached to it is the first in the Province. The Queen Mary's Hospital for women and children, completed in 1932, is also attached to the King George's Medical College and provides clinical material for the instruction of students in midwifery and gynaecology. There are also male and female medical schools at Agra. As the X-Ray Institute at Dehra Dun has been closed, it is proposed to institute classes of instruction in X-ray diagnosis and therapy at the King George's Medical College, Lucknow, where every facility for such work would be forthcoming. The scheme is, however, held up owing to lack of funds. There are sanatoria for British soldiers

in the hills. The King Edward VII Sanatorium at Bhowali in the district of Naini Tal is an up-to-date and well-equipped institution for the treatment of European and Indian consumptives. An anti-tuberculosis hospital at Lucknow is in the course of construction and will soon provide a long felt want of the province. It is also proposed to close down the five centres for the treatment of tubercular patients at present working at Agra, Allahabad, Benares, Cawnpore and Lucknow, and to start a better class tubercular clinic at Allahabad, complete with X-Ray, as an experiment. A tubercular sanatorium at Sarnath near Benares, is doing good work. There are mental hospitals for Indian non-criminal lunatics at Agra and Bareilly and for criminal lunatics at Benares. Arrangements for the treatment of active cases of leprosy have been made at most of the headquarters hospitals. The MacLaren Leper Hospital, Dehra Dun, Sri Matī Bhagwan Dei Leper Home, Cawnpore, Mission Leper Hospital Almora, and the Leper Hospital at Naini Tal (Allahabad) provide special facilities for the treatment of leprosy and are doing good work.

THE FINANCES OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

As explained in the chapters on the new constitution of India, under the Reforms Act of 1919 the financial position of the Provinces underwent a remarkable change. The Provinces are, for all practical purposes, financially independent of the Government of India. The contribution payable by the Local Government has been remitted entirely by the Government of India with effect from the year 1928-29. As the finances of the Provinces thus become of greater importance, the position is set out in some detail in the following pages.—

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1934-35.

Principal Heads of Revenue.

	Rs.
Taxes on Salt	3,000
Taxes on Income	5,85,52,078
Land Revenue	1,29,64,800
Excise	1,71,80,000
Stamps	43,80,000
Forests	13,02,400
Registration
Subsidised Taxes
Total	9,48,31,778

Railways

Subsidised Companies	1,00,000
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Irrigation

Works for which capital accounts are kept—

(1) Productive Works—

Net receipts	1,23,02,315
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(2) Unproductive Works—

Net receipts	—62,700
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Total, net receipts	1,22,39,615
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Works for which no capital accounts are kept	13,000
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Total Irrigation	1,22,52,615
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Debt Services.

	Rs.
Interest	14,05,500
Total	14,05,500

Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice	13,14,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	4,38,200
Police	2,47,500
Education	11,40,000
Medical	2,95,900
Public Health	1,72,085
Agriculture	5,60,100
Industries	1,71,200
Miscellaneous Departments	79,558
Total	44,18,543

Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements—

Civil Works—(a) ordinary	3,44,700
(b) Transfer from Central Road Development Account	5,10,184
Total	8,54,884

Miscellaneous.

Rs

Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	84,785
Receipts in aid of superannuation	2,02,000
Stationery and Printing	6,49,480
Miscellaneous	7,49,500
Total	16,85,765

Extraordinary receipts
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments
Total Revenue	11,49,99,085

Debt, deposits and advances :—

Rs

(a) Government Press Depreciation Fund	50,000
(b) Famine Relief Funds	1,85,000
(c) Loans and advances by Provincial Governments	36,82,000
(d) Advances from Provincial Loans Funds	52,54,000
(e) Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of Debt-Sinking Fund	14,00,000
(f) Transfer from Famine Relief Fund for repayment of advances from the Provincial Loans Fund	1,50,000
(g) Subventions from Central Road Development Account	6,00,000
(h) Subventions from the Imperial Council Agricultural Research and Indian Central Cotton Committee	1,13,211
Total	1,14,14,211

Total receipts	12,64,13,296
Opening Balance	—60,38,793

Grand Total . 12,03,74,503

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1934-35

Direct demands on the Revenues

Taxes on Income	
Land Revenue	75,03,776
Excise	11,87,264
Stamps	3,13,356
Forests	27,76,484
Forest Capital outlay charged to revenue	16,300
Registration	4,50,980
Total	1,22,54,160

Railway Revenue Account.

Rs

State Railways—Interest on debt	8,214
Subsidised companies
Total	8,214

Irrigation Revenue Account.

Works for which capital accounts are kept—

Interest on Irrigation Works	1,09,48,148
Other revenue irrigation expenditure financed from ordinary revenues	—74,000
Total	1,08,74,148

*Irrigation Capital Account
(charged to revenue).*

Construction of Irrigation Works—

A.—Financed from ordinary revenues 2,35,000

Debt Services.

Interest on ordinary debt	28,02,559
Sinking Fund	14,00,000
Payment to the Provincial loans fund
Total	42,62,559

Civil Administration.

General Administration	1,31,28,947
Administration of Justice	71,83,271
Jails and Convicts' Settlements	32,03,892
Police	1,62,79,898
Scientific Departments	24,803
Education	1,99,39,904
Medical	33,28,702
Public Health	19,84,785
Agriculture	29,03,730
Industries	10,63,566
Miscellaneous Departments	93,320
Exchange
Total	6,02,06,613

*Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous
Public Improvements.*

Civil Works—(a) Provincial ex- penditure	Rs 49,82,038
(b) Improvement and communica- tions from Central Road Deve- lopment Account	5,10,184
Total	54,92,222

Miscellaneous.

Famine Relief and Insurance—	Rs
A—Famine Relief	7,785
B—Transfers to Famine In- surance Fund
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	68,65,226
Stationery and Printing	11,90,094
Miscellaneous	8,10,071
Extraordinary Charges	76,000
Total	89,49,176

Expenditure in England—	
Secretary of State	2,32,400
High Commissioner	39,09,720

*Irrigation and other capital expenditure
not charged to revenue.*

(a) Construction of Irrigation works	} 21,03,300
(c) Hydro-electric scheme	
(d) Outlay on Improvement of public health
(e) Outlay on Agricultural im- provement
(b) Forest outlay
Total	21,03,300

Debt, and Deposits Advances—	Rs
(a) Famine Relief Fund
(b) Civil Contingencies Fund
(c) Loans and Advances by Local Governments	18,88,000
(d) Sinking Fund Investment Account	14,00,000
(e) Government Press Deprecia- tion Fund	26,000
(f) Repayment of Advances from Provincial Loans Fund	19,19,857
60-B. Payment of Commuted Value of Pensions	15,19,780
40 Civil Works
61-A. Other Provincial Works not charged to revenue.
61 Payments to Retrenched Personnel	6,000
Transfer from Famine Relief Fund for repayment of advances from the Provincial Local Fund	1,50,000
Subventions from Central Road Development Account	5,10,184
Famine Relief Fund—Transfer to revenue	34,785
Charges against grants from the Imperial Council and Agriculture Research Indian Central Cotton Committee	1,14,811
Total	67,69,483
Total Disbursements	12,43,57,200
Closing Balance	—39,82,697
Grand Total	12,03,74,503

Administration.

Governor—His Excellency Sir Harry Graham
Knt, MA, KCSI, CIE, ICS

Private Secretary.—Major D A Brett, VC

Adiut-de-Camp—Capt M N E Macmullan
and G L Whitehouse, ICS

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Mr J M Clay, CSI, CIE, OBE,
ICS

The Hon'ble Kunwar Sir Maharaj Singh, Kt,
MA, CIE

MINISTERS

The Hon'ble Nawab Sir Muhammad Yusuf,
Kt, Bar-at-Law

The Hon'ble Sir Jawala P Srivastava, MSc,
AMST

SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary to Government, Vacant

Finance Secretary, J L Satho, ICS

Revenue and P W D (B & R) Secretary to
Government, A. A Waughy, ICS

Local Self-Government and Public Health Secretary, P Mason, ICS

Judicial Secretary, L S White, ICS

Industries and Education Secretary, P M Kharegat, ICS

Secretary to Government, Irrigation Branch, F Anderson, CIE, ISE (Offg)

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS

Opium Agent, Ghazipur, G S V Paterson

Chief Conservator of Forests, F Canning, IFS

Director of Public Instruction, H R Harrop, MA (Oxon)

Inspector-General of Police, S T Hollins, CIE

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col A H Proctor, DSO, VHS, MD, MS, FRCS

Director of Public Health, Kishori Lal Chaudhri, OBE, MBBS (Punjab), DPH (Lond), Bai Bahadur.

Commissioner of Excise and Inspector-General of Registration, R T Shivdasani, ICS

Inspector-General of Prisons, Major H M Salamat Ullah, MC, MB, DTM, MRCP, FRF, PS, IMS

Director of Agriculture, R G Allan, MA

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

Sir O T Metcalfe, Bart, GCB 1836

The Right Hon the Governor-General in the North-Western Provinces (Lord Auckland) 1838

T C Robertson 1840

The Right Hon the Governor-General in the North-Western Provinces (Lord Ellenborough) 1842

Sir G R Clerk, KCB 1843

James Thomson Died at Bareilly 1843

A W Begbie, In charge 1853

T R Colvin Died at Agra 1859

E A Reade, In charge 1857

Colonel H Fraser, CB, Chief Commissioner, N-W Provinces 1857

The Right Hon'ble the Governor-General administering the N-W Provinces (Viscount Canning) 1858

Sir G F Edmonstone 1859

R Money, In charge 1807

The Hon Edmund Drummond 1807

Sir William Muir, KCSI 1808

Sir John Strachey, KCSI. 1874

Sir George Couper, Bart, CB 1876

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND CHIEF COMMISSIONERS OF OUDH.

Sir George Couper, Bart, CB, KCSI 1877

Sir Alfred Comyns Lyall, KCB 1882

Sir Auckland Colvin, KCMG, CIE 1887

Sir Chas H T Crosthwaite, KCSI 1892

Alan Cadell (Officiating) 1895

Sir Antony P MacDonnell, KCSI (a) 1895

Sir J J D LaTouche, KCSI 1901

(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH.

Sir J J D La Touche, KCSI 1902

Sir J P Hewett, KCSI, CIE 1907

L A S Porter, CSI (Officiating) 1912

Sir J. S. Meston, KCSI 1912

Sir Harcourt Butler, KCSI, CIE 1918

GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Sir Harcourt Butler, KCSI, CIE 1920

Sir William Marris, KCIL 1921

Sir Samuel Perry O'Donnell, KCIE, CSI (Officiating) 1926

Sir Alexander Muddiman KCSI, CIE 1928
Died at Nain Tal

Capt Nawab Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan of Chhatari, CIL, MBE, In-charge 1929

Sir Malcolm Hailey, GCSI, GCIJ 1929

Sir George Bancroft, KCSI 1930

Sir Malcolm Hailey GCSI, GCIJ 1931

Captain Nawab Sir Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan of Chhatari KCSI, KCIJ, MBE, LL D 1933

Sir Malcolm Hailey, GCSI, GCIJ 1933

Sir Harry Graham Haig, KCSI, CIE, 1934
afternoon Dec 6

UNITED PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

प्रतिनिधि

The Hon'ble Sir Sita Ram, Kt., M.A., M.P.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT,

Nawabzada Muhd. Liaquat Ali Khan, M.A. (Oxon), Barr-at-Law.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Allahabad, Jaunpur and Mirzapur Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	The Hon. Nawab Sir Muhammad Yusuf, Kt., Barr-at-Law, Minister of Local Self-Government
Upper India Chamber of Commerce	The Hon'ble Sir Jwala P. Srivastava, Minister of Education
Agra City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Mr. Perera
Cawnpore City (non-Muhammadan Urban) .	Rai Bahadur Babu Awadh Behari Lal.
Allahabad City (non-Muhammadan Urban) .	Rai Bahadur Babu Kamta Prasad Kakkar M.A., LL.B.
Lucknow City (non-Muhammadan Urban) .	Chandhuri Ram Dyal.
Benares City (non-Muhammadan Urban)	Chandhuri Jagannath.
Bareilly City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	The Hon'ble Sir Sita Ram, Kt., M.A., M.P.
Meerut-cum-Aligarh (non-Muhammadan Urban)	Chandhuri Baldeva
Moradabad-cum-Shahjahanpur (non-Muhammadan Urban)	Rai Sahib Sir Jwala Saran Kothiwala
Dehra Dun District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. Tappu Ram.
Saharanpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Moti Lal Bhargava
Muzaffarnagar (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Bahadur Kuchhalpal Singh, M.A., M.P.
Meerut District (North) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Chandhuri Ram Chandra.
Meerut District (South) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Chandhuri Ghasia
Bulandshahr District (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Chandhuri Raghuraj Singh
Bulandshahr District (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Chandhuri Arjuna Singh.
Aligarh District (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rao Bahadur Thakur Pratap Bhan Singh
Aligarh District (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rao Sahib Thakur Shiva Dhyan Singh
Muttra District (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Rai Bahadur Kunwar Girwar Singh
Agra District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Joti Prasad Upadhyaya, M.A., LL.B.
Mainpuri District (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Chandhuri Dhirja Singh, M.P.
Etah District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rao Krishna Pal Singh.
Bareilly District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Kunwar Dhawan Lal.
Bijnor District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Balwant Singh Gahlot.
Budaun District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Brij Lal Badhwar, M.P.
Moradabad District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rao Bahadur Kunwar Sardar Singh.
Shahjahanpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Baba Manmohan Sahai.
Filibhit District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Babu Ram Bahadur Saksena
Jhansi District (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Lala Shyam Lal.
Jalaun District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Sahib Babu Kamta Nath Saksena, B.A., LL.B.
Hamirpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Kunwar Jagbhan Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Banda District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Keshava Chandra Singh, M.Sc., LL.B.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Farrukhabad District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Brijnandan Lal, Bar-at-Law
Etawah District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rao Narsingh Rao
Cawnpore District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Sahib Ram Adhin.
Fatehpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Bhonduram
Allahabad District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Maharao Raja Bahadur Ram Singh Rao Bahadur
Benares District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Chaudhri Bharos
Mirzapur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Shri Sadayatan Pande
Jaunpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Sri Krishna Dutt Dube
Ghazipur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Babu Jagadeva Roy
Ballia District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Dahari
Gorakhpur District (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Sahib Rai Rajeshwari Prasad, M A, LL B
Gorakhpur District (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Babu Adya Prasad, B A, LL B.
Basti District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Shiva Pati Singh
Azamgarh District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Giriraj Singh, B A, LL B
Naini Tal District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Prem Ballabh Belwal
Almora District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Jang Bahadur Singh Bisht, B A, LL B.
Garhwal District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Sardar Bahadur Thakur Narayan Singh Negi
Lucknow District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Brahma Dutt alias Bhairya Sahib.
Unao District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Thakur Hanuman Singh.
Rae Bareilly District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Lal Sheo Pratap Singh.
Sitapur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Kunwar Diwakar Prakash Singh
Hardoi District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Muneshwar Bakhsh Singh, B A, LL B
Kheri District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Jaindra Bahadur Singh
Fyzabad District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Jagdebika Pratap Narayan Singh
Gonda District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Ambikeshwar Pratap Singh.
Bahraich District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Birendra Bikram Singh
Sultanpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Kunwar Surendra Pratap Sahi
Partabgarh District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. C Y Chintamani
Bara Banki District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Rajeshwar Bali, O B E, B A
Allahabad-cum-Benares (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr Zahur Ahmad, Bar-at-Law
Lucknow-cum-Cawnpore (Muhammadan Urban)	Syed Ali Zaheer, Bar-at-Law.
Agra and Meerut-cum-Aligarh (Muhammadan Urban)	Muhammad Rashid Uddin.
Bareilly and Shahjahanpur-cum-Moradabad, (Muhammadan Urban).	Syed Yusuf Ali, B A, LL B
Dehra Dun District (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Muhammad Maqsood Ali Khan.
Saharanpur District (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Shah Nazar Husain
Meerut District (Muhammadan Rural)	Captain Nawab Muhammad Jamshed Ali Khan, M B E
Muzaffarnagar District (Muhammadan Rural)	Nawabzada Muhammad Liaquat Ali Khan, M A (Oxon), Bar-at-Law
Bijnor District (Muhammadan Rural)	Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim, B A, LL B
Bulandshahr District (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Muhammad Rahmat Khan.
Aligarh, Muttra and Agra Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Khan Bahadur Haji Muhammad Obaidur Rahman Khan
Mainpuri, Etah and Farrukhabad Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Hafiz Hidayat Husain, C I F., B A, Bar-at-Law
Etawah, Cawnpore and Fatehpur Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Saiyid Habibullah, Bar-at-Law.
Jhansi Division (Muhammadan Rural)	

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Benares, Ghazipur, Ballia and Azamgarh Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Haji M. Nisarullah, B.A.
Gorakhpur District (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Sayyid Zahid Ali Sabirposh
Basti District (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Shaikh Ghulam Hussain.
Moradabad (North) (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Hafez Ghazanfarullah.
Moradabad (South) (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Sayyid Jaffer Hossain, Bar-at-Law.
Budaun District (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Sahib Shaikh Afzal ul-din Hyder.
Shahjahanpur District (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Mansur Muhammad Fazlur Rahman Khan, B.A., LL.B.
Bareilly District (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Siraj Muhammad Shafiqullah Khan
Kumaun Division-cum-Pilibhit (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Sahib Muhammad Inayat Ahmad.
Gonda and Bahraich Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Sayyid Muhammad Sa'adat Ali Khan.
Kheri and Sitapur Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Shaikh Muhammad Habibullah, O.B.E.
Hardoi, Lucknow and Unao Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Sayyid Ahmad Ali Khan Ali, M.P.
Fyzabad and Bara Banki Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Sir Muhammad Ijaz Rasul Khan, K.L.B.
Sultanpur, Partabgarh and Rae Bareilly Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Sayyid Muhammad Mehdi.
European	Mr J. M. Medley
Agra Landholders (North)	Raj Bahadur Lal Anand Singh
Agra Landholders (South)	Raj Bahadur Lal Bhari Lal
Taluqdars	Chaudhri Muhammad Ali Thakur Rampal Singh.
Upper India Chamber of Commerce	Raja Biseshwar Dyal Sethi, B.A., F.C.S.
United Provinces Chamber of Commerce	Raja Jagannath Baksh Singh
Allahabad University	Mr T. T. Gavin Jones
	Raj Bahadur Vikramajit Singh, B.A., LL.B., M.
	Munshi Gajadhar Prasad, M.A., LL.B.

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS

The Hon'ble Mr. J. M. Clay, O.S., O.I.L., O.N., I.C.S.

The Hon'ble Kunwar Sir Maharaj Singh, Kt., M.A., O.I.C.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Mr J L Sathe, I.C.S.	Mr R F Madie, O.N., I.C.S.
Mr P Mason, I.C.S.	Mr S T Holfins, O.I.F., I.P.S.
Mr P M Kharegat, I.C.S.	Mr D L Drake-Brockman, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.
Mr A A Waugh, I.C.S.	Lady Kallash Sriyastava
Mr L S White, I.C.S.	Khan Bahadur Mansur Fazl-ud-din.
Mr H B Harrop, I.C.S.	Captain K O. Carleton, M.A., Bar-at-Law
Raj Bahadur Pandit Suraj Din Bajpai, B.Sc., LL.B.	(Anglo-Indian Community).
Raj Bahadur P C Mogha, B.A., LL.B.	Mr E Ahmad Shah, M.A., D. Litt (Indian Christian Community).
Khan Bahadur Sayyid Ain-ud-din, B.A.	Raj Sahib Babu Rama Charana, B.A., LL.B.
Raj Bahadur Ram Babu Saksena, M.A., LL.B.	(Depressed Classes).
Raj Bahadur Pandit Brij Chand Sharma, M.A., LL.B.	Lala Mohan Lal Sha, M.A., LL.B.
Khan Bahadur Munshi Muhammad Mushtaq Ali Khan, B.A.	(Special nomination)
	Mr Radhey Shyam Rastogi, M.A., LL.B.
	(Special nomination)

SECRETARY TO THE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

Mr G S K Hydrie, B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law

Mr. Durga Charan Sinha, Superintendent, Legislative Council Department

The Punjab.

The Punjab or land of the five rivers, is so called from the five rivers by which it is enclosed, namely, the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutley. Together with the North-West Frontier Province and the Indian State of Jammu and Kashmir which lie to the north, the Punjab occupies the extreme north-western corner of the Indian Empire, and with the exception of the above-mentioned province comprises all of British India north of Sind and Rajputana and west of the river Jumna. Previous to October 1912, the Punjab with its dependencies embraced an area of 136,330 square miles and a population at the Census of 1911 of 24,187,750 (inclusive of 28,587 trans-frontier Baluchis), that is to say, about one-thirteenth of the area and population of the Indian Empire. But the formation of a separate province of Delhi reduced the area and population of the Punjab by about 450 square miles and 380,000 souls, respectively. The total population of the Province in 1931, including the Baluch tribes on the border of the Dehra Ghazi Khan District, was 28,490,857 of whom 4,910,005 were in the Indian States.

Physical Features

The greater part of the Punjab consists of one vast alluvial plain, stretching from the Jumna in the east to the Suleman Range in the west. The north-east is occupied by a section of the Himalayas and the Salt Range forms its north-western angle. A few small spurs of the Aravalli mountain system traverse the extreme south-east and terminate in the Ridge at Delhi. The Punjab may be divided into five natural divisions. The Himalayan tract includes an area of 22,000 square miles, with a scanty population living scattered in tiny mountain hamlets. The Salt Range tract includes the districts of Attock, Rawalpindi and Jhelum and part of Shahpur district. Its physical configuration is broken and confused and the mountainous tracts of Murree and Kahuta approximate closely in characteristics to the Himalayan tract. Except in the hills, the rainfall leaves little margin for protection against distress in unfavourable seasons and irrigation is almost unknown. Skirting the base of the hills and including the low range of the Siwaliks, runs the narrow sub-montane tract. This tract, secure in an ample rainfall, and traversed by streams from the hills, comprises some of the most fertile and thickly populated portions of the province. Its population of over four millions is almost agricultural and pastoral but it includes one large town in Sialkot. Of the plains of the Punjab, the eastern portion covers an area of some 36,000 square miles with a population of 10½ millions. East of Lahore, the rainfall is everywhere so far sufficient that cultivation is possible without irrigation in fairly favourable seasons, but over the greater part of the area the margin is so slight that, except where irrigation is employed, any material reduction

in the rainfall involves distress, if not actual famine. Within the eastern plains lie the large cities of Lahore and Amritsar, and the population in comparison with the western Punjab is largely urban. The western plains cover an area of 59,000 square miles, with a population of a little over six millions. The rainfall in this area, heaviest in the north and east and decreasing towards the west and south is everywhere so scanty that cultivation is only possible with the aid of artificial irrigation or upon the low-lying river-banks left moist by the retreating floods. In this very circumstance, these tracts find their security against famine, for there cultivation is almost independent of rain, a failure of which means nothing worse than a scarcity of grass. So little rain is sufficient, and absolute drought occurs so seldom that the crops may be said never to fail from this cause. The western plains embrace the great colony areas on the Chenab and Jhelum Canals which now challenge the title of the eastern plains as the most fertile, wealthy and populous portions of the province. Multan and Lyallpur are the largest towns in the western area. Owing to its geographical position, its scanty rainfall and cloudless skies, and perhaps to its wide expanse of untilled plains, the climate of the Punjab presents greater extremes of both heat and cold than any other portion of India. The summer, from April to September, is scorchingly hot, and in the winter, sharp frosts are common. But the bright sun and invigorating air make the climate of the Punjab in the cold weather almost ideal.

States.

The Indian States of the Punjab were formerly in the Political charge of the Punjab Government. In 1921, however, the thirteen most important States, including Patiala, Bahawalpur, Jind and Nabha, were formed into a separate "Punjab States Agency" under the control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States. The only States remaining in the charge of the Punjab Government are the Simla Hill States, for which the Deputy Commissioner of Simla is Political Officer, and three small States in the Ambala Division, Kalsia, Pataudi and Dujana, which are supervised by the Commissioner of Ambala.

The People.

Of the population roughly one-half is Mahomedan three-eighths Hindu and one-eighth Sikh. Socially the landed classes stand high, and of these the Jats, numbering nearly five millions, are the most important. Roughly speaking, one-half the Jats are Mahomedan, one-third Sikh and one-sixth Hindu. In distribution they are ubiquitous and are equally divided between the five divisions of the province. Next in importance come the Rajputs, who number over a million and a half. The majority of them are Mahomedans by religion,

about a fourth are Hindus and a very few Sikhs. They are widely distributed over the province. Both Jats and Rajputs of the Punjab provide many of the best recruits for the Indian Army. In fact all the agricultural classes of the Punjab, except in the south-western districts, made a magnificent response to the appeal for recruits in the great war and the province's contribution of upwards of 400,000 men to the man power of the Empire speaks for itself. The Gujars are an important agricultural and pastoral tribe, chiefly found in the eastern half of the province and in the extreme north-west. In organisation they closely resemble the Jats and are often absorbed into that tribe. There are many minor agricultural tribes, priestly and religious castes (Brahmans, Savads and Kureshis), most of whom are landholders, the trading castes of the Hindus (Khatri, Arora and Banias), the trading castes of the Mahomedans (Khoja, Pathanas and Khakhs), and the numerous artisan and menial castes. There are also vagrant and criminal tribes, and foreign elements in the population are represented by the Baluchis of Dera Ghazi Khan and neighbouring districts in the west, who number about half a million and maintain their tribal system, and the Pathans of the Attock and Mianwali districts. Pathans are also found scattered all over the province engaged in horse-dealing, labour and trade. A small Tibetan element is found in the Himalayan districts.

Languages

The main language of the province is Punjabi, which is spoken by more than half the population. Western Punjabi may be classed as a separate language, sometimes called Lahndi, and is spoken in the north and west. The next most important languages are Western Hindi, which includes Hindustani and Urdu (the polished language of the towns), Western Pahari, which is spoken in the hill tracts; and Rajasthani, the language of Rajputana. Baluchi, Pushto, Sindhi and Tibeto-Burman languages are used by small sections of the population.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is the staple industry of the province affording the main means of subsistence to 80.5 per cent. of the population. It is essentially a country of peasant proprietors. About one-sixth of the total area in British districts is Government property, the remaining five-sixths belonging to private owners, and a large part of the Government land is so situated that it cannot be brought under cultivation without extensive irrigation. Thus the Lower Chenab Canal irrigates 1,939,000 acres of what was formerly waste land, the Lower Jhelum Canal, 4,18,000 acres, and the Lower Bari Doab Canal, adds 1,005,000 acres to this total. On account of the opening of the Sutley Valley canals an area of about 1,244,000 acres more has been brought under cultivation. Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 6,000 square miles. Of the crops grown, wheat is the most important and the development

of irrigation has led to a great expansion of the wheat area. Next in importance to wheat is gram. Other important staples are barley, rice, millet, maize, oil-seeds (rape, toria and sesamum), cotton and sugarcane. In the canal colonies large areas of American cotton are grown but in the cotton-growing districts the short staple Indian varieties are predominant. The country being preponderantly agricultural, a considerable proportion of the wealth of the people lies in its stock. Live stock profits are derived from the cattle and dairy trades and wool is a staple product in Kulu and Kangra and throughout the plains generally. The production of hides and skins is also an important industry.

Industries

The mineral wealth of the Punjab is small, rock salt, sulphate and lime stone for road building being the most important products. There are some small coal mines in the Jhelum, Shahpur and Mianwali districts. Gold washing is carried on in many of the rivers not without a remunerative result. Iron and copper are plentiful but the difficulty of carriage and the absence of fuel have hitherto prevented smelting on a large scale. The Punjab is not a large manufacturing province, the total number of factories being only 71, the majority of which are cotton spinning and pressing factories. Blankets and woollen rugs are produced in considerable quantities and the carpets of Amritsar are famous. Silk weaving is also carried on and the workers in gold, silver, brass, copper and earthenware are fairly numerous. Ivory carving is carried on extensively at Amritsar and Jalandhar and also in the Pathan State. Mineral oil is being extracted and refined in the Attock and Rawalpindi districts and a cement factory is established at Wahi near Hasanabdal. There is also a match factory at Shriharidwar and a factory for the hydrogenation and refining of oils at Ludhiana.

Administration.

Prior to the amendment of the Government of India Act in 1919 the head of the administration was a Lieutenant-Governor, drawn from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the amended Act the province was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers, the Governor-in-Council being in charge of the Reserved Subjects and the Governor with his Ministers of the Transferred Subjects. The general system of provincial administration under this scheme is sketched in the section "Provincial Governments" (q r) where is also given a list of the Reserved and Transferred Subjects. Associated with the Governor and the Council and Ministers is an enlarged Legislative Council, with wide powers, whose scope and authority are given in the section "Legislative Councils" (q r), the system being common to all the major provinces. The business of Government is carried on through the usual Secretariat which consists of four Secretaries, designated (1) Chief, (2) Home, (3) Finance, and (4) Transferred Departments, one Deputy Secretary, two Under-Secretaries, and one Assistant Secretary. In the Public Works Department, there are five Secretaries (Chief Engineers), one in the Buildings and

Roads Branch, one in the Hydro-Electric Branch and three in the Irrigation Branch, while the Legal Remembrancer is also the Secretary to Government in the Legislative Department. The head of the Police Department is Joint Secretary and of Education Department an Under Secretary to Government. The Government winter in Lahore and the summer (from the middle of May to the middle of October) in Simla. Under the Governor, the province is administered by five Commissioners (for Ambala, Jullunder, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Multan) who exercise general control over the Deputy Commissioners—29 in number—each of whom is in charge of a district.

The principal heads of Department in the province are the two Financial Commissioners (who are the highest Court of Revenue jurisdiction, and heads of the departments of Land and Separate Revenue and of Agriculture and the Court of Wards), the five Chief Engineers, the Inspector-General of Police, the Director of Public Instruction, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Directors of Agriculture and Industries, the Inspector-General of Registration, the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies and Joint Stock Companies and the Legal Remembrancer.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to a High Court, which is the final appellate authority to civil and criminal cases, and has powers of original criminal jurisdiction in cases where European British subjects are charged with serious offences and original civil jurisdiction in special cases. The Court sits at Lahore and is composed of a Chief Justice and eight Puisne Judges (either civilians or barristers), and seven temporary Additional Judges, including the Inspecting Judge sanctioned each year for six months. Subordinate to the High Court are the District and Sessions Judges (25 in number) each of whom exercise civil and criminal jurisdiction in a civil and session division comprising one or more districts. In districts in which the Frontier Crimes Regulation is in force the Deputy Commissioner on the finding of a Council of Elders (Jirga) may pass sentence up to seven years' imprisonment.

Local Self-Government.

Local Self-Government is secured in certain branches of the administration by the constitution of District Boards, each exercising authority over a district, of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees each exercising authority over an urban area, and of Panchayats, each exercising authority over a revenue estate or a compact group of revenue estates. The funds of District Boards are derived from a cess on the land revenue of the district supplemented by Government grants, profession taxes and miscellaneous fees, and those of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees from octroi or terminal tax and other forms of taxation from Government grants and from rents and miscellaneous fees. The Panchayat system is an attempt to revive the

traditional village community organisation, the elected committee or Panchayat possessing certain powers in respect of taxation, local option, civil and criminal justice, the abatement of nuisances and other matters. Most of the members of practically all local bodies are now elected and elections are as a rule keenly contested.

Police.

The Police force is divided into District Police, Railway Police and Criminal Investigation Department. The combined force is under the control of the Inspector-General, who is a member of the gazetted force and has under him three Deputy Inspectors-General in charge of ranges comprising several districts and a fourth Deputy Inspector-General in charge of the Criminal Investigation Department and of the Finger Print Bureau at Phillaur. There is a Police Training School at Phillaur controlled by a Principal of the rank of Superintendent of Police. The Railway Police are under an Assistant Inspector-General. The District Police are controlled by Superintendents, each of whom is in charge of a district and has under him one or more Assistant Superintendents or Deputy Superintendents.

Education.

The strides which have been made in the past decade especially in the concluding years of the period, have brought the Punjab into line with the older and more forward provinces. The advance has not been confined to any one form of education but is spread over all grades and varieties. In addition to institutions maintained in all parts of the province by private enterprise, Government itself maintains fifteen arts colleges (including one for Europeans and two for women), three normal schools for males, fourteen training classes, and combined institutions for females, one hundred and twenty secondary schools for boys and girls and fifty centres for vocational training. Apart from these institutions for general education, Government maintains six higher grade professional institutions, viz., the King Edward Medical College and Veterinary College at Lahore, the Agricultural College at Lyallpur, the Engineering College at Mughalpur, the Central Training College Lahore and the Chelmsford Training College at Ghoragali, and two schools, viz., the Medical School at Amritsar and the Engineering School at Basul. In addition there are thirty-two technical and industrial schools (thirty for males and two for females) scattered over the province.

The Department of Education is in charge of the Minister for Education who is assisted in the work of administration by the Director of Public Instruction.

Medical.

The Medical Department is controlled by the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, who is an officer of the Indian Medical Service holding the rank of Colonel. He is assisted by an officer designated the Assistant Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, who is at present an officer of the Indian Medical Department of the rank of a Civil Surgeon.

Public Health.

The Department of Public Health is controlled by the Director of Public Health who has, working under him, three Assistant Directors of Public Health, 34 District Medical Officers of Health, and twenty-eight District Sanitary Inspectors. In addition there is a temporary staff of 10 Sub-Assistant Health Officers and 15 Sanitary Inspectors for assistance in combating epidemic diseases. The ancillary services comprise

(1) A Vaccine Institute which is in charge of the Assistant Director of Public Health, Punjab (Technical) Vaccination, assisted by a Superintendent and which prepares sufficient vaccine lymph to meet the needs not only of the Punjab, but of the Army in Northern India and of several provinces and Indian States in and beyond the confines of India.

(2) An epidemiological bureau, which is in charge of the Epidemiologist to Government where, in addition to routine bacteriological examination, research work in matters bearing upon public health problems is carried out.

(3) An Education Bureau, to which is attached a photographer and a draftsman.

(4) A Chemical Laboratory in charge of a fully trained chemist whose duties comprise the chemical analysis of water samples and food stuffs.

(5) A Public Health Equipment Depot which supplies Government Institutions, local bodies, etc., with reliable disinfectants, vaccine sera, etc.

(6) A Public Health School, the staff of which is responsible for the training of health visitors. The Principal, who is also Inspector of Health Centres, supervises the maternity and child welfare work throughout the province.

In matters connected with sanitary works the Director of Public Health works in close touch with the Superintending Engineer, Public Health Circle, Punjab, who acts as technical adviser of the Public Health Department in engineering matters. This officer and the Director of Public Health are also the technical advisers of the Sanitary Board whose duty it is to examine and report upon sanitary schemes put forward by local bodies.

HEADS OF ACCOUNT.		Budget Estimate, 1934-35.	HEADS OF ACCOUNT.		Budget Estimate, 1934-35.
REVENUE RECEIPTS.					
<i>Principal Heads of Revenue</i>		(In thousands of Rupees.)			(In thousands of Rupees.)
II—Taxes on Income	4,66,21	XIV—Irrigation—Works for which no capital accounts are kept.		1,73
V—Land Revenue (gross) ..		4,66,21	Total ..		4,35,02
Deduct—Revenue credited to Irrigation.		—1,82,57	<i>Debt Services.</i>		
Total Land Revenue ..		2,83,64	XVI—Interest		9,60
VI—Excise		91,51	<i>Civil Administration</i>		
VII—Stamps		1,13,09	XVII—Administration of Justice		9,66
VIII—Forests		17,14	XVIII—Jails and Convict Settlements.		3,71
IX—Registration		9,27	XIX—Police		1,28
Total ..		5,14,65	XXVI—Miscellaneous Departments		8,80
<i>Irrigation</i>			Total ..		23,45
XIII—Irrigation—Works for which capital accounts are kept—			<i>Beneficent Departments.</i>		
Direct Receipts ..		4,31,49	XXI—Education		18,41
Indirect credits (Land Revenue due to Irrigation).		1,82,57	XXII—Medical		9,35
Gross amount ..		6,17,06	XXIII—Public Health		1,09
Deduct—Working Expenses.		—1,83,77	XXIV—Agriculture		7,70
Net XIII—Irrigation Receipts.		4,33,29	XXV—Industries		4,05
			Total ..		40,60

HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1934-35.	HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1934-35.
<i>Buildings and Roads.</i>	(In thousands of Rupees)		(In thousands of Rupees).
XXX—Civil Works	15,32	Depreciation Reserve Fund for Government Presses	54
XXX-A—Hydro Electric	12,09	Revenue Reserve Fund
Deduct—Working Expenses	—6,99	Central Road Fund ..	5,50
Net XXX-A—Hydro Electric scheme	5,10	Miscellaneous Government account	2,64
Total	20,42	Research Fund	1,54
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		Total	23,09
XXXII—Transfers from Insu- rance Fund	.	TOTAL PROVINCIAL RECEIPTS.	12,16,74
XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Su- perannuation	1,18	Opening Balance	90,99
XXXIV—Stationery and Printing	2,62	Grand Total	13,07,73
XXXV—Miscellaneous ..	18,80	EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE.	
Total	22,64	Direct demands on the Revenue.	
<i>Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments</i>		5—Land Revenue ..	37,29
XXXIX-A—Miscellaneous adjust- ments between the Cen- tral and Provincial Gov- ernments.	.	6—Excise	10,59
XL-A—Transfers from the Re- venue Reserve Fund ..		7—Stamps . . .	1,97
Total Revenue Receipts ..	10,66,38	8—Forests . . .	22,67
<i>Extraordinary Items</i>		9—Registration { (R) .. (T) ..	79
XL—Extraordinary Receipts ..	25,02	Total	73,31
Total Revenue ..	10,91,40	<i>Irrigation Revenue Account.</i>	
Advance from Provl. Loans Fund	75,00	14—Works for which capital accounts are kept (Interest on debt)	1,37,70
LOANS AND ADVANCES BY PROVIN- CIAL GOVERNMENTS.		15—Miscellaneous Irrigation Ex- penditure.	9,26
Recoveries of loans and advances	27,25	Total ..	1,46,96
DEPOSITS AND ADVANCES.		<i>Debt Services.</i>	
Famine Relief Fund	1,00	19—Interest on Ordinary Debt	—32,63
Appropriations for reduction or avoidance of debt.		21—Reduction or Avoidance of Debt.	11,88
Sinking Fund for Provincial Loans	2,67	Total ..	—20,75
Other appropriations . .	9,20	<i>Civil Administration.</i>	
		22—General Administration (Re- served);	1,05,25
		22—General Administration (Transferred)	1,89
		24—Administration of Justice ..	51,40

HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget Estimate, 1931-35	HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1931-35
	(In thousands of Rupees)		(In thousands of Rupees)
25—Jails and Convict Settlements	30.45	51-A—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.
26—Police	1,22.70	Total ..	.
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Reserved)	1.58	Extraordinary Items	
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Transferred)	24	52—Extraordinary charges
Total ..	3,13.51	52-B—Transfers to Revenue Reserve Fund	..
Beneficent Departments		Total Revenue Expenditure charged to Revenue	10,15.62
30—Scientific Departments ..	23	CAPITAL EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE	
31—Education (Reserved) ..	5.85	5-A—Forests ..	1.62
31—Education (Transferred) ..	1,52.21	10—Irrigation Works
32—Medical { (R)	8	35-A—Industrial Development	..
{ (T)	14.91	11-A—Civil Works	8.2
33—Public Health	11.18	11-B—Hydro Electric Scheme	..
34—Agriculture	40.73	45-A—Commutation of Pensions	..
35—Industries	12.82	Total Capital Expenditure charged to Revenue	0.8
Total ..	2,74.01	Total Expenditure charged to Revenue	10,25.4
Bridges and Roads.		Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue	
41—Civil Works { Reserved ..	1.21	52-A—Forest Capital Expenditure	..
{ Transferred ..	91.23	55—Construction of Irrigation Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works	28.5
41-C—Civil Works, Hydro Electric Scheme—Interest on Capital Outlay	31.02	56-C—Industrial Development Capital Expenditure.	..
Total ..	1,26.46	58—Hydro Electric Scheme Capital Expenditure	84.5
Miscellaneous		60—Civil Works—Capital Expenditure
43—Famine	2.00	60-B—Payment of Commuted value of Pensions Capital Expenditure	0.4
45—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions.	65.03	Total Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue	1,22.5
46—Stationery and Printing (Reserved).	0.39	Loans raised in the Market —	
46—Stationery and Printing (Transferred).	66	5½ per cent Punjab Bonds, 1937	4
47—Miscellaneous (Reserved) ..	7.27	4 " " " 1948	2.1
47—Miscellaneous (Transferred) ..	17.74	Total ..	2.6
Total ..	1,02.00		
Contributions and Assignments.			
51—Contribution to the Central Government.		

HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1934-35	HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1934-35.
Advances from Provincial Loans Funds (Repayments)	(In thousands of Rupees) 9.20	Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of Debts — Sinking Fund for Provincial Loans	2.60
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments —		Suspense	.. 73
Loans and Advances (Reserved)	7.96	Depreciation Reserve Fund for Govt Presses	.. 0.23
" " " (Transferred)	3.07	Revenue Reserve Fund	.. 1.54
		Central Road Fund	..
		Government Accounts	..
		Research Fund	..
Total	11.03	Total	11.19
Deposits and Advances — Famine Relief Fund	..	Total Provincial Disbursements	11,82.04
		Closing Balance	.. 1,25.09
		Grand Total	13,07.73

Administration

Governor, H B Sir Herbert William Emerson, KCSI, CIE, CBE, ICS

PERSONAL STAFF

Private Secretary, Major R. T. Lawrence, MC, Hodson's Horse

Aides-de-Camp — Lieut. the Hon'ble W Edwards, 15th Kings Hussars, Lieut L P Le-Maichand, 5th Royal Ghurkha Rifles (FF)

Indian Aides-de-Camp — Hony Lieut Sansar Chand, Bahadur, IDSM late 12th F F Regiment, Subedar Sirajuddin late 12th F F Regiment, Hony Captain Sardar Bahadur Chanda Sing, IOM

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Captain Khan Bahadur Sardar Sir Sikander Hyat-Khan, KBE (Revenue)

The Hon'ble Mr D. J. Boyd, CIE, ICS (Finance)

MINISTERS

The Hon'ble Sardar Sir Jogendra Singh, Minister for Agriculture

The Hon'ble Dr Gokul Chand Narang, MA, PhD., Minister for Local Self-Government

The Hon'ble Malik Sir Firoz Khan Noon, Minister for Education

CIVIL SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary, C. C Garbett, CMG, CIE, RGS, ICS

Home Secretary, J W Hearn, ICS

Financial Secretary, C M G Ogilvie, CBE, ICS

Secretary, Transferred Departments, P Marsden, ICS

Public Works Department

Irrigation Branch

Secretary, (Southern Canals), F J. Waller

Secretary, (Northern Canals), A Murphy, OBE

Secretary, (Construction), J. D H Bedford

Buildings and Roads Branch

Secretary, D Macfarlane

Financial Commissioners, A Latiff, CIE, OBE, ICS (Revenue), J A Ferguson, OBE, ICS (Development.)

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS

Director of Agriculture, H B Stewart, IAS

Director of Land Records and Inspector General of Registration, K S Malik Abdul Haq, BA

Director of Public Instruction, R. Sanderson, MA

Inspector General of Police, J M Ewart, CIE

Chief Conservator of Forests, R N Parker, IFS.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Colonel C H Reinhold, MC, I RCSI, IMS

Director of Public Health, Khan Bahadur, Dr. K A Rahman, OBE

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt-Col F A Barker, OBE, IMS

Accountant-General, J G Bhandari, MA

Postmaster-General, Major A. Angelo, OBI

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB

Sir John Lawrence, Bart, GOB. 1856

Sir Robert Montgomery, KCB. 1859

Donald Friell McLeod, O.B. 1867

Major-General Sir Henry Durand, KCSI, CB, died at Tonk, January 1870

R H Davies, OBI 1871

R D Egerton, OBI 1877

Sir Charles V Aitchison, KCSI, CIE 1882

James Broadwood Lyal 1887

Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick, KCSI 1892

William Macworth Young, OBI 1897

Sir C M Riaz, KCSI 1902

Sir D C J Ibbetson, KCSI, resigned 1907

22nd January 1908

T G Walker, OBI (Offg) 1907

Sir Louis W Dane, KOB, OBI, CSI 1908

James McCrone Doule, (Offg) 1911

Sir M F. O'Dwyer, KCSI 1913

Sir Edward MacLagan, KOB, CSI, CIE 1919

GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB.

Sir Edward MacLagan, KOB, CSI 1920

Sir Malcolm Hailey, KCSI, CIE 1924

Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, GCSI, KCSI, KCMG, CBE. 1929

Sir Herbert William Emerson, KCSI, CIE, CBE, ICS 1933

PUNJAB LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Chaudhri, Sir Shahab-ud-Din, Kt, K B, Kangra-cum-Gurdaspur (Muhammadan), Rural - President.

MEMBERS AND MINISTERS

Ex-Officio

The Hon'ble Captain Sirdar Sir Sikander Hyat Khan, K B E, Revenue Member to Government, Punjab

The Hon'ble Mr. D J Boyd, C I E I O S, Finance Member to Government, Punjab.

The Hon'ble Sardar Sir Jogendra Singh, Kt, Minister for Agriculture (Sikh), Landholders

The Hon'ble Malik Sir Feroz Khan Noon, Kt, Minister for Education, Shahpur East (Muhammadan) Rural

The Hon'ble Dr Sir Gokul Chand Narang, Kt, M A, Ph. D, Minister for Local Self-Government, (North-West Towns Non-Muhammadan), Urban

NOMINATED.

Officials.

Anderson, Mr J D, I C S, Legal Remembrancer and Secretary to Government, Legislative Department

Ferguson, Mr J A, O B E, I O S, Financial Commissioner, Development

Fazal Habi, Khan Sahib Shaikh, Director, Information Bureau

Hearn, Mr J W, I C S, Home Secretary to Government

Marsden Mr P I O S, Secretary to Government, Transferred Departments

Latif, Mr A C I E, O B E, I O S, Financial Commissioner, Revenue

Sanderson, Mr L, M A, I E S, Director of Public Instruction

Puckle, Mr F H, C I E, I O S, Officer on Special Duty, Punjab Civil Secretariat

Erbett, Mr C C, C M G, C I E, T R G S, I C S, Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab.

Askwith, Mr A V, I O S, Officer on Special Duty, Punjab Civil Secretariat

Dodd Mr R J S, I C S, Officer on Special Duty, Office of Joint Secretary, Transferred Department

Muzaffer Khan, U B Nawab C I E, Reform Commissioner, Punjab

Pearson, Mr H J, Officer on Special Duty, Punjab Civil Secretariat

Non-officials

Ghani, Mr M A	Representative of Labouring Classes
Jamneja Singh, Captain, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, O B I	Representative of the Punjab Officers and Soldiers of His Majesty's Indian Forces
Labi Chand Mehra, Lala	Representative of General Interests
Maya Das, Mr Ernest, B A	Representative of Indian Christians.
Mushtaq Ahmad, Gurmiti, Khan Bahadur, Mian	Representative of General Interests
Rahim Bakhsh, Manly, Sir, K C I E	Representative of General Interests
Roberts, Prof W C I E	Representative of the European and Anglo Indian Communities
Shave, Dr (Mrs.) M O	Representative of the European and Anglo Indian Communities
Sheo Narain Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, C I E	Representative of General Interests

ELECTED

Name of Member	Constituency
Abdul Ghani Shaikh	West Punjab Towns (Muhammadan), Urban
Ahmad Yar Khan, Daultana, Khan Bahadur Mian	(Muhammadan), Landholders
Akbar Ali, Pir, B A, LL B	Ferozepore (Muhammadan), Rural
Allah Dad Khan, Chaudhri, B A	Ambala Division, North-East (Muhammadan), Rural
Arjan Singh, Sardar, B A, LL B	Hoshiarpur and Kangra (Sikh), Rural
Bahadur Khan, Sardar, M B E	Dera Ghazi Khan (Muhammadan), Rural
Balbir Singh, Rao Bahadur Captain, Rao, O B I	Gurgaon (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Bansi Lal, Chaudhri	Lahore City (Non-Muhammadan), Urban
Bhagat Ram, Lala	Jullundur-cum-Ludhiana (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Bishan Singh, Sardar	Sialkot-cum-Gurdaspur (Sikh), Rural
Buta Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, B A, LL B	Multan Division and Sheikhupura (Sikh), Rural
Chetan Anand, Lala, B A, LL B	West Punjab Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban
Chhotu Ram, Rao Bahadur Chaudhri, B A, LL B	South-East Rohtak (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Chowdhry, Mr Sajjan Kumar	Hissar (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Faqir Hussain Khan, Chaudhri	Amritsar (Muhammadan), Rural
Fazil Ali, Khan Bahadur Nawab Chaudhri, O B E	Gujrat East (Muhammadan), Urban

Name of Member.

Constituency

Gopal Das, Rai Sahib Lala

Gurbachan Singh, Sardar Sahib Sardar
Habib Ullah, Khan Bahadur, Sardar
Halbat Khan Dahan, Khan
Afzal Haq, Chaudhri

Jagdev Khan Kharal, Rai
Jaswant Singh, Guru
Jawahar Singh Dhillon, Baidar, B A (Agri)
(Wales), M & P (London)
Jyoti Prasad, Lala, B A, LL B
Kesar Singh, Rai Sahib Chaudhri

Lah Singh, Mr, M A, LL B (Cantab)

Malik, Mr Muhammad Din
Mamraj Singh Chohan, Kanwar, B A, LL B
Manohar Lal, Mr, M A
Mezher Ali Azhar, Maulvi, B A, LL B

Lekhvat, Shrinathi
Mohan Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar

Mohundar Singh, Sardar
Mubarak Ali Shah, Sayad
Muhammad Abdul Rahman Khan, Chaudhri
Muhammad Amin Khan, Khan Bahadur, Mahk,
O B

Muhammad Eusoo, Khwaja
Muhammad Hayat, Qureshi, Khan Bahadur
Nawab Mian, O B
Muhammad Hasan, Khan Sahib, Makhdam,
Shaikh

Muhammad Jamal Khan Leghari, Khan Bahadur, Nawab
Muhammad Raza Shah Gilani, Makhdomzada,
Sayad

Muhammad Sadiq, Shaikh
Muhammad Sarfaraz Ali Khan, Raja
Muhammad Yasin Khan, Chaudhri, B A, LL B
Mukand Lal Puri, Mr, M A
Mukerji, Rai Bahadur Mr P

Muzaffar Khan, Khan Bahadur Captain Mahk
Narendra Nath, Diwan Bahadur Raja, M A
Nathwa Singh, Chaudhri
Nihal Chand Aggarwal, Lala

Noor Ahmed Khan, Khan Sahib Mian
Nur Khan, Khan Sahib, Risaldar Bahadur
Nurulah, Mian, B Com (London), F P L S
Pancham Chand, Thakur
Pindit, Mr Nanak Chand, M A
Ragbir Singh, Honorary Lieutenant Sardar,
O B

Ramp Das, Lala
Ram Sarup, Chaudhri
Ram Singh, 2nd Lieut-Sardar Sahib Bahadur
Rasat Ali, Khan Sahib Chaudhri, B A, LL B
Rampuran Singh, Sardar
Bewak Ram Rai Bahadur, Lala
Tajai Singh, Sardar, Sahib Sardar, M A
Umar Hayat, Chaudhri
Zafulla Khan, Chaudhri, B A, LL B
Zaman Mehd, Khan Bahadur Mahk B A

Lahore and Ferozepore-cum-Sheikhupura (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Jullundur (Sikh), Rural
Lahore (Muhammadan), Rural
Multan East (Muhammadan), Rural
Hoshiarpur-cum-Ludhiana (Muhammadan)
Rural
Lyallpur North (Muhammadan), Rural
Ferozepore (Sikh), Rural
Lahore (Sikh), Rural

South-East Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban
Amritsar-cum-Gurdaspur (Non-Muhammadan)
Rural
Rawalpindi Division and Lahore Division North,
(Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Lahore City (Muhammadan), Urban
Ambala-cum-Simla (Non-Muhammadan) Rural
Punjab University
East & West Central Towns (Muhammadan),
Urban.

North-East Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Rawalpindi Division and Gujranwala (Sikh),
Rural
Ludhiana (Sikh), Rural
Jhang (Muhammadan), Rural
Jullundur (Muhammadan), Rural
Attock (Muhammadan), Rural

South-East Town (Muhammadan), Urban.
Shahpur West (Muhammadan), Rural

Muzaffargarh (Muhammadan), Rural

Baluch Tumandars (Landholders)

Multan West (Muhammadan), Rural

Amritsar City (Muhammadan), Urban
Jhelum (Muhammadan), Rural
Gurgaon-cum-Hissar (Muhammadan), Rural
Punjab Industries
Punjab Chamber of Commerce and Trades
Association Commerce
Mianwali (Muhammadan), Rural
Punjab Landholders (General)
Karnal (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
East and West Central Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban
Montgomery (Muhammadan), Rural
Rawalpindi (Muhammadan), Rural
Lyallpur South (Muhammadan), Rural
Kangra (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Hoshiarpur (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Amritsar (Sikh), Rural

Amritsar City (Non-Muhammadan), Urban
North-West Rohitak (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Ambala Division (Sikh) Rural
Gujranwala (Muhammadan), Rural
Lyallpur (Sikh), Rural
Multan Division (Non-Muhammadan), Rural
Sikh (Urban)
Gujrat West (Muhammadan) Rural
Salhot (Muhammadan), Rural
Sheikhupura (Muhammadan), Rural

Alaasha Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, Bir-at-Law Secretary, Legislative Council, Meclod Road,
Lahore

Hakim Ahmed Shuja, Khan Sahib, B A, Assistant Secretary, Legislative Council, Meclod Road,
Lahore.

There was a fairly large improvement in the output of tin and wolfram during the year 1933, (2,943 62 tons) as compared with the output of 1932 (2,511 58) Silver lead and zinc ore are extracted by the Burma Corporation at Bawdwin in the Northern Shan States. Copper in small quantities is also found there. There are small deposits of Molybdenite in Tavoy and Mergui and of platinum in Myitkyna. Mining for precious stones in the Mogoke tract of the Katha District continued to be carried out by native miners working under licenses. The output of rubies during 1933 was 1,106 carats as compared with 74 66 carats during 1931, there being no weights recorded in the year 1932. The output of amber in 1933 was 675 cwt. The output of Burmese Jadeite during 1933 compared with that of the previous year showed a decrease of 1855 cwts. The oldest and largest oil field in the province is at Yenangaung in the Magwe District where the Burma Oil Company has its chief wells. There were increases in the output from the wells in the Yenangaung Oilfield and in the Pakokku District due to increased drilling operations in these operations in these areas. There were decreases in the output in the Chank Oilfield and in the Minbu and Thavetmye Districts due to the natural decline in the production of oil from existing wells. There was also a decrease in the output in the Chundwin District due to the curtailment of the activities of Messrs. The Indo-Burma Petroleum Company, Limited. The output of petroleum during 1933 exceeded that of 1932 by 1,430,003 gallons the increase being mainly from wells in the Pakokku District and the Yenangaung Oilfield of the Magwe District. The Burma Oil Company take their oil to the refineries at Rangoon by pipe line from the Yenangaung and Singu Oilfields. Other companies take it down by river flats. The area under rubber is 106,496 acres.

Manufactures

There are 1,010 factories, more than half of which are engaged in milling rice and nearly one-seventh are sawmills. The remainder are, chiefly engineering works, cotton ginning mills, oil mills for the extraction of oil from groundnuts, printing presses, ice and aerated water factories, and oil refineries connected with the petroleum industry. The total number of persons employed in establishments under the Indian Factories Act in 1933 was 86,433. Perennial factories employed 39,938 and seasonal factories 46,495. At the Census of 1931, 1,850,170 or 29.79 per cent of the total population were engaged outside agriculture and production.

As is the case in other parts of the Indian Empire, the imported and factory made article is rapidly ousting the home-made and indigenous. But at Amarapura in the Mandalay District a revival has taken place of hand silk-weaving. Burmese wood-carving is still famous and many artists in silver still remain, the finish of whose work is sometimes very fine. Bassein and Mandalay parasols are well known and much admired in Burma. But perhaps the most famous of all hand-made and indigenous industries is the lacquer work of Pagan with its delicate patterns in black, green, and yellow traced on a ground-work of red lacquer over bamboo. A new art is the making of bronze

figures. The artists have gone back to nature for their models, breaking away from the conventionalized forms into which their silver work had crystallized and the new figures display a vigour and life that make them by far the finest examples of art the province can produce.

Administration.

Burma, which was at that time administered as a Lieutenant-Governorship, was deliberately excluded from the operation of the Reform Act of 1919. It was felt that the Province differed so markedly from the other Provinces in the Indian Empire that its requirements should be separately considered. After repeated discussions the question was referred to a special Burma Reforms Committee, which in 1922 recommended that all the essential provisions of the Reform Act should be applied to the Province. This recommendation was accepted and its proposals became law. Under this Act Burma became a Governor's Province, with an executive council and ministers, and conforms to the provisions recreated under the Act of 1919 (q.v.). The main difference is in the size of the electorate. Under the franchise accepted, the rural electorate is estimated at 1,079,450 and the urban electorate has been put as high as 99,892. The Legislative Council consists of 103 members, of which 80 are elected and the balance nominated. Owing to the special status of women in Burma, female franchise was adopted from the beginning.

Burma is divided administratively into Upper Burma (including the Shan States, the Kachin and Chin Hills) and Lower Burma. The Shan States are administered by the Chiefs of the States, subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, Federated Shan States, who is also Superintendent for the Southern Shan States, and the Superintendent of the Northern Shan States. The Northern and Southern Shan States were formed into a Federation on the 1st October 1922, and are designated the F. S. States. The other Shan States in Burma are subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, Sagaing Division. The Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration is vested in the Chief of the State, subject to the restrictions contained in the sanad. The law administered is the customary law of the State.

Under the Governor are eight Commissioners of divisions, three in Upper, four in Lower Burma, and one in the Federated Shan States.

Justice

The administration of Civil and Criminal Justice is under the control of the High Court of Judicature at Rangoon, which consists of a Chief Justice and ten other permanent Judges. The Superior Judicial Service consists of District and Sessions Judges, there are also separate Provincial and Subordinate Judicial Services.

All village headmen have limited magisterial powers and a considerable number are also invested with civil jurisdiction to a limited extent.

In pursuance of the policy of decentralization steps were taken in 1917 to restore to the village headmen the power and influence which they possessed in Burmese times before the centralizing tendencies of British rule made them practically subordinate officers of the administration.

11. 1-15-1961 11:00 AM 11:15 AM 11:30 AM

[illegible]

1. The first of these is the fact that the

1. The first step in the process is to identify the problem or issue that needs to be addressed. This involves gathering information and understanding the context of the situation.

2. Once the problem is identified, the next step is to define the objectives and goals of the project. This helps to clarify what needs to be achieved and provides a clear direction for the team.

3. The third step is to develop a plan or strategy to address the problem. This involves breaking down the problem into smaller, manageable tasks and determining the resources needed to complete each task.

4. The fourth step is to implement the plan. This involves putting the strategy into action and monitoring progress to ensure that the project is on track.

5. The final step is to evaluate the results of the project. This involves assessing the outcomes against the objectives and goals and identifying any areas for improvement.

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

- [illegible]

To: [illegible]
 From: [illegible]
 Subject: [illegible]
 Date: [illegible]
 [illegible]
 [illegible]
 [illegible]
 [illegible]
 [illegible]
 [illegible]

for the purpose of ... each year

Medical

Under the control of the Mayor at Department 5
is placed in an Inspector General of Civil Hy-
giene. Under him are 57 Civil Hygiene
Inspectors, also a Director of Public Health,
Assistant Directors of Public Health, the section
whom is also Director, Public Health Insur-
ance, which there is now a Public Health (which
post is at present held by a man for purpose
of economy) and to which is also attached
Municipal Bureau. There are also an Inspector
General of Prisons, three Vice Inspectors,
Superintendents of Prisons, a Chemical Examiner
of Bacteriology and a Superintendent of the
Mental Hospital. There is also a post of
Hygiene Publicity Officer, which for the present
is held in abeyance.

The Pasteur Institute was opened in Rangoon in July 1915. The Director is a member of the Indian Medical Service.

THE FINANCES OF BURMA.

In common with the other Provinces of India, the financial arrangements between the Government of India and the Government of Burma underwent a remodelling in consequence of the reconstitution of the Province on the lines of the other Indian Provinces. The Province obtained substantial financial independence. The present position is set out in the following statement.—

ESTIMATED RECEIPTS FOR 1934-35

(A) REVENUE RECEIPTS—ORDINARY

	Rs
Taxes on Income	
Salt	2,25,000
Land Revenue	4,57,49,000
Excise	79,57,000
Stamps	48,09,000
Forest	74,99,000
Registration	3,99,000
Scheduled Taxes	10,61,000
Irrigation, etc. Works with Capital Accounts	35,55,000
Irrigation, etc., Works (No Capital Accounts)	1,29,000
Interest	4,98,000
Administration of Justice	7,68,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	7,99,000
Police	9,82,000
Ports and Pilotage	2,98,000
Education	1,63,000
Medical	1,54,000
Public Health	1,43,000
Agriculture	1,14,000
Industries	10,000
Miscellaneous Departments	5,11,000
Civil Works	10,70,000
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	78,000
Stationery and Printing	1,44,000
Miscellaneous	18,05,000
Total (a)	7,96,00,000

(B) REVENUE RECEIPTS—EXTRAORDINARY

Extraordinary Receipts	5,000
Total (a) & (b)	7,96,05,000

(C) DEBT HEADS

Appropriation for reduction or avoiding of debt	
Depreciation Fund—Government Presses	91,000
Depreciation Fund—Commercial Concerns	
Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	25,66,000
Civil Deposits	8,40,000
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund	65,10,000
Total (c)	1,00,07,000
Total (a) (b) & (c)	8,96,12,000
Opening Balance	65,000
Grand Total	8,97,37,000

ESTIMATED DISBURSEMENTS FOR 1934-35

(A) EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE

	Rs
Land Revenue	73,04,000
Excise	18,31,000
Stamps	1,09,000
Forest	60,82,000
(a) Forest Capital Outlay	5,000
Registration	1,71,000
Scheduled Taxes	1,000
Int. on wks with cap Accounts	27,09,000
Other Revenue Expenditure	2,45,000
Interest on Ordinary Debt	3,80,000
Interest on other Obligations	
Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	
General Administration	1,01,44,000
Administration of Justice	58,65,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	27,99,000
Police	1,54,69,000
Ports and Pilotage	4,11,000
Scientific Departments	51,000
Education	79,39,000
Medical	40,63,000
Public Health	9,21,000
Agriculture	16,85,000
Industries	2,12,000
Miscellaneous Departments	3,19,000
Civil Works	86,46,000
Famine	20,000
Supra Allowances & Pensions	69,48,000
Commutation of Pension, etc.	
Stationery and Printing	8,82,000
Miscellaneous	12,25,000
Extraordinary Charges	
Total (a)	8,47,56,000

(B) EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE

Capital Outlay on Forests	
Construction of Irram, etc., Works	31,66,000
Civil Works	
Other Provincial Works	
(b) Payment of Commuted value of Pensions	2,31,000
Payments to Retrenched Personnel	1,37,000
Total (b)	35,34,000
Total (a) & (b)	8,82,90,000

(C) DEBT HEADS

Depr. Fund—Comm. concern	
Depr. Fund—Govt. Presses	11,700
Loans and Advances	14,67,600
Civil Deposits	29,700
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund	
Total (c)	15,42,000
Total (a) (b) & (c)	8,98,32,000
Closing Balance	1,05,000
Grand Total	9,03,37,000

Administration.

Governor, H. E. Sir Hugh Lansdown
Stephenson, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E. (on leave),
The Hon'ble Mr. Thomas Cooper (Offg.)
Private Secretary, Major Frederick William
 Springett Watkins, The Land Force
Aides-de-Camp Lieutenant D. C. S. Sinclair,
 2nd Battn. The Royal Berkshire Regiment;
 Lieutenant A. M. Hild, 1st Battalion The
 Prince of Wales' Volunteers (South Lanca-
 shire)

Honorary Aides-de-Camp, Lieutenant-Colonel
 A. Lethbridge, C.I.E., I.L., Captain H. W. B.
 Livesey, O.B.E., I.L.
Indian Aides-de-Camp, Subadar-Major La-zang
 Gam, late of the 3-20th Burma Rifles; Naib
 Commandant Atta Mohamed Khan, Khan
 Bahadur, Reserve Battn, Burma Military
 Police

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

Vacant.
 The Hon'ble Mr. Maung Ba, K.B.M.

Ministers.

The Hon. L. Ba Py
 The Hon. Dr. Ba Maung, Bar-at-Law

Miscellaneous Appointments

Director of Agriculture, A. McKerral, C.I.E. M.A.,
 B.Sc.

Commissioner, Federated Shan States, Taunggyi
 Southern Shan States, J. Clague, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Inspector-General, Northern Shan States, F.S.
 G.

Director of Public Instruction, J. M. Jones, M.A.,
 I.L.

Inspector-General of Police, Lt.-Col. C. de
 M. Wellbore, O.B.E., I.L.

Chief Conservator of Forests, S. F. Hopwood, M.C.
Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col.
 J. C. Gill, F.R.C., F.R.C.P. (Lon.), D.P.H.

(Hon.), D.P.H. & H. (Lon.), I.L.

Director of Public Health, Major E. Cotter, M.B.,
 D.P.H., S.M.S.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. J. Findlay,
 M.A., M.B., Ch.B., I.M.S.

Commissioner of Excise, A. Williamson, I.C.S.

Financial Commissioner (Reverted Subjects),
 T. G. Lloyd, I.C.S.

Postmaster-General, J. Fairley, B.Sc.

Chief Commissioners of Burma.

Lieut.-Colonel A. P. Phayre, C.B. .. 1866

Colonel A. Fytche, C.S.I. .. 1867

Lieut.-Colonel R. D. Ardagh .. 1870

The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I. .. 1871

A. B. Thompson, C.S.I. .. 1875

C. T. Atchison, C.S.I. .. 1876

C. E. Bernard, C.S.I. .. 1880

C. H. T. Crosthwaite .. 1880

Sir C. E. Bernard, K.C.S.I. .. 1884

C. H. T. Crosthwaite, C.S.I. .. 1887

A. P. MacDonnell, C.S.I. (a) .. 1888

Alexander Mackenzie, C.S.I. .. 1890

D. M. Smeaton .. 1892

Sir F. W. R. Fryer, K.C.S.I. .. 1897

(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron
 MacDonnell.

Lieutenant-Governors of Burma.

Sir F. W. R. Fryer, K.C.S.I. .. 1897

Sir H. S. Barnes, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O. .. 1901

Sir H. T. White, K.C.I.E. .. 1901

Sir Harvey Adamson, Kt., K.C.S.I., M.D. .. 1910

Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1911

Sir Reginald Craddock, K.C.S.I. .. 1911

Governors of Burma.

Sir Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. .. 1921

Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., I.C.S. .. 1921

Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson, K.C.S.I.,
 K.C.I.E. .. 1931

SECRETARIES, DEPUTY SECRETARIES, UNDER-SECRETARIES, Etc.,
 TO GOVERNMENT.

W. B. Ash-Grove, C.I.E., I.C.S.

C. F. B. Peters, I.C.S.

J. M. Donaldson, I.C.S.

A. J. White, O.B.E., I.C.S.

R. G. McDermott, C.I.E., I.C.S.

G. N. Mott, I.C.S.

T. W. H. P. (2) & T. W. H. P.

H. J. O'Byrne, I.C.S.

P. G. J. S. I.C.S.

G. L. L. Webb, I.C.S.

I. A. Th. (1)

P. S. Chubb, B.A., I.C.S.

I. A. Th. (2)

I. Th. (1), I.C.S.

C. S. Th. (1)

H. W. Jones

I. A. Th. (1)

X. Th. (1)

I. A. Th. (1)

W. J. Th. (1)

Chief Secretary, Home and Political Department

Secretary, Finance Department.

Secretary, Education Department

Secretary, Revenue Department

Secretary, Reforms Office

Secretary, Forest Department

Secretary, Judicial Department.

Deputy Secretary, Finance Department.

Under-Secretary, Home and Political Department

Under-Secretary, Finance Department.

Under-Secretary, Forest Department.

Under-Secretary, Revenue Department.

Under-Secretary, Judicial Department

Under-Secretary, Education Department.

Assistant Secretary, Finance Department

Assistant Secretary, Home and Political Department.

Registrar, Home and Political and Judicial Department

Registrar, Education Department

Registrar, Finance and Revenue Department.

Registrar, Forest Department.

FINANCIAL COMMISSIONER.

I. G. Th. (1), C.S.I., I.C.S.

D. L. Th. (1), C.S.I., I.C.S.

I. Th. (1), I.C.S.

Financial Commissioner.

Secretary to Financial Commissioner.

Registrar

BURMA LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

PRESIDENT

The Hon'ble U Chit Hlaing

DEPUTY PRESIDENT

Saw Pe Tha, Bar-at-Law

SECRETARY

U Ba Dun, Bar-at-Law.

ASSISTANT SECRETARY

H M Elliot.

Ex-Officio Members

OFFICIALS

The Hon'ble Mr Thomas Couper, C S I, I C S
The Hon'ble U Ba, K S M, B A

MINISTERS

The Hon U Ba Pe
The Hon Dr Ba Maw*Nominated Members*

OFFICIALS

Harry Tomkinson, C I E, C B E, I C S
Walter Booth-Gravely, C I E, I C S
Philip Christopher Fogarty, I C S
Vacant
Vacant
Vacant
Raibeart MacIntyre MacDougall, I C S
Wilfrid Hugh Payton, I C S
Hugh Graham Wilkie, I C S
A Mekerratt, C I E
Colonel Clifford Alchin Gill, K H S, I M S
A R Momi, I C S
R C Morris*Non-Officials*Arthur Eggar, Bar-at-Law
John Arnold Cherry, C I E, Bar-at-Law.
U Po Lin, T P S, Land-owner
Dr N N Parakh, L F P & L M S (Glas), L S A.
(Lond), Medical Practitioner
A M M Vellayan Chettiar
U Po Yin, K S M, Merchant
E P Pillai
R B Howism

ELECTED MEMBERS

U San Shwe bu
U Kun, Bar-at-Law
U Po Yin, A T M
U Ba Shwe
U Maung Maung Gyi
U Ba Than
U Chit Hlaing, Bar-at-Law
Daw Hnin Ma
U Ba Than.L Choon Fong
U Tun Aung
Khao Hock Chuan.
R K Ghose
B N Das
Ganga Singh
M M Bafi, Bar-at-Law
S A S Tyabji
Vacant
Tilla Mohamed Khan
A M A Kareem Ganmi.
U Tun Baw
Sra Shwe Ba, T P S
U Shwe Nym.
Saw Pe Tha, Bar-at-Law
Vacant
U Ba Thein
U Shway Tha
U Pho Khine
U Po Mya
U So Nyun, Bar-at-Law.
Ramri U Maung Maung
U Thin Maung
U Saw
U Kyaw Din, Bar-at-Law
Dr Ba Yin
U Paw U
U Sein Ba
U Ba Tin
U Nyun
U Kyaw Dun
U Ba Saw
U Tun Min
U Po Maung
U Ba Thawng
U Mya
The Hon'ble Sir J A Maung Gyi, Kt
Bar-at-Law
U Pu
U Tha Gyan
U Thi
U Ni, Bar-at-Law
U Ba Chaw
U Po Thein
U Kyi Min, K S M
U Kva Gung, Bar-at-Law
U Mya Tha Dun
U Maung Gyer, Bar-at-Law
U Lu Pe
U Sein Win
Vacant
U Min Oh
Khoo Lock Chuan
U Maung Gyi (Letpadan)
C P. Kham Maung
U On Maung
U San Lu
U Ba Tin
U Ba
U Ba Thaw
U Ba Maw, Bar-at-Law
C H Chinnat, M B I, Bar-at-Law
Sir Oscar de Glinville, Kt, C I E, O B I., Bar-at-Law
R T Stoneham
C S Wodehouse
U Ba Gyi
Chuan Chor Khine.
W C Penn
U Tun Pe
Khan Lihidur Ahmed Chindoo.

* The figures given in this paragraph relate to British territory only.

Cable Company of India, Enamelled Ironware, Limited, and Indian Steel Wire Products. The population of Jamshedpur is rapidly approaching 100,000 and it consumes $1\frac{1}{2}$ million tons of coal annually. This part of the province has also some of the richest and most extensive iron mines in the world and supplies the iron and steel works in both Bengal and Bihar and Orissa with raw materials, but the raising of coal is still the most important of the mineral industries in the province. The coalfields in the Manbhum District have undergone an extraordinary development in the past twenty years, while valuable new fields are being developed at Ramgarh, Bokaro and Karanpura in Hazaribagh. This same district is the most important mica mining centre in the world both on account of the quality as well as the size of its output. Manbhum, Palaman, Ranchi, the Santal Parganas and Gaya are also the chief centres for the production of lac and the manufacture of shellac, the latter of which is exported from India to the value of ten crores annually.

Administration.

The Province on first constitution was administered by a Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, thus being unique in India as the only Lieutenant Governorship with a Council. Under the Reform Act of 1919 it was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers. The principles of the provincial administration are fully explained in the section. The Provincial Governorships, where the division of the administration into Reserved Subjects, in charge of the Governor and his Executive Council, and Transferred Subjects, in charge of the Governor and Ministers chosen from the Legislative Council, is set out in detail. In all these respects Bihar and Orissa is on the same plane as the other Provinces in India.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department in the Province of Bihar and Orissa consists of two separate branches, viz. —(1) the Buildings and Roads which includes Railways and (2) Irrigation, which includes the Public Health Engineering Branch. Each has a Chief Engineer, who is also Secretary to the Local Government with an Engineer Officer as Under-Secretary in the Buildings and Roads branch and a non-professional Assistant Secretary and a Deputy Chief Engineer in the Irrigation branch under him. The Electrical work of the Province is carried out by an Electric Inspector and Electrical Engineer and a staff of subordinates.

Justice

The administration of justice is controlled by the High Court of Judicature at Patna. In the administration of civil justice below the High Court are the District Judges as Courts of Appeal, the Subordinate Judges and the Munsiffs. The jurisdiction of a District Judge or Subordinate Judge extends to all original suits cognizable by the Civil Courts. It does not, however, include the powers of a Small Cause Court, unless these be specially conferred. The ordinary jurisdiction of a Munsif extends to all suits in which the amount or value of the subject matter in dispute does not exceed Rs 1,000

though the limit may be extended to Rs 4,000. On the criminal side the Sessions Judge hears appeals from Magistrates exercising first class powers while the District Magistrate is the appellate authority for Magistrates exercising second and third class powers. The District Magistrate can also be, though in point of fact he very rarely is, a court of first instance. It is usual in most districts for a Joint Magistrate or a Deputy Magistrate to receive complaints and police reports, cases of difficulty or importance being referred to the District Magistrate who is responsible for the peace of the district. In the non-regulation districts the Deputy Commissioner and his subordinates exercise civil powers and hear rent suits.

Land Tenures.

Estates in the Province of Bihar and Orissa are of three kinds, namely, those permanently settled from 1793 which are to be found in the Patna, Tirhut and Bhagalpur divisions, those temporarily settled as in Chota Nagpur and parts of Orissa, and estates held direct by Government as proprietor or managed by the Court of Wards. The passing of the Bengal Tenancy Act (VIII of 1885) safeguarded the rights of the cultivators under the Permanent Settlement Act. Further, the Settlement Department under the supervision of the Director of Land Records makes periodical survey and settlement operations in the various districts both permanently and temporarily settled. In the former, the rights of the undertenants are recorded and attested, while in the latter there is the re-settlement of rents. In the re-settlement proceedings, rents are fixed not only for the landlords but also for all the tenants. A settlement can be ordered by Government on application made by landlords or tenants.

The tenures of Orissa are somewhat different. Under the zamindars, that is, the proprietors who took settlement from Government and pay revenue to Government direct, is a class of subordinate proprietors or proprietary tenure holders, who were originally village headmen dealing more or less direct with the revenue authorities. They have a variety of names, such as *mukadām*, *padhan*, *maurusi*, *sarbarakar purseth*, *khariadar* and *shikmi* zamindar. These sub-proprietors or proprietary tenure holders pay their revenue through the zamindars of the estates within which their lands lie. In Chota Nagpur and the Santal Parganas, the rights of village headmen have been recognised. The headman collects the rents and is responsible for them minus a deduction as remuneration for his trouble.

Both Orissa and Chota Nagpur have their own Tenancy Acts. In the district of the Santal Parganas, the land tenures are governed by Regulations III of 1872 and II of 1886 and in the district of Sumbalpur by the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act, 1881 and the Central Provinces Tenancy Act, 1898.

Police.

The Departments of Police, Prisons and Registration are each under the general direction of Government, supervised and inspected by an Inspector-General with a staff of assistants. The Commissioner of Excise and Salt is also Inspector-General of Registration.

Under the Inspector-General of Police are four Deputy Inspectors-General and 30 Superintendents. There are also 25 Assistant Superintendents of Police and 20 Deputy Superintendents. The force is divided into the District Police, the Railway Police and the Military Police. A Criminal Investigation Department has also been formed for the collection and distribution of information relating to professional criminals and criminal tribes whose operations extend beyond a single district and to control, advise, and assist in investigations of crime of this class and other serious action which its assistance may be invoked. There are three companies of Unmounted Military Police and one company of Mounted Military Police which are maintained as reserves to deal with serious and organised disturbances and perform no ordinary civil duties.

Education.

The position of education in the Province, with the numbers attending schools, is set out in the section Education and the tables attached thereto (q v.) showing in great detail the educational status of the administration.

There is a University at Patna, whose functions are described under the Indian Universities. (q v)

Medical.

The Medical Department is under the control of the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals who is a Member of the Indian Medical Service. Under him there are 21 Civil Surgeons who are responsible for the medical work of the districts at the headquarters of which they are stationed. 60 Dispensaries are maintained by Government in addition to 626 Dispensaries maintained by Local bodies, Railways, private persons, etc. 7,089,290 patients including 70,900 in-patients were treated in all the dispensaries in 1933. The total income of the dispensaries maintained by Government and Local Bodies including that of the private aided institutions amounted to Rs 32,30,078.

A large mental hospital for Europeans has been opened at Ranchi which receives patients from Northern India. A similar institution for Indians has been opened at Ranchi since September 1923 for the treatment of patients from Bihar and Orissa and Bengal. A sanatorium at Itki in the district of Ranchi has also been established for the treatment of tuberculosis. An institute for radium treatment has also been established at Patna. Centres for anti-rabic treatment have been started at Patna and Cuttack.

A medical college has been opened at Patna and the Medical School which was in existence at Patna has been transferred to Darbhanga.

THE FINANCES OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

As Bihar now enjoys practical financial autonomy, the finances are set out in greater detail.

(In thousands of Rupees.)

Revenues and Receipts.	Budget Estimate	1934-35
II—Taxes on Income ..	1,25	
III—Salt ..	1,50	
V—Land Revenue ..	1,80,13	
VI—Excise ..	1,27,00	
VII—Stamps ..	1,11,50	
VIII—Forest ..	6,00	
IX—Registration ..	13,50	
XIII—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which capital accounts are kept ..	26,28	
XIV—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no capital accounts are kept ..	97	
XVI—Interest ..	4,72	
XVII—Administration of Justice ..	5,03	
XVIII—Jails and Convict Settlements ..	3,83	
XIX—Police ..	1,70	
XX—Ports and Pilotage ..	3	
XXI—Education ..	7,20	
XXII—Medical ..	2,04	
XXIII—Public Health ..	1,28	
XXIV—Agriculture ..	2,31	
XXV—Industries ..	2,15	
XXVI—Miscellaneous Departments ..	30	
XXX—Civil Works ..	9,42	

(In thousands of Rupees.)

Revenues and Receipts.	Budget Estimate	1934-35.
XXXII—Transfers from Famine Relief Fund ..	5,50	
XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation ..	1,00	
XXXIV—Stationery and Printing ..	2,32	
XXXV—Miscellaneous ..	3,34	
XXXIXA—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	
XL—Extraordinary receipts	
TOTAL REVENUE ..	5,22,24	
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government (Recoveries) ..	8,28	
Deposit Account of the Grant made by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research ..	1,01	
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund ..	5,68	
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund ..	11,26	
Famine Relief Fund ..	8,11	
Subvention from Central Road Development Account ..	1,42	
Appropriation for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt ..	71	
Suspense ..	1,40	
TOTAL RECEIPTS ..	5,60,11	
Opening Balance .. (c)	47,16	
GRAND TOTAL ..	6,07,27	

(c) Includes 3,323 in Famine Relief Fund, 592 for Road Subventions and 1 out of the grant made by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

THE FINANCES OF BIHAR AND ORISSA—*contd.*

(In thousands of Rupees)		(In thousands of Rupees)	
<i>Expenditure.</i>	<i>Budget Estimate</i>	<i>Expenditure</i>	<i>Budget Estimate</i>
	1934-35		1934-35
5.—Land Revenue	15,63	46.—Stationery and Printing ..	7,53
6.—Excise	17,02	47.—Miscellaneous	1,33
7.—Stamps	1,98	51.—Contributions to Central Governments by the Provincial Government
8.—Forests	7,21	51A.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments
8A.—Forest Capital outlay charged to Revenue.. ..	17	52.—Extraordinary payments ..	20
9.—Registration	6,53	Total expenditure charged to Revenue	5,37,00
14.—Interest on Irrigation Works for which capital accounts are kept	20,40	Commuted value of pensions ..	2,81
15.—Irrigation Revenue Account—Other Revenue Expenditure financed from ordinary Revenue	2,85	Payments to Retrenched Personnel	2
15 (1)—Other Revenue Expenditure Financed from Famine Insurance Grants		Deposit Account of the Grant made by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research ..	14,01
16.—Irrigation Capital Account—Construction of Irrigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	—46	Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government	1,01
19.—Interest on Ordinary Debt ..	47	Repayments of Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund	71
20.—Interest on other obligations ..	84	Transfers from Famine Relief Fund (Repayments)	6,26
21.—Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	71	Famine Relief Fund	16,76
22.—General Administration	75,78	Subvention from Central Road Development Account	3,10
24.—Administration of Justice ..	40,16	Suspense	1,30
25.—Jails and Convict Settlements..	18,97	Total expenditure not charged to revenue	46,07
26.—Police	85,49	Reserve for unforeseen ..	
27.—Ports and Pilotage	2	Total expenditure	5,83,07
30.—Scientific Departments	32	Closing Balance	(b) 24,20
31.—Education	81,58	GRAND TOTAL	6,07,27
32.—Medical	26,51		
33.—Public Health	11,50		
34.—Agriculture	14,18		
35.—Industries	8,44		
37.—Miscellaneous Departments ..	67		
41.—Civil Works	51,12		
43.—Famine	43		
45.—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	30,42		
45A.—Commutations of Pensions Financed from ordinary Revenue		Provincial { Surplus
		Deficit	22,96

(b) Includes 24,38 in Famine Relief Fund, 424 for Road Subventions and 1 out of the grant—made by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

ADMINISTRATION.

GOVERNOR

His Excellency Sir James David Sifton, KCSI,
KCIE, ICS

PERSONAL STAFF

Private Secretary, Captain P T Clarke
Aide-de-Camp, Lieut G C Drake-Brockman
Lieut C W H Rice & Lt D H Mudie (Offg)
Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Lieut-Col A J
Danby, Captain D J Mansfield, Major W O
Henderson, Risaldar Major A Hony Lt
Muhammad Reza Khan, Bahadur.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Babu Nirsu Narayan Singh
The Hon'ble Mr J A Hubback, C.S.I., I.C.S.
(Offg)

Ministers

The Hon'ble Sir Ganesh Dutta Singh, Kt (Local
Self-Government)
The Hon'ble Mr Sayid Abdul Aziz, Bar-at-Law
(Education)

SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary to Government, Political and
Appointment Departments, P C Tallents, CIE,
ICS on Deputation to Govt of India
R E Russell, CIE, ICS (Offg)

Secretary to Government, Reconstruction Department
& Relief Committee—W B Brett, CIE
ICS

Secretary to Government, Finance Department,
H C Prior ICS

Secretary to Government, Revenue Department,
J W. Houlton, ICS

Secretary to Government, Judicial Department,
H K Mercath, ICS

Secretary to Government (P. W. D.), Irrigation
Branch, F A Betterton

Buildings and Roads Branch, T G Powell
Secretary to Government, Education and Develop-
ment Departments, B K Gokhale, ICS

Secretary, Local-self Government Department—
W G Lacey, ICS

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, G E Fawcett, M A,
CIE

Inspector-General of Police, Lt-Col A E J C
McDowell

Conservator of Forests, J S Ouden

Inspector-General of Civil Hospital, Lt-Col
J A S Phillips

Director of Public Health, Major S L Mitra

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt-Col O R
Unger

Director of Agriculture, Daulat Ram Sethi.

GOVERNORS OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Lord Sinha of Raipur, PC, KC .. 1920

Sir Henry Wheeler 1921

Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson,
KCSI, KCIE .. 1920

H E Sir James David Sifton,
KCIE, C.S.I., ICS .. 1921

Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council

The Hon'ble Babu Rajandhar Sinha,
MA, PL (President)

Rai Bahadur Lakshmidhar Mahanta
(Deputy President)

Mr. S Anwar Yusoof, Bar-at-Law,
(Secretary)

Babu Raghu Nath Prasad, MA, PL
(Assistant Secretary)

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Babu Nirsu Narayan Sinha

The Hon'ble Mr J A Hubback, C.S.I., I.C.S.

MINISTERS

The Hon Syed Abdal Aziz, Bar-at-Law

The Hon'ble Sir Ganesh Datta Singh, Kt

Patna Dussid (Muhammadan Urban)

Last Patna (Non-Muhammadan Urban)

MEMBERS

NOMINATED OFFICIALS

Mr R E Russell, CIE

" H C Prior

" W G Lacey

" B K Gokhale

" J W Houlton

" J G Powell

Mr A C Davies

" F A Betterton

" G E Fawcett, CIE

" Y A Godhole

Lt-Col. A E J C McDowell

Col H C Buckley.

NOMINATED NON-OFFICIALS

Mr J Thomas, European

Mr W H Meyrick, Bihar Planters

Mr Ian A Clerk, Indian Mining Association

Vacant

Patna Division Land-holder=

Mr A D D'Silva, (Anglo-Indian Community)

Rev. Brajananda Das, (Depressed classes)

Rai Bahadur Kedar Nath, Nominated

Mr R Chandra, (Indian Christian Community)

Khan Bahadur Shah Muhammad Yahya, C.I.E.

Babu Bimalal Charan Singh

Rai Sahib Sri Ballabh Das

Babu Ram Narayan (Depressed classes)

Rai Bahadur Ram Ranvijaya Singh (Industrial
interest other than Planting and Mining)

Rai Bahadur Harendra Nath Banerji (Labour
classes)

Rai Bahadur Birendra Nath Chakravarti
(Domestic Bengali Community)

Mr Sagram Hembrome, MBE (Aborigines)

Mr. Garbett Captain Manki (Aborigines),

ELECTED.

Name.	Constituencies
Mahant Manmohan Das ..	North-East Darbhanga (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Vacant ..	West Patna (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Saryid Muhammad Hafeez .	Patna University
Rai Bahadur Dalip Narayan Singh	Bhagalpur Division Landholders.
Babu Chandreshvar Prashad Narayan Sinha, C I E	Tirhut Division Landholders.
Babu Maheshvari Prashad Narayan Deo	Chota Nagpur Division Landholders.
Babu Jagadeva Prashad Singh .	North Saran (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Sardananda Kumar . ..	South-East Darbhanga (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Ramasray Prashad Chaudhuri . .	Samastipur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Harekrishna Chaudhuri .	North-West Darbhanga (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Sri Narayan Mahtba ..	East Muzaffarpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Rameshvar Prashad Singh, M. A.	East Gaya (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Mr Saryid Muhammad Athar Hussain	Shahabad (Muhammadan Rural)
Mr Muhammad Yunus .	West Patna (Muhammadan Rural)
Khan Bahadur Abdul Wahab Khan	Bhagalpur Division (Muhammadan Urban)
Mr Saryid Moyn-ud-din Mirza	Kishanganj (Muhammadan Rural)
Khan Bahadur Haji Muhammad Bux Chaudhuri	Purnea (Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Abdul Aziz Khan	Santal Parganas (Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Kalyan Singh	Hazaribagh (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Haldhar Prashad Singh	North Bhagalpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Bhaiya Rudra Pratap Deo	Palamu (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Shyam Narayan Singh Sharma .	Patna (Non-Muhammadan Urban)
Rai Bahadur Sarat Chandra Ray	Ranchi (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Lakshmidhar Mahanti	North Cuttack (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Harihar Das	Orissa Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban)
Rai Bahadur Loknath Misra .	South Puri (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Brajamohan Panda .	Sambalpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Birabar Narayan Chandra Dhir Narendran	Orissa Division Landholders.
Babu Shih Chandra Singha . .	Santal Parganas (North) (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Devendra Nath Samantas	Singbhum (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Rameshwar Pratap Sahu	North Muzaffarpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Badri Narayan Singh	West Muzaffarpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Rudra Pratap Singh	Central Bhagalpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Bishundeo Narayan Singh	North-West Monghyr (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Khaliur Rahman	Gaya (Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Muhammad Abdul Ghani	Tirhut Division (Muhammadan Urban)
Maulavi Shaikh Muhammad Shafi .	Darbhanga (Muhammadan Rural)
Khan Bahadur Habibur Rahman	Chota Nagpur Division (Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Abdul Wadood .	Champaran (Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Muhammad Hasan Jan . .	Muzaffarpur (Muhammadan Rural)

ELECTED—*conold.*

Name	Constituencies.
Mr S H Cassim	East Patna (Muhammadan Rural).
Khan Bahadur Saghi-ul Haq	Saran (Muhammadan Rural).
Mr Sayid Muhammad Mehuli	Monghyr (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Shaikh Abdul Jalil	Orissa Division (Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Ramanugraha Narayan Singh	West Gaya (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Bhagwati Saran Singh	Central Gaya (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Mr Sayid Abdul Aziz	Patna Division (Muhammadan Urban)
Babu Godavala Misra	North Puri (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Satish Chandra Sinha	South Manbhum (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Mr Kamaladhari Lall	South Bhagalpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Lachhmi Prashad Sinha	East Monghyr (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Jagannath Das	South Bilaspur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Radhanandan Das	North Bilaspur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Nikunja Kichore Das	South Cuttack (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Suruj Kamas Prashad Sinha	Patna Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban)
Babu Madho Prashad Sinha	South Saran (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Chaudhuri Muhammad Nazimul Hasan	Bhagalpur (Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Radha Mohan Sinha	Arrah (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Ramjiwan Hunat Singh	Simal Parganas (South) (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Mr Sachchidananda Sinha	Central Shikhar (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Raja Prithwi Chand Lall Chowdry	Purnea (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Dwarka Nath	Tirhut Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban).
Rai Bahadur Shyamnandan Sahay	Hajipur (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Srikrishna Prashad	South-West Monghyr (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Jogendra Mohan Sinha	Bhagalpur (Non-Muhammadan Urban).
Babu Radha Prasad Sinha	South Shahdol (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Mr Nanda Kumar Ghosh	Chota Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban)
Rai Bahadur Krishnadeva Narayan Maithia	North Champaran (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Lalita Prashad Chaudhuri	South Champaran (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Kunja Bihari Chandra	Indian Mining Federation.
Babu Manindra Nath Mukharji	North Manbhum (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Dr Sir Sayid Sultan Ahmad	Nominated (Expert).

The Central Provinces and Berar.

The Central Provinces and Berar compose a great triangle of country midway between Bombay and Bengal. Their area is 133,009 sq miles, of which 82,149 are British territory proper, 17,808 (*viz.* Berar) held on perpetual lease from H E H the Nizam and the remainder held by Feudatory Chiefs. The population (1931) is 15,507,723 in C P British Districts and Berar. Various parts of the Central Provinces passed under British control at different times in the wars and tumult in the first half of the 19th century and the several parts were amalgamated after the Mutiny, in 1861, into the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces. Berar was, in 1853, assigned to the East India Company as part of a financial arrangement with H E H the Nizam for the maintenance of the Hyderabad Contingent, and was leased in perpetuity to the Central Provinces in 1903, as the result of a fresh agreement with H E H the Nizam.

The Country.

The Central Provinces may roughly be divided into three tracts of upland, with two intervening ones of plain country. In the north-west, the Vindhyan plateau is broken country, covered with poor and stunted forest. Below its precipitous southern slopes stretches the rich wheat growing country of the Nerbudda valley. Then comes the high Satpura plateau, characterised by forest-covered hills and deep water-cut ravines. Its hills decline into the Nagpur plain, whose broad stretches of "deep" black cotton soil make it one of the more important cotton tracts of India and the wealthiest part of the C P proper. The Eastern half of the plain lies in the valley of the Wainganga and is mainly a rice growing country. Its numerous irrigation tanks have given it the name of the "lake country" of Nagpur. Further east is the far-reaching rice country of Chhattisgarh, in the Mahanadi basin. The south-east of the C P is again mountainous, containing 24,000 square miles of forest and precipitous ravines, and mostly inhabited by jungle tribes. The Feudatory States of Bastar and Kanker lie in this region. Berar lies to the south-west of the C P and its chief characteristic is its rich black cotton-soil plains.

The People

The population of the province is a comparatively new community. Before the advent of the Aryans, the whole of it was peopled by Gonds and other primitive tribes and these aboriginal inhabitants fared better from the Aryans than their like in most parts of India because of the rugged nature of their home. But successive waves of immigration flowed into the province from all sides. The early inhabitants were driven into the inaccessible forests and hills, where they form nearly a quarter of the whole population of the Central Provinces being found in large numbers in all parts of the province, particularly in the South-east. The main divisions of the newcomers are indicated by the language divisions of the province. Hindi brought in by the Hindustani-speaking peoples of the North prevails in the North and East, Marathi in Berar and the West and Centre of the Central Provinces, Hindi is spoken by

56 per cent of the population and is the *lingua franca*. Marathi by 31 per cent and Gondi by 7 per cent. The effects of invasion are curiously illustrated in Berar, where numbers of Moslems have Hindu names, being descendants of former Hindu officials who on the Mahomedan invasion adopted Islam rather than lose their positions. The last census shows that a gradual Brahmanising of the aboriginal tribes is going on. The tribes are not regarded as impure by the Hindus and the process of absorption is more or less civilising.

Industries.

When Sir Richard Temple became first Chief Commissioner of the C P the province was landlocked. The only road was that leading in from Jabalpur to Nagpur. The British administration has made roads in all directions, the two trunk railways between Bombay and Calcutta run across the province and in the last few years a great impulse has been given to the construction of subsidiary lines. These developments have caused a steady growth of trade and have aroused vigorous progress in every department of life. The prime industry is, of course, agriculture, which is assisted by one of the most admirable agricultural departments in India and is now receiving additional strength by a phenomenal growth of the co-operative credit movement. The land tenure is chiefly on the *malguzari*, or landlord system, ranging with numerous variations, from the great *feudatory* chiefships, which are on this basis, to holdings of small dimensions. A system of land legislation has gradually been built up to protect the individual cultivator. Berar is settled on the Bombay *rayatwari* system. 16,073 square miles of the C P is Government Reserved forest, in Berar the forest area is about 3,339 square miles, the total forest area being one-sixth of the whole Province. The rugged nature of the greater part of the country makes forest conservation difficult and costly. Excluding forest and waste 67 per cent of the total land is occupied for cultivation, for the two most advanced districts in the Central Provinces, the proportion averages 83 per cent, while the average figure for the Berar Districts is as high as 93 per cent. The cultivated area has extended almost continuously except for the temporary checks caused by bad seasons. Rice is the most extensive single crop of the Central Provinces, covering nearly 30 per cent of the cropped area. Wheat comes next with over 15 per cent, then pulses and other cereals used for food and oil-seeds with nearly 50 per cent, and cotton with over 7 per cent. In Berar cotton occupies 46 per cent. Next comes jowar and then pulses and other cereals and oil seeds of the cropped area, jowar covers 31 per cent, then wheat and oilseeds. In agriculture more than half the working population is female.

Commerce and Manufactures.

Industrial life is only in its earliest development except in one or two centres, where the introduction of modern enterprise along the railway routes has laid the foundations for great future developments of the natural wealth of

the province. Nagpur is the chief centre of a busy cotton spinning and weaving industry. The Empress Mills, owned by Parsi manufacturers, were opened there in 1877 and the general prosperity of the cotton trade has led to the addition of many mills here and in other parts of the province. The total amount of spin yarn exported from the Province during the year ending 31st March 1933 was 1,34,067 maunds, valued at Rs. 40,40,010.

The largest numbers engaged in any of the modern industrial concerns are employed in manganese mining which in 1932 employed 2,971 persons and raised 77,186 tons. Then follow coal mining with an output of 1,049,238 tons and 8,932 persons employed, the Jubbulpore marble quarries and allied works, the limestone quarries and the mines for pottery clay, soapstone, etc.

The total number of factories of all kinds legally so described was 956 in 1933, the latest period for which returns are available and the number of people employed in them 61,781. The same economic influences which are operative in every progressive country during its transition stage are at work in the C. P. and Berar, gradually sapping the strength of the old village industries, as communications improve, and concentrating industries in the towns. While the village industries are fading away, a large development of trade has taken place. The last pre-war reports showed an increase in volume by one-third in eight years.

Administration.

The administration of the Central Provinces and Berar is conducted by a Governor-in-Council, who is appointed by the Crown. He is assisted by seven Secretaries and four under-secretaries. Under the reform scheme the administration is conducted by a Governor with an Executive Council of two members, one of whom is a non-official and two Ministers, the latter being in charge of the transferred subjects.

The local legislature consists of 78 members distributed as follows—38 elected from the C.P.; 17 elected from Berar, 2 members of the Executive Council, 8 nominated non-officials; 8 nominated officials. The Governor (who is not a member of the Council) has the right of nominating two additional members with special knowledge on any subject regarding which legislation is before the Council. The C. P. are divided for administrative purposes into three divisions and Berar constitutes a division. Each of these is controlled by a Commissioner. The divisions are sub-divided into districts, each of which is controlled by a Deputy Commissioner, immediately subordinate to the Commissioner. The principal heads of Provincial departments are the Commissioner of Settlements and Director of Land Records, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Inspector-General of Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Inspector General of Police, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Director of Public Instruction, the Excise Commissioner and Superintendent of Stamps and Inspector General of Registration, and Registrar-General of Births, Deaths and Marriages, the Director of Agriculture, the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Director of Indus-

tries, the Legal Remembrancer, the Director of Veterinary Services and a Chief Engineer, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branches. The Deputy Commissioners of districts are the chief revenue authorities and District Magistrates and they exercise the usual powers and functions of a district officer. The district forests are managed by a forest officer, over whom the Deputy Commissioner has certain powers of supervision, particularly in matters affecting the welfare of the people. Each district has a Civil Surgeon, (except Mandla, Drug and Balaghat where there are Assistant Surgeons) who is generally also Superintendent of the District Jail except at Central Jails at Nagpur and Jubbulpore and District Jails at Raypur, Narsingpur, Amraoti and Akola where there are whole time Superintendents and whose work is also in various respects supervised by the Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner is also Marriage Registrar and manages the estates of his district which are under the Court of Wards. In his revenue and criminal work the Deputy Commissioner is assisted by (a) one or more Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Indian Civil Service, (b) one or more Extra Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Provincial Civil Service, including a few Anglo-Indians and (c) by Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars, or members of the Subordinate service. The district is divided for administrative purposes into tahsils, the average area of which is 1,500 square miles. In each village a lambardar or representative of the proprietary body is executive headman.

Justice

The Court of the Judicial Commissioner is the highest court of appeal in civil cases, and also the highest court of criminal appeal and revision for the Central Provinces and Berar including proceedings against European British subjects and persons jointly charged with European British subjects.

The Court sits at Nagpur and consists of a Judicial Commissioner and 4 Additional Judicial Commissioners of whom one at least must be an advocate of the Court or a Barrister or pleader of not less than 10 years' standing.

Subordinate to the Judicial Commissioner's Court are the District and Sessions Judges (9 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a Civil and Sessions district comprising one or more Revenue districts. The civil staff below the District and Sessions Judge consists of Subordinate Judges of the first and second class.

Local Self-Government.

Municipal administration was first introduced under the Punjab Municipal Acts and the Municipality of Nagpur dates from 1864. Several revising Acts extend its scope and the C. P. Municipalities Act passed towards the end of the year 1922 has considerably increased the power of the Municipal Committees. The C. P. Municipalities Act has also been extended to Berar. Viewed generally, municipal self-government is considered to have taken root successfully. The larger towns have municipalities, there being 75 such bodies in the Province.

Under the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act passed in 1920 as amended in 1931 there is a local Board for each tahsil and a district council for each district excepting Hoshangabad, Ohhindwara and Saugor districts each of which has two district councils. The local board consists of elected representatives of circle and nominated members other than Government officials not exceeding in numbers one-fourth of the board, and the constitution of the district council is a certain proportion of elected representatives of local boards, of members selected by those representatives and of members, other than Government servants, nominated by Government.

The district councils in the Central Provinces have power of taxation within certain limits and local boards derive their funds in allotments from the District Councils. The new Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act has also been applied to Berar. The Office Bearers of all the district councils and with few exceptions of local boards also are non-official.

Rural education, sanitation, medical relief and rural communications are among the primary objects to which these bodies direct their attention, while expenditure on famine relief is also a legitimate charge upon the District Council funds.

The Central Provinces Village Panchayat Act was passed in the year 1920. So far 801, Panchayats have been established. As the result of a recommendation of a Committee appointed in 1925 to look into the question of Panchayats, a Village Panchayat Officer was appointed to guide the developments of the Panchayat system. This post was kept vacant on account of financial stringency for more than two years. It has now been filled in with effect from the 24th May 1933.

Public Works

The Public Works Department, which comprises Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branches, is under the control of the Chief Engineer who is also Secretary to the Government. There are two Superintending Engineers who between them supervise the work of both branches. The Province is well served by a network of roads, but in a number of cases they are not fully bridged and are therefore impassable to traffic at times during the rains. During the last 16 years Government has been pursuing a policy of transfer of certain State roads of local importance and buildings situated thereon to the District Councils for maintenance and up to date 1,106 miles of metalled and 795 miles of unmetalled roads have been transferred.

State irrigation was introduced early in the present century mainly as a result of the recommendations of the Irrigation Commission (1901-03). The Irrigation Branch of the department was separated from the Roads and Buildings Branch in 1920. During the last thirty-four years a sum of Rs 7.3 crores has been expended on the construction of irrigation works, of which the more important are the Wainganga, Tardula, Mahanadi, Kharong and Manjari canals.

Three works, viz., the Mahanadi and Wainganga Canals and the Asola Mendha tank were sanctioned originally as productive works and the remainder were all sanctioned as unproductive works. The three works sanctioned as productive have all failed to justify their classification in that category and have now been trans-

ferred to the unproductive list. The conditions in the province are such that irrigation works cannot be expected to be productive and their construction is justified only on account of their value as a protection against famine. The normal area of annual irrigation is at present about 352,000 acres, mainly rice and the income from these works is somewhat more than the expenditure incurred on their maintenance and management.

Police

The police force was constituted on its present basis on the formation of the Province, the whole of which including the Cantonments and the Municipalities, is under one force. The strength is equal to one man per nine square miles of area. The superior officers comprise an Inspector-General, whose jurisdiction extends over Berar, three Deputy Inspectors-General, for assistance in the administrative control and supervision of the Police force, including the Criminal Investigation Department, and the usual cadre of District Superintendents of Police, Assistant and Deputy Superintendents and subordinate officers. On railways special Railway Police are employed under the control of two Superintendents of Railway Police with headquarters at Raipur and Hoshangabad. A Special Armed Force of 870 men is distributed over the headquarters of eight districts, for use in dealing with armed disturbers of the peace in whatever quarter they may appear. There is a small force of Mounted Police. The Central Provinces has no rural police as the term is understood in other parts of India. The village watchman is the subordinate of the village headman and not a police official and it is considered very desirable to maintain his position in this respect.

Education.

The Education Department of the Central Provinces and Berar is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, a Registrar, Education Department and Secretary, High School Education Board, four Inspectors and two Inspectresses who in their turn are assisted by nine Assistant Inspectors and four Assistant Inspectresses. Schools are divided into (a) schools for general education and (b) schools for special education. The latter are schools in which instruction is given in a special branch of technical or professional education. The main division of schools for general education is into Primary and Secondary. In the Primary School the teaching is conducted wholly in the vernacular and these schools are known as Vernacular Schools. The Secondary Schools are divided into Middle and High Schools. The former may be either Vernacular Middle Schools in which instruction is given (a) wholly in the vernacular or (b) mainly in the vernacular with an option to take English as an additional language or Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools in which instruction is given both in English and the vernacular. In the High School classes instruction until recently was given in English but the vernacular was adopted as the medium of instruction at the beginning of the school year 1922-23. For the convenience of pupils whose mother tongue is not a recognised vernacular of the locality a few English medium schools are still maintained. For administrative purposes schools are further divided according to

FINANCES OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1934-35

Principal Heads of Revenue.

	Rs
Taxes on Income	
Salt	
Land Revenue	2,55,78,000
Excise	59,82,000
Stamps	58,38,000
Forest	44,48,000
Registration	5,30,000
Total	4,23,76,000

Irrigation.

Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	1,54,000
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	1,21,000
Total	2,75,000

Debt Services.

Interest	5,69,000
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Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice	4,93,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	1,41,000
Police	80,000
Education	7,01,000
Medical	71,000
Public Health	69,000
Agriculture	2,65,000
Industries	8,000
Miscellaneous Department	4,23,000
Total	22,51,000

Civil Works.

Civil Works	10,93,000
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Miscellaneous.

Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	13,000
Receipts in aid of superannuation	52,000
Stationery and Printing	48,000
Miscellaneous	6,23,000
Total	7,36,000

Extraordinary items.

Extraordinary receipts	15,000
Total Provincial Revenue	4,73,17,000

Debt Heads.

Rs

Deposits and Advances—	
Famine Relief Fund	3,93,000
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	3,00,000
Appropriations for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	6,30,000
Sinking Fund for loans granted to Local Bodies	
Depreciation Fund for Forest Tramway	29,000
Depreciation Fund for Government Presses	32,000
Subventions from Central Road Development Account	6,39,000
Civil Deposits	43,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments	30,27,000
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund and Government of India	14,64,000
Total Debt Heads	65,57,000

Total Revenue and Receipts .. 5,38,74,000

Opening balance—
 { Ordinary
 Famine Relief Fund 45,50,000

Grand Total .. 5,84,24,000

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1934-35.

Direct Demands on the Revenue

Land Revenue	18,72,000
Excise	9,21,000
Stamps	1,14,000
Forest	35,69,000
Registration	1,89,000
Total	66,95,000

Irrigation.

Revenue Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works—	
Interest on Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	31,14,000
Other Revenue expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenues	1,22,000
Total	32,36,000

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1911-12—*contd.*

				Rs.	Famine Superannuation Pensions	Miscellaneous. Allowances and Pensions	Rs.
<i>Irrigation—contd.</i>							13,000
Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works charged to Revenue—					Stationery and Printing—		10,12,000
					Received		8,07,000
					Transferred		15,000
					Miscellaneous—		
					Received		53,000
					Transferred		
					Total		10,21,000
A.—Financed from Famine Insurance Grants	For roundling		
B.—Financed from Ordinary Revenue				12,000	Total Provincial Expenditure		1,64,71,000
Total				10,000	Principal Revenue heads—		
					Local and other Capital outlay not charged to Revenue—		
					Forest Capital outlay		1,000
<i>Debt Service</i>					Capital account of Irrigation, Navigation, and other Works not charged to Revenue—		
Interest on Ordinary Debt				2,67,000	Construction of Irrigation Works Civil Works not charged to Revenue		1,50,000
Interest on other obligations				10,000	Miscellaneous—Capital outlay not charged to Revenue—		
Reduction or Avoidance of Debt				6,00,000	Commuted Value of Pensioners		1,56,000
Total				7,00,000	Total		3,05,000
<i>Civil Administration.</i>					<i>Debt Heads.</i>		
General Administration Reserved				67,75,000	Deposits and Advances—		
Do Transferred				50,000	Famine Relief Fund		1,13,000
Administration of Justice				26,91,000	Transfers from Famine Relief Fund		2,12,000
Jails and Convict Settlements				8,31,000	Depreciation Fund for Govern- ment Presses		28,000
Police				60,00,000	Depreciation Fund for Fore- st Tramway
Scientific Departments				14,000	Subventions from Central Road Development Account		5,42,000
<i>Education—</i>					Civil Deposits		43,000
Reserved				1,14,000	Loans and Advances by Provin- cial Government		17,35,000
Transferred				49,20,000	Advances from Provincial Loans Fund and Government of India		28,73,000
Medical				13,60,000	Total Debt Heads		57,46,000
Public Health				3,37,000	Total Expenditure and Disburse- ments		5,28,12,000
Agriculture				15,16,000	Closing balance { Ordinary		9,82,000
<i>Industries—</i>					Famine Relief		46,30,000
Reserved				23,000	Fund		
Transferred				2,12,000	Grand Total		5,84,24,000
<i>Miscellaneous Departments—</i>					Revenue Surplus		8,46,000
Reserved				1,01,000			
Total				2,50,21,000			
<i>Civil Works.</i>							
Civil Works—							
Reserved				65,000			
Transferred				61,17,000			
Total				61,82,000			

GOVERNOR		I H Morris, CSI (Officiating)	1867
His Excellency Sir Hyde Gowan, BA (Oxon), KCSI, CIE, J D ICS		G Campbell	1867
		J H Morris, CSI (Officiating)	1868
MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL		Confirmed 27th May 1870	
The Hon'ble Mr. E Raghavendra Rao, Bar-at-Law		Colonel R H Keatinge, VC, CSI (Offg)	1870
The Hon'ble Mr. Lyre Gordon, BA (Oxon), CIE, ICS (On leave)		I H Morris, CSI	1872
The Hon'ble Mr. N J Roughton, BA (Oxon), CIE, ICS, Temporary Member		C Grant (Officiating)	1879
		J H Morris, CSI	1879
		W B Jones, CSI	1885
		G H T Crosthwaite (Officiating)	1884
MINISTERS		Confirmed 27th January 1885	
The Hon'ble B G Khaparde, BA LLB		D Fitzpatrick (Officiating)	1885
The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur K. S. Nayudu, BA, LLB		J W. Neil (Officiating)	1887
		A Mackenzie, CSI	1887
		R J Crosthwaite (Officiating)	1889
SECRETARIAT		Until 7th October 1889	
Chief Secretary, C F Waterfall, ICS		J W Neill (Officiating)	1890
Financial Secretary, C D Deshmukh, ICS		A P MacDonell, CSI	1891
Revenue Secretary, R N Banerjee, ICS		J Woodburn, CSI (Officiating)	1894
Settlement Secretary, T C S Jayaratnam ICS		Confirmed 1st December 1893	
Legal Secretary, Rao Bahadur G H Gokhale, BA LLB		Sir C J Laall, CSI, K CIE	1895
Education Secretary, E A Macnee, MA (Cantab), VD, ICS		The Hon'ble Mr D C J Ibbetson, CSI	1895
Secretary, Public Works Department, (Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branch), H A Hyde, MC		„ Sir A H L Fraser, KCSI (Officiating)	1899
HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS		Confirmed 6th March 1902	
Commissioner of Settlements, Director of Land Records, Registrar-General of Births, Deaths and Marriages and Inspector General of Registration, T C S Jayaratnam, ICS		The Hon'ble Mr J P Hewett, CSI, CIE (Officiating)	1902
Chief Conservator of Forests, J Whitehead, IFS		Confirmed 2nd November 1903	
Excise Commissioner and Superintendent of Stamps, T. C S Jayaratnam, ICS		The Hon'ble Mr I S P Lely, CSI, K CIE (Officiating)	1904
Commissioner of Income Tax, Rao Bahadur Pt L S R Kher, BA		Confirmed 23rd December 1904	
Postmaster General, S B Sinha, MA		The Hon'ble Mr J O Miller, CSI	1905
Accountant General, A J Currie		S Ismay, CSI, (Officiating)	1906
Judicial Commissioner, F L Grille, Bar-at-Law, ICS		Until 21st October 1906	
Inspector General of Prisons, Lieutenant-Colonel N S Jatar, DSO VICS (Eng), ICS (Ind), LV & S (Bom), ICS		G A T Phillips ICS (Officiating)	1907
Inspector General of Police, C C Chitham, CIL		Until 24th March 1907 Also from 20th May to 21st November 1909	
Director of Public Instruction, E A Macnee, MA (Cantab), VD ICS		The Hon'ble Sir R H Craddock, KCSI, ICS	1907
Lord Bishop, The Right Reverend Alex Wood, MA, OBE		„ Mr H A Crump, CSI, ICS	1912
Inspector General of Civil Hospital, Col N M Wilson, MROs (Eng), LFCP. (Lond), DTM & H (Lond), OBE, ICS		Sub pro tem from 26th January 1912 to 16th February	
Director of Public Health, Major S N Mahand, ICS		The Hon'ble Mr M W Fox-Strangways, CSI, ICS (Sub pro tem)	1912
Director of Agriculture, J H Ritchie MA, BSC		The Hon'ble Sir B Robertson, KCSI, CIE, ICS	1912
Director of Veterinary Services, Major R F Stirling, FRCVS		The Hon'ble Mr H A Crump, CSI, ICS (Officiating)	1914
Director of Industries and Registrar, Co-operative Societies, G S Bhalja, ICS		„ Sir B Robertson, KCSI, ICS	1914
		„ Sir Frank George Sh, KCSI, ICS	1919
CHIEF COMMISSIONERS.		GOVERNORS	
Colonel E K Elliot	1861	H E Sir Frank Sh, KCSI, ICS	1920
Lieut-Colonel J K Spence (Officiating)	1862	H E Sir Montagu Baker, KCSI, CB, CIE, CVO CBI ICS	1925
R Temple (Officiating)	1862	H E Mr J. F. Marten, CSI, ICS (Officiating)	1927
Colonel L K Elliot	1863	H E Sir Montagu Butler, KCSI, CB, CIL CVO CBI, ICS	1927
J S Campbell (Officiating)	1864	H E Sir A L Nelson, KCSI, OBE	1928
R Temple	1864	H E Sir Montagu Butler, KCSI, CIL, CBI (CVO CBI ICS)	1928
J S Campbell (Officiating)	1865	H E Sir Hyde Gowan, KCSI, CIL, VD, ICS	1928
R Temple	1865		

ELECTED MEMBERS

A—Members elected from the Central Provinces

Name.	Constituency
Mr. Balraj Jaiswara .. .	Jubbulpore City, Non-Muhammadan (Urban)
Mr Daduram	Jubbulpore Division (Urban)
Bai Sahib Badri Prasad Pujari	Chhattisgarh Division (Urban).
Mr Chummu	Nerbudda Division (Urban)
Mr O B Parakh ..	Nagpur City-cum-Kamptee
Bai Sahib Lala Jamarain	Do do
Mr T J. Kedar	Nagpur Division (Urban)
Mr Sheoprasad Pandey	Jubbulpore District (South) Non Muhammadan (Rural)
Pandit Kashi Prasad Pande	Jubbulpore District (North)
Mr Jhunnilal Verma	Damoh District
Mr Dulchand	Saugor District
Rai Bahadur Dadu Dwarkanath Singh	Seoni District
Choudhary Malthulal	Mandla District
Mr. Waman Yado Deshmukh	Raipur District (North).
Mr Anjore Rao Kirdutt	Raipur District (South)
Rai Sahib Pandit Ramsanehi Gaurha	Bilaspur District
Khan Bahadur F F Tarapore	Drug District
Rai Bahadur Gajadhar Prasad Jaiswal	Hoshangabad District
Mr Gopalrao Rambhau Joshi	Nimar District
Mr Arjunlal	Narsinghpur District
Seth Sheolal	Chhindwara District
Mr Chandan Lal	Betul District
Mr Ganpat Rao Shanker Rao Deshmukh	Nagpur District (West).
The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur K S Nayudu	Wardha District
Mr Shivramprasad Sultanprasad Tiwari	Wardha Tahsil
Mr R S Dube	Chanda District
Mr Vinayak Damodar Kolte	Bhandara District
Khan Bahadur M M Mullna	Balaghat District
Mr Ifikhar Ali	Jubbulpore Division (Rural), Muhammadan (Rural)
The Hon'ble Mr S W A Rizvi	Chhattisgarh Division (Rural)
Khan Bahadur Syed Hifazat Ali	Nerbudda Division (Rural)
Mr Mahomed Yusuf Shareef	Nagpur Division (Rural)
Beohar Gulab Sing	Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Landholders, Special Constituencies
Thakur Manmohan Singh	Nagpur and Chhattisgarh Landholders.
Mr D T Mangalmoorti	Nagpur University.
Mr L H Bartlett, O B E.	Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association
Seth Thakurdas Goverdhandas	Central Provinces Commerce and Industry.

B—Members from Berar nominated after election

Mr Vithal Bandhuy Chaobal	East Berar (Municipal), Non-Muhammadan (Urban)
Mr B A Kamtkar	West Berar (Municipal)
Dr Panjabrao Shamrao Deshmukh	Amraoti (Central) Non-Muhammadan (Rural)
Mr Motarao Baylrao Tidake	Amraoti (East)
Rao Sahib Uttamrao Sitaramji Patil	Amraoti (West)
Mr. Sridhar Govind Sapkal	Akola (East).
Mr Umedsingh Narainsingh Thakur	Akola (North-West)
Rao Sahib Naik Dinkarrao Dharrao Rajurkar	Akola (South)
Mr Yadav Madhav Kale	Buldana (Central)
Mr Tukaram Shanker Patil	Buldana (Malkapur and Jalgaon)
Mr Mahadeo Paikaji Kolhe	Yeotmal (East)
Mr Ganpat Sitaram Malvi	Yeotmal (West)
Mr. Syed Mohimur Rahman	Berar (Municipal) Muhammadan (Urban)
Khan Sahib Muzaffar Husam (Deputy President)	East Berar (Rural), Muhammadan (Rural)
Khan Bahadur Mirza Raham Beg	West Berar (Rural)
The Hon'ble Balkrishna Ganesh Khaparde	Berar Landholders Special Constituencies
Rao Bahadur Gajanan Ramchandra Kothare	Berar Commerce and Industry.

The area of the Province is a little more than half that of Bombay (excluding Sind and Aden) and amounts to more than three fifths of the size of England without Wales. The density of population throughout the Province equals 99 persons to a square mile, but in the more favoured portions the pressure of population is much greater. In the Hazara District there are 208 persons to a square mile and in the trans-Indus plains tract the number is 136. Density for the 5 rented Districts is 179 persons per s. mile. The key to the history of the people of the N.-W. F. P. lies in the recognition of the fact that the valley of Peshawar was always more closely connected politically with Eastern Iran than with India, though in pre-Mahomedan times its population was mainly Indian by race. Early history finds the Iranians dominating the whole Indus valley. Then came the Greek invasion under Alexander the Great, in B.C. 327, then the invasions of the Sakas, and of the White Huns and later the two great waves of Muhammadan invasion. Last came the Sikh invasion beginning in

[illegible][illegible]

Province with the Punjab or, if that were not attainable then the placing of the judicial administration of the Province under the Punjab High Court at Lahore. The Mahomedans on the other hand claimed the right of their Province to a status corresponding with that enjoyed by other Provinces of India and to immediate reforms in administration and providing for progress along that line. The Hindus argued that a separate Pathan Province on the Frontier would cause a dangerous sentimental division from the rest of India, with leanings towards the allied racial elements outside British India. The answer to that was that a contented Pathan Province would be a valuable buttress against hostile feeling across the Border. The Committee's deliberations ended in disagreement, the two Hindu members writing each a separate report favourable to the Hindu viewpoint already explained, and the majority of the Committee, comprised of all its other members, recommending advance on a Provincial basis. Their principal recommendations were for—

Retention of the Settled Districts and Tribal Tracts as a separate unit in charge of a minor administration under the Government of India.

Early creation of a Legislative Council for the Settled District and appointment of Member of Council and Minister.

Appointment of a second Judicial Commissioner which has since been sanctioned and reform of the judicial administration in various directions, including interchange of officers with the Punjab, so that the members of the Service in the smaller Province should have the advantage of experience in the larger one.

If (concluded the Majority) the Pathan nationality is allowed self-determination and given scope for that self-development within the Indian Empire under the Reforms Scheme after which it is now striving we are assured that with a contented Frontier population India can face with calm resolution the future that the Frontier has in store for her."

The People.

The total population of the N.-W.F.P. (1931) is 4,681,364, made up as follows—

Pazara	..	669,636
Trans-Indus Districts	..	1,755,440
Trans-Border Area	..	2,250,288

This last figure is estimated. There are only 161 3 females per 1,000 males in the towns, and 872 2 females per 1,000 males in rural areas.

This disproportion of the sexes cannot at present be explained in the N.-W.F.P. any more than in other parts of Northern India where it also appears. The discrepancy is greater here than in any other Province of India. There is no ground for believing that the neglect of girls in infancy has any effect in causing the phenomenon. On the other hand, the female population has to face many trials which are unknown to men. The evils of unskilled midwifery and early marriage are among them. Both the birth and death-rates of the Province are abnormally low. The birth rate in the administered districts according to the last available official reports, is 23.6 and the death-rate 21.9.

The dominant language of the Province is Pashtu and the population contains several lingual strata. The most important sections of the population, both numerically and by social position, are the Pathans. They own a very large proportion of the land in the administered districts and are the ruling 100 of the tribal areas to the west. There is a long list of Pathan, Baluch, Rajput and other tribal divisions. Gurkhas have recently settled in the Province. The Mahomedan tribes constitute almost the whole population, Hindus amounting to only 5 per cent of the total and Sikhs to a few thousands. The occupational cleavage of the population confuses ethnical divisions.

(Under the North-West Frontier Province Law and Justice Regulation of 1901), custom governs all questions regarding successions, betrothal, marriage, divorce, the separate property of women, dower, wills, gifts, partitions, family relations such as adoption and guardianship, and religious usages and institutions, provided that the custom be not contrary to justice, equity or good conscience. In these matters the Mohammedan Law where the parties are Mohammedans, and Hindu Law where the parties are Hindus, is applied in so far as that law has not been altered or abolished by any legislative enactment and is not opposed to the provisions of the Regulation and has moreover not been modified by any custom.

Climate, Flora and Fauna.

The climatic conditions of the N.-W.F.P. which is mainly the mountainous region, but includes the Peshawar Valley and the riverine tracts of the Indus in Dera Ismail Khan District, are extremely diversified. The latter district is one of the hottest areas of the Indian continent, while on the mountain ranges the weather is temperate in summer and intensely cold in winter. The air is generally dry and hence the annual ranges of temperature are frequently very large. The Province has two wet seasons, one the S.-W. Monsoon season when moisture is brought up from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal; the other in winter when storms from Mesopotamia, Persia and the Caspian Districts bring widespread rain and snowfall. Both sources of supply are precarious and not infrequently either the winter or the summer rainfall fails almost entirely. The following description of the Daman, the high ground above the Indus stretching across Dera Ismail Khan to the mountains on the west, occurs in an account written some years ago by Captain Creech-White: "Men drink once a day and the cattle every second day. Washing is an impudently luxury. . . . It is possible in the hot weather to ride thirty miles and neither hear a dog bark nor see the smoke of a single fire." With the exception of the Kunhar River, in Hazara, which flows into the Jhelum, the whole territory drains into the Indus. The flora of the Province varies from the scrubby jungle of the south-eastern plains to barren hills, pine forests and fertile mountain valleys. Tigers used to abound in the forest but are now quite extinct, leopards live in the hills and foxes are the chief carnivores.

The districts under the Deputy Commissioners are divided into from two to five sub-collectorates in charge of tahsildars, who are invested with criminal and civil and revenue powers, and are assisted by naib-tahsildars, who exercise only criminal and revenue powers. Some sub-divisions are in charge of Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioners. The village community characteristic of some parts of India is not indigenous among the Pathans. Its place as a social unit is to some extent taken by the tribe, which is held together by the ties of kinship and ancient ancestry, real or imaginary. Modern municipal local government has been introduced in the towns. There are also district boards. The district is the unit for police, medical and educational administration and the ordinary staff includes a District Superintendent of Police, a Civil Surgeon, the Superintendent of Jail and a District Inspector of Schools. The Province forms a single educational circle and only possesses one forest division, that of Hazara. The P. W. D. of the Province carries out duties connected with both Irrigation and Buildings & Roads. It is organised in two circles (in all seven Divisions) under a Chief Engineer, P. W. D. who is also *ex-officio* Secretary to H. E. the Governor in Council. The administration of the civil police force of the districts is vested in an Inspector-General. There is a special force of Frontier Constabulary. Of the Agencies only Kurram and Tochi Valley pay land revenue to the British Government. The revenue administration of all five administered districts is controlled by the Revenue and Divisional Commissioner. For the administration of civil and criminal justice there are two Civil and Sessions districts, each presided over by a District and Sessions Judge. The two Judicial Commissioners are the controlling authority in the Judicial branch of the administration, and their Courts are the highest criminal and appellate tribunals in this Province. The improvements needed to bring the judicial administration up-to-date, in accord with the growth of the business of administration, are dealt with in the Inquiry Committee's report to which reference was made above.

A Governor's Province—In January 1932 it was announced that the Province would be constituted as a Governor's Province, and the application to the Province of the provisions of the Government of India Act was gazetted, subject to the following modifications—

(a) that the number of members of the Legislative Council shall be forty,

(b) that the maximum annual salary of the Governor shall be Rs. 66,000, and of a member of the Executive Council Rs. 42,000, and

(c) that Section 58 of the said Act shall cease to have effect in its application to the Province. This notification shall have effect from such date or dates in respect of any or all provisions as may be notified.

Electoral rules were notified in February 1932.

FINANCES.

In order to meet the excess in expenditure over the income of the Provinces a subvention of Rs. one crore per annum is given by the Government of India out of Central Revenues.

The Administration.

The principal officers in the present Administration are—

H. E. the Governor and Agent to the Governor-General—H. E. Lieut.-Col. Sir Ralph Griffith, KCSI, CIE (Assumed charge 18th April 1932)

Private Secretary—Captain L. M. Barlow, M.C.

Aide-de-Camp—Lieut. R. Richards, R.A.

The Hon'ble Member of the Executive Council—

Mr. G. Cunningham, CSI, CIE, OBE, ICS

Resident, Waziristan—Lieut.-Col. A. E. B.

Parsons, CBE DSO

Judicial Commissioner—L. Middleton ICS

Additional Judicial Commissioner—Khan Sahib

Kazi Mir Ahmad Khan, BA, LLB

Revenue and Divisional Commissioner—J. S. Thomson

Chief Secretary to Government, N.W.F.P.—A. J. Hopkinson, ICS

Secretary to Government, Transferred Departments—Capt. A. E. H. Macann

Under Secretary to Chief Commissioner—Capt. G. H. Cooke.

Financial Secretary to Government, N.W.F.P.—Rai Bahadur Lala Chunil Lal

Assistant Secretary (General) to Government, N.W.F.P.—R. N. McMorran, ICS

Asst. Financial Secy to Govt., N.W.F.P.—S. Ata Ullah Siddiqi

Indian Personal Assistant, H. E. the Governor—Khan Sahib Haji Gulam Naqishband Khan

Secretary, Public Works Department—T. H. Burkitt, CIE, OBE

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and Prisons—Col. C. I. Brierley, CIE, ICS

Inspector-General of Police—J. H. Adam, CII., OBE

Commandant, Frontier Constabulary—H. Lillie, IP

Director of Public Instruction—T. C. Orgill, MA, ICS

Superintendent, Archaeological Survey, Frontier Circle—D. R. Mahomed Nazim, MA, PhD

District and Sessions Judge—J. Almond, Bar-at-Law, ICS (Peshawar)

Additional District and Sessions Judge, Peshawar and Hazara—M. Mahomed Akbar Khan.

Capt. Abdur Rahim Khan (Derajat)

Political Agents

L. W. H. D. Best, OBE, MC, Dir. Swat and Chitral

Major C. S. Seale, VC, Khyber

Capt. G. C. L. Crichton, North Waziristan

Capt. B. P. Ross Hurst, MC, Kurram

Capt. H. A. Barnes, South Waziristan

Deputy Commissioners

Capt. Iskander Mirza, Hazara

A. D. J. Dundas, ICS, Peshawar.

Major J. R. L. Bridshaw, North Waziristan

Major G. L. Mallum, Bar-at-Law, Kohat

K. B. Siddiqui, Khan Bannu

Former Chief Commissioners

The Hon'ble Lieutenant-Colonel Sir H. R. D. Dene, KCSI, from 9th November 1921 to 3rd June 1929. Died 7th July 1929.

The Hon. Lieutenant-Colonel Sir George Ross Keppel, C.S.I., K.C.S.I., from 11th June 1909 to 9th September 1910.

The Hon'ble Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant, K.C.S.I., K.C.I., from 10th September 1910 to 7th March 1921.

The Hon'ble Sir John Tonner Maffey, K.C.S.I., C.S.I., I.C.S., from 6th March 1921 to 6th July 1923.

The Hon'ble Sir Ronald Norman Bolton, K.C.I., C.S.I., I.C.S., from 7th July 1923 to 30th April 1930.

The Hon'ble Sir Sturart Pears, K.C.I., C.S.I., I.C.S., from 10th May 1930 to 9th September 1931.

N.W.F. PROVINCE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

The Hon'ble K. B. Khan Abdul Ghafur Khan, Khan of Zaida (*President*)

K. B. Abdul Rubhu Khan, M.A., Bar-at-Law (*Deputy President*)

Shoeckh Abdul Hamid, M.A., LL.B. (*Secretary*)

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS AND MINISTERS

The Hon'ble Mr G. Cunningham, C.S.I., C.I., O.B.I., Executive Councillor

The Hon'ble K. B. Nawab Sir Abdul Qayum Khan, C.I., Minister to the Government, N.W.F.P.

OFFICIALS NOMINATED MEMBERS

Thompson Mr J. S., I.C.S., Revenue and Division Commissioner, 10, The Mall, Peshawar Cantonment

Macann, Capt. A. D. H., Secretary to Government, Transferred Departments, Peshawar Cantonment

Adam, Mr J. H., C.I., O.B.I., Inspector-General of Police, Commissioner Road, Peshawar Cantonment

Bai Bahadur Chuni Lal, Financial Secretary to Government, Peshawar Cantonment

S. Raja Singh, M.A., LL.B., Cavalry Line, Legal Remembrancer to Government, Peshawar Cantonment

NON-OFFICIALS NOMINATED MEMBERS

Allah Nawaz Khan, Nawabzada, Representative of general interests, Dera Ismail Khan

Khan Ghulam Rabbani Khan, B.A., LL.B. (Allg.), Representative of general interests, Manselhra, Hazara District

Hassan Ali Khan, Sultan, Khan Sahib, of Bori, Representative of general interest, Bori, Manselhra Tahsil, Hazara District

Khan Malik-kur Rabaman Khan, Kayani, M.A., Representative of general interests, Salpui, Kohat District.

Naimjan Singh Bedi, Baba, M.A., Representative of general interests, Ganj Street, Peshawar City.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Khan Abdul Ghafur Khan, Hashtnagar (Muhammadian), Bar-at-Law, Peshawar.

Abdul Qayum Khan, Mr, B.A., LL.B. (Allg.), Outer Manselhra (Muhammadian), Manselhra, Hazara District

Abdur Rahman Khan, Atab, Dargah-e-Mund Zil (Muhammadian), Garl Gulla, Pesh Office, Nahanqi, Peshawar District

Khan Abdul Hamid Khan Iqbal, M.A., LL.B. (Allg.), North West Frontier Province (Landholder), Pleader, Gulistan, Dera Ismail Khan District

Riz Muhammad Khan Khan Bahadur Nawab, Kohat East (Muhammadian), Teal, Kohat District

Gulam Hakeem Khan, Khan Bahadur, Bannu North (Muhammadian), Puzar Akmal Khan, Bannu District

Gulam Hassan Ali Shahid Khan, Bannu East, Kohat West (Muhammadian), Surzab, Kohat District

Khan Habibullah Khan, Peshawar District (Landholder), Tarnawal, Dera Ismail Khan, Peshawar District

Khan Habibullah Khan, M.A., LL.B. (Allg.), Bannu South (Muhammadian), Pleader, Tarnawal, Bannu District

Hanbulah Khan, Khan Bahadur Nawab, Peshawar District (Muhammadian), Toru, Peshawar District

Hazrat Mirza, Bahadur Ali, M.A., LL.B., (Non-Muhammadian), Naranchar, Hazrat District

Karam Chand, Bahadur, M.A., LL.B., Manlan (Non-Muhammadian), Pleader, Contamant

Khalid Ali Khan, M.A., LL.B., Other Towns (Muhammadian), Pleader, Dera Ismail Khan

Khalid Ali Khan, M.A., LL.B., Kohat, Dera Ismail Khan (Non-Muhammadian), Pleader, Pannu City.

Muhammad Zaman Khan, Khan Sahib, Hazara Central (Muhammadian), Khairkot, Hazara District

Khan Muhammad Abbas Khan, Inner Manselhra (Muhammadian), Manselhra, Hazara District

Muhammad Shrif Khan, Atab, M.A., Khul-e-cum-Biri (Muhammadian), Jami Yargho, Peshawar District

Muhammad Ayub Khan, Mr, Mirdin Kamalz-cum-Bilal (Muhammadian), Khush Khan, Kohat, Peshawar District

Mohai Chand Khanna, Rai Sahib, M.A., Peshawar City (Non-Muhammadian), Siddar Darg, Peshawar Cantonment

Nur Jukhan, Munsif, M.A., LL.B., Dera Ismail Khan East (Muhammadian), Pleader, Dera Ismail Khan

Pir Bakht, M.A., LL.B. (Allg.), Peshawar City (Muhammadian), Pleader, Kissa Khani, Peshawar City

Jagat Singh, Sardar, Warag Banker and Merchant, North-West Frontier Province (Sikh), Advocate, Peshawar Cantonment.

Roch Ram, Rai Sahib, Lila, Dera Ismail Khan (Non-Muhammadian), Contractor, Dera Ismail Khan

Sultan Muhammad Khan, Khan Bahadur, Hazara South (Muhammadian), Biri, Hazara District

Samundani Khan Mr, Hazara East (Muhammadian), Danda Pih Khan, Hazara District

Taj Muhammad Khan, Khan Bahadur, O.B.I., Nowshera (Muhammadian), Badiashi, Nowshera.

Assam.

The Province of Assam, omitting the partly administered and unadministered tracts on its northern and eastern borders, comprises an area of some 87-334 square miles. It includes the Assam Valley Division, the Surma Valley and Hill Division and the State of Manipur. It owes its importance to its situation on the north-east frontier of India. It is surrounded by mountainous ranges on three sides while on the fourth (the west) lies the Province of Bengal on to the plains of which debouch the two valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Surma which form the plains of Assam. These two valleys are separated from each other by the Assam Range, which projects westward from the hills on the eastern border.

Population.

The total population of the Province in 1931 was 9,217,857, of whom 445,606 were in Manipur. Of the population in 1931, nearly 5½ millions were Hindus, over 2½ millions were Muslims a million belonged to tribal religions and a quarter of a million were Christians. 43 per cent of the population speak Bengali, 21 per cent speak Assamese. Other languages spoken in the province are Hindi, Uriya, Mundari, Nepali and a great variety of languages classified under the general heading of the Tibeto-Chinese languages. Owing to the great areas of waste and rivers the density of the province is only 137, which compared with that of most other parts of India is low.

Agricultural Products.

It has agricultural advantages for which it would be difficult to find a parallel in any part of India, climate, soil, rainfall and river systems all being alike favourable to cultivation. Rice is the staple food crop, nearly 47,21,973 acres being devoted on this crop. Except in the Himalayan Terai irrigation is unnecessary. Tea and jute are the most important crops grown for export. The area under tea consists of 4,30,207 acres. Wheat and tobacco are also grown and about 55,485 acres are devoted to sugarcane.

Meteorological Conditions.

Rainfall is everywhere abundant, and ranges from 23.9 to 241.76 inches. The maximum is reached at Cherrapunji in the Khasi Hills, which is one of the wettest places in the world, having a rainfall of 520.09 inches. The temperature ranges from 59 at Sibsagar in January to 84.8 in July. Earthquakes of considerable severity have taken place, by far the worst being that which occurred in 1897.

Mines and Minerals.

The only minerals in Assam worked on a commercial scale are coal, limestone and petroleum oil. The most extensive coal measures are in the Naga Hills and the Lakhimpur districts, where about 191,500 tons were raised in 1933. Limestone is quarried in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills. Petroleum is worked only in Lakhimpur and Cachar.

An account of the petroleum occurrences in Assam was recently published in the memoirs of the Geological Survey of India. It states that the petroleum localities in this province are confined to a curved belt of country along the basins of the Brahmaputra and

Surma. This belt is traceable over a distance of some 800 miles from N. E. Assam through Cachar and Chittagong to the Arakan coast, where it has a S. S. E. trend.

Manufactures and Trade.

Silk is manufactured in the Assam Valley, the weaving being done by the women. Cotton weaving is also largely practised by the women, and almost every house contains a loom; the cloth is being gradually displaced by imported goods of finer texture and colour. Tea manufacture is the most important industry of the province. Boat building, brass and metal and earthenwares, and limestone burning are the other industries apart from agriculture, which itself employs about 89 per cent of the population. Assam carries on a considerable trade with the adjoining foreign tribes and countries.

Communications

Much of the trade of Assam is carried by river. The excellence of its water communications makes the province less dependent upon roads than over parts of India. A large fleet of steamers maintained by the India General Navigation Company and the Rivers Steam Navigation Company plies on the rivers in both valleys. An alternate day service of passenger-boats runs between Goalundo and Dibrugarh. In recent years the road system has developed. There is an unmetalled trunk road through the length of the Assam Valley and excellent metalled roads from Shillong to Gauhati and to Cherrapunjee and also between Dimapur, on the Assam Bengal Railway, and Imphal, the capital of the Manipur State. A motor road, connecting Shillong with the Surma Valley, has been completed and opened to traffic. The portion between Jaintiapur and Sylhet is being metalled. The Government of Assam have recently launched into a large programme of road improvements but has to be postponed on account of financial depression. About 735 miles are to be bridged throughout and the surface improved by metalling and gravelling where possible. *Kulcha* roads will be maintained by means of mechanical plant which has proved successful in maintaining, throughout the year, a surface fit for motor vehicles. Motor traffic has increased on all sides and the demands for better roads has been insistent. The open mileage of railway has also shown a steady improvement and several branch lines to the Assam Bengal Railway system have been added in recent years. The main Assam Bengal Railway line runs from Chittagong Port in Bengal, through the North Cachar Hills to Tinsukia, a station on the Dibru-Sadiya Railway and connects the Surma and Brahmaputra Valleys. A branch of the line runs from Badarpur to Silchar at the Eastern end of the Surma Valley and another runs through the west of the Assam Valley from Lumding to Gauhati where it effects a junction with the Eastern Bengal Railway. The Eastern Bengal Railway connects Assam with the Bengal system via the Valley of the Brahmaputra. An extension towards Baranagar from Tinsukia junction, along the North bank of the Brahmaputra has been opened to traffic.

THE FINANCES OF ASSAM.

In common with the other Provinces of India, Assam secured substantial financial aid under the Reform Act of 1919. The present financial position for 1931-32 is set out in following table.—

<i>Principal Heads of Revenue—</i>		Tr
Taxes on Income ..	2,05	
Salt ..	1,08,10	
Land Revenue ..	30,06	
Stamps ..	17,00	
Forest ..	12,82	
Registration ..	1,51	
<i>Railways—</i>		
State Railways—		
Gross receipts	
Deduct—Working expenses	
Net receipts	
Subsidised Companies	
Total	
<i>Debt Services—</i>		
Interest	51
<i>Civil Administration—</i>		
Administration of Justice ..	1,58	
Jails and Convict Settlements ..	61	
Police ..	1,01	
Ports and Pilotage	
Education ..	3,13	
Medical ..	1,74	
Public Health	
Agriculture ..	97	
Industries ..	6	
Miscellaneous Departments	
<i>Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements—</i>		
Civil Works	8,01
<i>Miscellaneous—</i>		
Receipts in aid of Superannuation ..	11	
Stationery and Printing ..	12	
Miscellaneous ..	07	
<i>Contributions and Assignments to and from the Central Government—</i>		
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	
Revenue in England	
<i>Capital Revenue—</i>		
Recoveries of loans and advances by the Assam Government ..	4,74	
Loan from the Provincial Loans Fund ..	56,03	
Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	
Government Press—		
Depreciation Fund	
Provincial Subvention from Central Road Development Account ..	1,64	
Suspense	
Total receipts ..	2,56,16	
Opening Balance	
Grand total ..	2,56,16	
<i>Reserved Subjects—</i>		
Land Revenue ..	71,00	
Stamps ..	43	
Forest ..	11,90	
Forest ..	33	
State Railways	
Subsidised Companies	
Miscellaneous Railway expenditure	
Construction of Railways	
Navigation, Embankments, Drainage Work	
Interest on ordinary debt	
Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	
General Administration	
Administration of Justice	
Jails and Convict Settlements	
Police (other than Assam Rifles)	
Police (Assam Rifles)	
Ports and Pilotage	
Scientific Departments	
Education (European)	
Medical	
Miscellaneous Departments	
Civil Works	
Land Revenue and Insurance	
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	
Stationery and Printing	
Miscellaneous	
Extraordinary charges	
Contributions to the Central Government by the Provincial Government	
Total Reserved Subjects	
<i>Transferred Subjects—</i>		
Land Revenue	
Excise	
Registration	
General Administration	
Scientific Departments	
Education (other than European)	
Medical	
Public Health	
Agriculture	
Industries	
Miscellaneous Departments	
Civil Works	
Stationery and Printing	
Miscellaneous	
Total Transferred subjects	
<i>Capital Expenditure—</i>		
Forest capital outlay not charged to revenue	
Civil Works not charged to revenue	
Payment of commuted value of pensions not charged to revenue	
Payment of gratuities retrenched person	
Government Press Depreciation Fund	
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund	
Loans and advances by the Assam Government	
Provincial Subvention from Central Road Development Account	
Suspense	
Expenditure in England	
Total expenditure	
Closing balance	
Grand Total	

Administration

The province of Assam was originally formed in 1874 in order to relieve the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal of part of the administration of the huge territory then under him. In 1905, as the result of further deliberations, it was decided to add to the small Province of Assam the eastern portion of its inviolable neighbour and to consolidate those territories under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam as then constituted was again broken up on the 1st of April, 1912. the Eastern Bengal Districts were united with the Bengal Commissionerships of Burdwan and the Presidency to form the Presidency of Bengal under a Governor-in-Council, Bihar, Chota-Nagpur and Orissa were formed into a separate province, while the old Province of Assam was re-constituted under a Chief Commissioner.

Under the Indian Reforms Act of 1919 the Province was raised in status to that of administration by a Governor-in-Council and was thereby ranked, with certain minor provinces, as suit its undeveloped character with the older major provinces of India.

The capital is Shillong, a town laid out with great taste and judgment among the pine woods on the slopes of the Shillong Range which rises to a height of 6,450 feet above the sea. It was destroyed in the earthquake of 1897 and has been rebuilt in a way more likely to withstand the shocks of earthquake.

GOVERNOR

H. E. Sir Michael Keane, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (on leave) The Hon. Mr. A. J. Laine, C.I.E., I.C.S. (offg)

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Mr. A. J. Laine, C.I.E., I.C.S.

The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Promode Chandra Jatta, C.I.E.

MINISTERS

The Hon'ble Maulavi Abdul Hamid, B.L.

The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Kanik Lal Barua, B.L.

PERSONAL STAFF OF HIS EXCELLENCY THE GOVERNOR

Private Secretary, Capt R. C. Cruddas, The Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry

Aide-de-Camp, Capt R. E. Peel, The Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Subadar-Major Sardar Bahadur Nalasing Mall, I.D.S.V.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Subadar Krishna Lal Chettie.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Lt-Col J. P. Moran, V.P.

SECRETARIES, ETC. TO GOVERNMENT

Chief Secretary, J. A. Dawson, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary to Government (Finance and Revenue), H. M. Prichard, I.C.S.

Secretary to Government (Transferred Departments), H. G. Dennehy, I.C.S.

Under Secretary to Government, G. R. Kamat, I.C.S. (offg)

Under Secretary (Transferred Departments), N. N. Phukan, B.L.

Secretary to Government (Legislative Department) and Secretary to the Assam Legislative Council, M. H. B. Lethbridge, I.C.S. (offg)

Secretary to Government in the P. W. D., E. P. Burke, I.S.E.

Superintending Engineer, B. F. Taylor, I.S.E.

Under Secretary, P. W. D., Mr K. E. L. Pennell, I.S.E.

Assistant Secretary, Finance and Revenue Departments, A. V. Jones, I.S.O., V.D.

Registrar, Assam Secretariat (Civil), D. C. Das

Registrar, Assam Secretariat (P. W. D.), A. B. Dutt

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS.

Director of Land Records & Surveys, I. G. Registration, etc., S. P. Desai, I.C.S.

Director of Industries and Registrar of Co-operative Society & Village Authorities, S. L. Mehta, I.C.S., (offg)

Director of Agriculture, J. N. Chakrabarti, (offg)

Superintendent, Civil Veterinary Department, G. B. Sen (offg)

Conservator of Forests, Assam, A. J. W. Milroy.

Commissioner of Excise, Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Assam, C. S. Mullan, I.C.S.

Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs and Administrator-General, M. H. B. Lethbridge, I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Police, T. P. M. O'Callaghan, C.I.E.

Director of Public Instruction, G. A. Small

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and Prisons, Col J. P. Cameron, C.I.E., C.S.I.

Director of Public Health, Lt-Col. T. D. Murlison.

Chief Engineer, E. P. Burke.

GOVERNORS

Sir Nicholas Dodd Bentson Bell, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1921

Sir William Sinclair Marris, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1922.

Sir John Henry Kerr, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.F., 1923

Sir William James Reid, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., 1923.

Sir Egbert Laurie Lucas Hammond, K.C.S.I., C.B.E., 1927.

Sir Michael Keane, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., 1932

ASSAM LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Maulavi Taznur Ali (President),
 The Hon'ble Mr A J Nicholson C.I.E., } Ex officio,
 The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Promode Chandra Datta, C.I.E.,

Name.

Constituency by which elected.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

The Rev J V M Nicholson Roy	Shillong (General) to do.
Babu Sanat Kumar Das	Shillong (Non-Muhammadan) in Parbh.
Babu Harendra Chandra Chakrabarti	habla (n) ditto.
Babu Harendra Lal Das	Sylhet Sadar ditto.
Babu Kailashram Mudi	Sunamganj ditto.
Babu Gopendrak Das Chaudhuri	habla (n) (North) ditto.
Babu Harendra Kumar Pal Chaudhuri	habla (n) (South) ditto.
Babu Chaitan Mudi	South Sylhet ditto.
Mr Basanta Mohan Das	Karimganj ditto.
Kumari Pramadini Sh Chandra Parua	Dhubri ditto.
Srijiit Rohan Kumar Chaudhuri	Gauhati ditto.
Srijiit Bepin Chandra Ghose	Goalpara ditto.
Rai Bahadur Rajul Kanta Chaudhuri	Barpeta ditto.
Rai Sahib Dahan Chandra Bora	Tezpur ditto.
Kumar Bhupinder Narain Deh	Moulalal ditto.
Srijiit Dhanuban Chandra Goswami	Nowgong ditto.
Srijiit Jogendra Nath Gohain	Sibsagar ditto.
Srijiit Kasi Nath Saikia	Tezpur ditto.
Srijiit Mohendra Nath Gohain	Goalaghat ditto.
Rai Bahadur Vinodini Datta	Dibrugarh ditto.
Srijiit Bageswar Barua	North Lal Bimpur ditto.
The Hon'ble Maulavi Abdul Hamid	Sylhet Sadar (North) (Muhammadan Rural) ditto.
Haji Ishtiaq Ali Barikbar	Cachar ditto.
Maulavi Aldur Rashid Chaudhuri	Sylhet Sadar (South) ditto.
Maulavi Munawar Ali	Sunamganj ditto.
Maulavi Abdul Rahim Chaudhuri	habla (n) (North) ditto.
Maulavi Sayid Abdul Mannan	habla (n) (South) ditto.
Maulavi Abdul Khalique Chaudhuri	South Sylhet ditto.
Khan Sahib Maulavi Mahmud Ali	Karimganj ditto.
Maulavi Abul Mawid Ziaoshshams	Dhubri ditto.
Khan Sahib Maulavi Mizanur Rahman	Goalpara cum South Dhubri ditto.
Khan Bahadur Maulavi Nuruddin Ahmed	Kamrup and Darrang cum Nowgong ditto.
The Hon'ble Maulavi Taznur Ali	Sibsagar cum Lakhimpur ditto.
Vacant	Assam Valley Planting.
Vacant	Ditto
Mr A J Nicholson	Ditto
Mr H Jamblen	Surma Valley Planting.
Mr P J Heathcote	Ditto.
The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Kanak Lal Barua	Commerce and Industry.

NOMINATED MEMBERS

Officials

J A Dawson, C.I.E.
 E P Burke
 Vacant

H G Dennes
 G A Small

Non-Officials

Sreejyoti Atul Krishna Bhattacharya
 Srijiit Mahendra Lal Das,
 Khan Sahib Maulavi Muhammad Masbraf,
 Rai Sahib Pyari Mohan Das,

Rev Tanuram Saikia representing the la
 classes
 Subadar-Major Sardar Bahadur Jangbu
 OBI, I.D.C.V., (representing the ind
 of Backward Tracts)
 Khan Bahadur Maulavi Hiraipat Ali,

Baluchistan.

Baluchistan is an oblong stretch of country occupying the extreme western corner of the Indian Empire. It is divided into three main divisions: (1) British Baluchistan with an area of 9,476 square miles consisting of tracts assigned to the British Government by treaty in 1879, (2) Agency Territories with an area of 44,345 square miles composed of tracts which have, from time to time, been acquired by lease or otherwise brought under control and placed directly under British officers; and (3) the Native States of Kalat and Las Bela with an area of 80,410 square miles. The Province embraces an area of 134,638 square miles and according to the census of 1931 it contains 368,617 inhabitants.

The country, which is almost wholly mountainous, lies on a great belt of ranges connecting the Safed Koh with the hill system of Southern Persia. It thus forms a watershed the drainage of which enters the Indus on the east and the Arabian Sea on the south while on the north and west it makes its way to the inland lakes which form so large a feature of Central Asia. Rugged, barren, sun-burnt mountains rise by high chasms and gorges, alternate with arid deserts and stony plains, the prevailing colour of which is a monotonous sight. But this is redeemed in places by level valleys of considerable size in which irrigation enables arable cultivation to be carried on and rich crops of all kinds to be raised.

The political connection of the British Government with Baluchistan commenced from the outbreak of the First Afghan War in 1839; it was traversed by the Army of the Indus and was afterwards occupied until 1842 to protect the British lines of communication. The districts of Kachi, Quetta and Mastung were handed over to the Amir of Afghanistan and Political Officers were appointed to administer the country. At the close of the First Afghan War, the British withdrew and these districts were assigned to the Khan of Kalat. The founder of the Baluchistan Province as it now exists was Sir Robert Sandeman who broke down the close border system and welded the Baluch and Brahui Clans into a close confederacy. In the Afghan War of 1879 Pishin, Shorud, Sibi, Ziwara Valley and Thal-Chotiali were handed over by Yakub Khan to the British Government and retained at Sir Robert Sandeman's strenuous insistence.

Industries

Baluchistan lies outside the monsoon area and its rainfall is exceedingly irregular and scanty. Shikhrig, which has the highest rainfall, records no more than 11½ inches in a year. In the highlands few places receive more than 10 inches and in the plains the average

rainfall is about 5 inches decreasing in some cases to 3. The majority of the indigenous population are dependent for their livelihood on agriculture, care of animals and provision of transport. The majority of the Afghans and the Baluch as a rule, cultivate their own lands. The Brahuis dislike agriculture and prefer a pastoral life. Previous to the advent of the British, life and property were so insecure that the cultivator was fortunate if he reaped his harvest. The establishment of peace and security has been accompanied by a marked extension of agriculture which accounts for the increase in the numbers of the purely cultivating classes. The Helmand Coast is famous for the quantity and quality of its fish and the industry is constantly developing. Fruit is extensively grown in the highlands and the export is increasing.

Education is imparted in 105 public schools of all kinds with 7,665 scholars. There is a distinct desire for education amongst the more enlightened headmen round about Quetta and other centres; but on the whole education or the desire of it has made little or no advance in the outlying districts. Coal is mined at Shikhrig and Harnal on the Sind-Pishin Railway and in the Bolan Pass. The output of coal in 1929-30 was 16,959 tons. Chromite is extracted in the Zhob District near Hundush. The chrome output fell off owing to poorer demand. Limestone is quarried in small quantities. The output of chromite during 1929-30 amounted to 17,006 tons.

Administration

The head of the local administration is the officer styled Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner. Next in rank comes the Revenue Commissioner who controls the revenue administration and exercises the functions of a High Court as Judicial Commissioner of the Province. The keynote of administration in Baluchistan is self-government by the tribesmen as far as may be, by means of the Jirgas or Councils of Elders along the ancient customary lines of tribal law, the essence of which is the satisfaction of the aggrieved by the settlement of the dispute by arbitration on the part of the aggrieved or the infliction of punishment on the offender. The district is a purely administrative unit and the civil administration is not carried out in a separate department and the investigation of crime, the carrying of the law, the settling of disputes and other miscellaneous matters are carried out by the district officers. The district officers are assisted by a number of sub-district officers and a number of police officers. The district officers are assisted by a number of sub-district officers and a number of police officers. The district officers are assisted by a number of sub-district officers and a number of police officers.

Aden.

Aden was the first new territory added to the Empire after the accession of Queen Victoria. Its acquisition was the outcome of an outrage committed by local Arabs upon the passengers and crew of a British Indian bungalow wrecked in the neighbourhood. Negotiations having failed to secure satisfactory reparation the Government of Bombay despatched a force under Major Baillie which captured Aden on January 19th, 1839.

Aden is an extinct volcano, five miles long and three broad, jutting out to sea much as Gibraltar does, having a circumference of about 15 miles and connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus of flat ground. The highest peak on the wall of precipitous hills that surrounds the old Crater which constitutes Aden is 1,725 feet above sea level. Rugged spurs, with valleys between, radiate from the centre to the circumference of the crater. The peninsula of Little Aden, adjacent to Aden proper, was obtained by purchase in 1868 and the adjoining tract of Shaikh Othman, 39 square miles in extent, was subsequently purchased when, in 1882, it was found necessary to make provision for an overflowing population. Attached to Aden is the Island of Perim, 6 square miles in extent, in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb at the entrance to the Red Sea. The Jhira Muria islands, which were acquired from the Sultan of Muscat in 1854, were attached to the Aden Residency until 1931, when they were transferred to the control of the British Resident in the Persian Gulf.

The whole extent of the Aden Settlement, including Aden, Little Aden, Shaikh Othman and Perim, is approximately 80 square miles. The 1931 census showed Aden, with Little Aden, Shaikh Othman, and Perim to have a population of 48,338. The population of Perim is 1,700 largely dependent on the Coal Depot maintained there by a commercial firm.

The language of the Settlement is Arabic, but several other Asiatic tongues are spoken. The population is chiefly Arab. The chief industries are salt and cigarette manufacture and dhow building. The crops of the tribal low country adjoining are jowar, sesamum, a little cotton, madder, a bastard saffron and, a little indigo. In the hills, wheat madder fruit, coffee and a considerable quantity of wax and honey are obtained. The difficult problem of water supply has recently been solved. An artesian supply of fresh water has been obtained at Sheikh Othman. Early in 1924 a start was made with a deep bore and sweet water was found at a depth of 1,545 feet. The artesian flow of water now rises from this bore at 750 gallons per hour. A second bore was started in 1928-29 and proved more productive than the first. Five more bores have since been sunk, but two bores only are in operation at present and are sufficient to meet the requirements of the public and shipping. Bore water has practically replaced condensed water

Supply mains for distributing water by pipe connections to houses have been laid at Crater and several of the private houses have been connected to the mains. The question of laying a separate watermain to Tawahi has had the preliminary consideration of the Executive Committee of the Aden Settlement. Drainage systems at Tawahi and Crater have been completed.

Climate—The average temperature of the station is 87 degrees in the shade, the mean range being from 75 in January to 98 in June, with variations up to 102. The hails between the monsoons in May and September are very oppressive. But Aden is usually free from infectious diseases and epidemics, and the absence of vegetation, the dryness of the soil and the purity of the drinking water constitute efficient safeguards against many maladies common to tropical countries. The annual rainfall varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches, with an irregular average of 3 inches.

Aden Protectorate—The principal Chiefs of the Aden hinterland are in protection treaty relations with the British Government, and their territories and dependencies comprise the Aden Protectorate. In April 1905 an Anglo-Turkish Boundary Commission signed a convention specifying a demarcated frontier between the Aden Protectorate and the (then) Turkish Yemen, stretching from Shaikh Murad, opposite Perim, to the river Bana, some 29 miles north-east of Dhala', and thence north-east to the Great Desert (Rub' al Khali). With certain modifications this frontier has been accepted by the Treaty of San'a signed on 11th February 1934 as the boundary between the Aden Protectorate and the territories of the King of the Yemen, who became ruler of the former Turkish possessions in S.W. Arabia after the conclusion of the Great War. The Aden Protectorate stretches eastwards to include the Hadhramaut and the territories of the Sultan of Qishn, bordering upon Oman, and comprises in all about 24,000 square miles.

The Sultan of Qishn is also Sultan of Sokatra, an island about 1,382 square miles in extent lying off Cape Guardafui on the African coast. Sokatra is included in the Aden Protectorate by virtue of a treaty between the Sultan and the British Government in 1886. Its population is said to be about 12,000 mainly pastoral inland, and fishing on the coast. The Aden Protectorate which is under the control of the Resident and Commander-in-Chief, Aden, on behalf of the Colonial Office, is not directly administered, and since the withdrawal of a small British Garrison from Dhala' in 1906 no military posts have been maintained in tribal territory.

Administration—The administration of Aden was formerly directly under the Government of Bombay, but new arrangements came into operation in 1925. The Imperial Government is now responsible for the military and

political situation in Aden and the Aden Protectorate. The settlement of Aden itself remains under the Government of India. The financial settlement required by this division of authority provides for the payment by India to Imperial Revenues of £259,000 a year for three years and thenceforward of £150,000 a year. The larger amount is considerably less than the annual expenditure falling upon Indian revenues under the former system of control.

The administrative control of the Settlement of Aden was transferred from the Bombay Government on 1st April 1932, when Aden was formed into a separate province under the direct control of the Government of India.

The administration is vested in a Chief Commissioner who is also Resident and Commander-in-Chief. Since the introduction of the dual control referred to above, the Resident's post is to be held alternatively by an Officer of the Indian Service and a member of the Colonial Service. The District of Aden Court is the Colonial Court of Admiralty under Act XVI of 1891, and its procedure as such is regulated by the provisions of the Colonial Courts of the Admiralty Act, 1890 (53 and 54 Vic Chapter 27). The laws in force in the Settlement are generally speaking those in force in India, supplemented on certain points by special regulations to suit local conditions. The management of the port is under the control of a Board of Trustees formed in 1888. The principal business of the Port Trust in recent years has been the deepening of the harbour so as to allow vessels of large size to enter and leave at all states of the tide. The police force, consisting of land, harbour and armed police, has been reorganised.

Chief Commissioner and Resident
Commander-in-Chief, Lieutenant-Colonel
Sir Bernard Rawdon Reilly, KCMG
CIE, OBE

Officer Commanding British Forces, Group
Captain O F A Portal, DSO, MC

District and Sessions Judge, R W H Davies, ICS
Political Secretary, Lieutenant-Colonel M J Lake

Chairman of the Port Trust and Settlement
J V Alexander, M Inst OE

Civil Secretary, Captain T Hickinbotham

Civil Administrative Medical Officer, Port
Health Officer and Medical Officer in Charge
Hospital—Lieut-Colonel E. S. Phipps
DSO, IMS

Commandant of Police, R H Haslam, JP
Government Agent, Perim, O Davey.

The island of Kamaran in the Red Sea about 200 miles north of Perim was taken by the British from the Turks in 1915, and is administered by the Government of India through a Civil Administrator under the control of the Chief Commissioner of Aden. It has an area of 22 square miles and a population of about 2,200. A quarantine station for pilgrims travelling to Mecca from the East is maintained on the island under the joint control of the Government of India and the Government of the Dutch East Indies.

Civil Administrator, Captain G V Wickham

Under the new Federal constitution for India it is proposed to separate Aden from India.

The Home Government.

The Home Government of India represented for sixty years the gradual evolution of the governing board of the old East India Company. The affairs of the company were originally managed by the Court of Directors and the General Court of Proprietors. In 1784 Parliament established a Board of Control, with full power and authority to control and direct all operations and concerns relating to the civil and military government, and revenues of India. By degrees the number of the Board was reduced and its power was exercised by the President, the immediate precursor of the Secretary of State for India. With modifications this system lasted until 1833, when the Mutiny, followed by the assumption of the Government of India by the Crown, demanded a complete change. Under the Act of 1858 (merged in the consolidating measure passed in 1915) the Secretary of State became the constitutional adviser of the Crown on all matters relating to India. He inherited generally all the powers and duties which were formerly vested either in the Board of Control, or in the Company, the Directors and the Secret Committee in respect of the government and revenues of India.

The Secretary of State.

Until the Reform Act of 1919 came into force the Secretary of State had the unqualified power to give orders to every officer in India, including the Governor-General, and to superintend, direct and control all acts, operations and concerns relating to the government or revenues of India. In the relations of the Secretary of State with the Governor-General in Council no express statutory change was made, but Parliament ordained through the Joint Select Committee that in practice the conventions governing these relations should be modified, only in exceptional circumstances should he be called upon to intervene in matters of purely Indian interest where the Government and the Legislature of India are in agreement.

Of the wide powers and duties still vested in the Secretary of State, many rest on his personal responsibility; others can be performed only in consultation with his Council, and for some of these the concurrence of a majority of the members of his Council voting at a meeting is required. The Act of 1919 greatly modified the rigidity of the law maintained for many years as to the relations of the Secretary

State with his Council, and he has fuller power than in the past to prescribe the manner in which business is to be transacted. Though in practice the Council meets weekly (save in vacation periods) this has ceased to be a statutory requirement, the law now providing that there shall be a meeting at least once in every month.

The India Council

The number of members of the Council was reduced by the Act to not less than eight and not more than 12, the Secretary of State being free to appoint within those limits. The period of office was reduced from 7 to 5 years, though the Secretary of State may, for special reasons of public advantage to be communicated to Parliament, re-appoint a member for another five years. Half the Council must be persons who have served or resided in India for at least ten years, and who have not left India more than five years before their appointment. The Act restored the old salary of £1,200, with an additional subsistence allowance of £600 for any member who was at the time of appointment domiciled in India. Lord Morley opened the door of the Council to Indians, and since 1917 the number of Indian members has been three.

Associated with the Secretary of State, and the India Council is a Secretariat known as the India Office, housed at Whitehall. Appointments to the establishment are made by the Secretary of State in Council, and are subject to the ordinary Home Civil Service rules in all respects.

In the past the whole cost of the India Office has been borne by the revenues of India, except that the Home Government made certain grants and remissions in lieu of a direct contribution amounting to £50,000 a year. The total cost now is about £230,000. In conformity with the spirit of the 1919 Act, an arrangement was made whereby the salary of the Secretary of State is placed on the Home estimates and most of the outlay needed for the controlling and political functions exercised in Whitehall is met from British revenues, agency functions being still chargeable to Indian revenues. The contribution from the Treasury to India Office administrative expenses is about £115,000.

The High Commissionership.

The financial readjustment was accompanied by a highly important administrative change provided for by the Act. In the creation of a High Commissioner for India in the United Kingdom with necessary establishments. From October 1st, 1920, the High Commissioner took over control of the purchase of Government stores in England and the Indian Students Branch, together with the supervision of the work of the Indian Trade Commissioner. The further development of the functions and powers of the High Commissioner have included such agency work as the payment of Civil leave allowances and pensions, the recruitment of technical officers, supervision of I.C.S. and Forest probationers after first appointment, the making of arrangements for officers on deputation or study leave, registration

of destitute lascars, sale of Government of India publications, etc. The staff of the Stores Department is located at the Depot off the Thames in Belvedere Road, Lambeth. The High Commissioner and the rest of the staff, are at India House, Aldwych, W.C.2, built to the design of Sir Herbert Baker at a cost for construction and equipment of £324,000. There could be no question of adopting a distinctly Oriental style for the exterior, but there are enough Indian features of ornamentation to proclaim the Eastern association of the place. Moreover the Exhibition Hall (typically Indian in design) has five windows on two sides for display specimens of the arts, craft and commerce of India.

Parliament set up in 1920 a Joint Standing Committee consisting of eleven members of each House to keep Parliament in closer touch with Indian affairs but the system has not flourished in the last few years.

INDIA OFFICE.

Secretary of State.

The Rt Hon. Sir Samuel Hoare, Bt, GCB, GCSI, CMG, MP.

Permanent Under-Secretary of State

Sir Findlater Stewart, KCB, KCIF, CSI, LL.D.

Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State

R. A. Butler, M.P.

Deputy Under-Secretary of State.

L. D. Wakely, CB

Assistant Under-Secretaries of State

Sir Cecil H. Kisch, KCIE, CB

S. K. Brown, CB, OVO

Council.

Sir Campbell Rhodes, CBE.

Sir Henry Wheeler, KCSI, KCIF

Sir Dnyas de S. Bry, KCSI, KCIE, CBE

Sir Henry Strakosch, GBE

Sir Reginald I. R. Glancy, KCIF, CSI

Sir Charles A. Tegart, CSI, CII, OVO

Sir Atul C. Chatterjee, GCIF, KCSI

Sir A. A. L. Parsons, KCIF

Sir Abdul Qadir

Clerk of the Council S. K. Brown, CB, CVO

Deputy Clerk of the Council A. Dhillon

Private Secretary to the Secretary of State W. D. Croft, CIF

Assistant Private Secretary L. W. N. Hume

Parliamentary Private Secretary C. M. P. L. M.P.

Political A-D-C. to the Secretary of State Lieut.-Col. W. G. Neale, CIF

Secy. to ditto. O. Gruzelier, CVO

Private Secretary to Permanent Under-Secretary of State I. F. Trembly

Private Secretary to Parly. Under-Secretary A. F. Morley

Heads of Departments.

SECRETARIES.

Financial F E Grist
G. H. Baxter, (Acting)

Public and Judicial. R T Peel, M.C., (Acting).
Military Major-General Sir J F S D. Coleridge, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.

Personal Assistant Col G. L. Pypys, C.B., F.S.O.
Joint Secretary J. A. Simpson, (Acting).
Staff Officer attached Col. J C. Macrae, D.S.O.
Political J C. Walton, C.B., M.C., P. J Patrick, C.S.I.

Economic and Overseas E. J. Turner, C.B.F.
Services and General and Establishment Officer,
F. W. H. Smith, C.I.E.

Reforms (India)
Sir Vernon Dawson, K.C.I.E.
Sir Archibald Carter, K.C.I.E., C.B.
Reforms (Burma)
D. T. Monteath, C.V.O., C.B.E.

Accountant-General, Sidney Turner, C.B.E., F.I.A.
also Director of Funds and Official Agent to
Administrators-General in India.

RECORD DEPARTMENT—Superintendent of Records: W. T. Ottewill, M.B.E.
Auditor E. L. Ball.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Government Director of Indian Railway Companies R. Mowbray
Asst. to ditto W. Gauld, C.B.E.
Librarian (Vacant).

Asst. Librarian H. N. Randle, D.P.H., M.A.
Librarian J. W. Smallwood, M.A.

President of Medical Board for the Examination of Officers of the Indian Services and Adviser to the Secretary of State on Medical matters
Major-Gen Sir J. W. D. Megaw, K.C.I.E.

Members of the Medical Board Lt-Col G. McJ C Smith, C.M.G., Lt-Col H. R. Dutton, C.I.E.
Legal Adviser and Solicitor to Secretary of State.
Sir Herbert G. Pearson.

Asst. Solicitor: F. R. Marten, C.B.E.

Information Officer H. MacGregor

Ordinance Consulting Officer Col. C. E. Vines, B.A.

HIGH COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE

India House, Aldwych, W. G. 2.

The High Commissioner. Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., C.B.E.

Personal Assistant. V. J. G. Bayres.

Private Secretary W. M. Mather, M.B.E.

Deputy High Commissioner B. Rama Rau, C.I.E.

Chief Accounting Officer A. J. C. Edward, F.I.A.

Secretary, General Department: R. E. Montgomery.

Indian Trade Commissioner Dr D. V. Meek, C.I.L., C.B.I.

Deputy ditto Y. N. Sukthanker

Secretary, Education Department T. Quayle, D. Litt. (Lond.)

Store Department Depot at Belvedere Road, Lambeth, S. E. 1.

Director-General Lieut.-Col. Sir Stanley Paddon, C.I.E., C.I.M.F.

Director of Purchase: J. P. Forsyth.

Director of Inspection: F. E. Benest, M.I.E.E.

Secretaries of State for India.

	Assumed charge.
Lord Stanley (Earl of Derby)	1858
Sir Charles Wood, Bart. (Viscount Halifax)	1859
Earl de Grey and Ripon (Marquess of Ripon)	1866
Viscount Cranborne (Marquess of Salisbury)	1866
Sir Stafford Northcote, Bart. (Earl of Iddesleigh)	1867
Duke of Argyll	1868
Marquess of Salisbury	1874
Viscount Cranbrook	1878
Marquess of Hartington (Duke of Devonshire)	1880
Earl of Kimberly	1882
Lord Randolph Churchill	1885
Earl of Kimberley	1886
Viscount Cross	1886
Earl of Kimberley	1892
H. H. Fowler (Viscount Wolverhampton)	1894
Lord George F. Hamilton	1895
St. John Brodrick (Viscount Middleton) ..	1903
John Morley (Viscount Morley)	1905
The Earl of Crewe (Marquess)	1911
Austen Chamberlain	1915
E. S. Montagu	1917
Viscount Peel	1922
Lord Olivier	1924
Lord Birkenhead	1924
Viscount Peel	1928
W. Wedgwood Benn	1929
Sir Samuel Hoare	1931

The Indian States.

The area enclosed within the boundaries of India is 1,773,108 square miles, with a population of 352,837,778 of people—nearly one-fifth of the human race. But of this total a very large part is not under British Administration. The area covered in the Indian States is 675,267 square miles with a population of 81,310,845. The Indian States embrace the widest variety of country and jurisdiction. They vary in size from petty states like Lawa, in Rajputana, with an area of 19 square miles, and the Sumia Hill States, which are little more than small holdings, to States like Hyderabad, as large as Italy; with a population of over fourteen millions. They include the inhospitable regions of Western Rajputana, Baroda, part of the Garden of India, Mysore, rich in agricultural wealth, and Kashmir, one of the most favoured spots on the face of the globe.

Relations with the Paramount Power.

So diverse are the conditions under which the Indian States were established and came into political relation with the Government of India, that it is impossible even to summarise them. But broadly it may be said that as the British boundaries expanded, the states came under the influence of the Government and the rulers were confirmed in their possessions. To this general policy however there was, for a brief period, an important departure. During the regime of Lord Dalhousie the Government introduced what was called annexation through lapse. That is to say, when there was no direct heir, the Government considered whether public interests would be secured by granting the right of adoption. Through the application of this policy, the states of Satara and of Nagpur fell in to the East India Company, and the kingdom of Oudh was annexed because of the gross misgovernment of its rulers. Then came the Mutiny. It was followed by the transference of the dominions of the East India Company to the Crown, and an irrevocable declaration of policy toward the Indian States. In the historic Proclamation of Queen Victoria it was set out that "We desire no extension of our present territorial possessions; and while we will permit no aggression on our dominions or our rights to be attempted with impunity; we shall allow no encroachments on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity and honour of the Native Princes as our own; and we desire that they, as well as our own subjects, should enjoy that prosperity and that social advancement which can only be secured by internal peace and good government." Since the issue of that proclamation there has been no encroachment on the area under Indian rule by the Government of India. On the contrary, the movement has been in the opposite direction. In 1881 the State of Mysore, which had been a long under British administration that the traditions of Native rule were almost forgotten, was restored to the old Hindu ruling house. In 1911 the Maharajah

of Benares, the great taluqdar of Oudh, was granted ruling powers over his extensive possessions. On many occasions the Government of India has had to intervene, to prevent gross misgovernment, or to carry on the administration during a long minority, but always with the undeviating intention of restoring the territories as soon as the necessity for intervention passed. Almost all states possess the right of adoption in default of heirs.

Rights of Indian States.

The rights and obligations of the Indian States are thus described by the Imperial Gazetteer. The Chiefs have, without exception, gained protection against dangers from without and a guarantee that the protector will respect their rights as rulers. The Paramount Power acts for them in relation to foreign Powers and other Indian States. The inhabitants of the Indian States are the subjects of their rulers, and except in case of personal jurisdiction over British subjects, these rulers and their subjects are free from the control of the laws of British India. Criminals escaping to an Indian State must be handed over to it by its authorities, they cannot be arrested by the police of British India without the permission of the ruler of the State. The Indian Princes have therefore a suzerain power which acts for them in all external affairs, and at the same time scrupulously respect their internal authority. The suzerain also intervenes when the internal peace of their territories is seriously threatened. Finally they participate in all the benefits which the protector power obtains by its diplomatic action, or by its administration of its own dominions, and thus secure a share in the commerce, the railways, the ports, and the markets of British India. Except in rare cases applied to maritime states, they have freedom of trade with British India although they levy their own customs, and their subjects are admitted to most of the public offices of the British Government.

Obligations of Indian States.

On the other hand, the Indian States are under an obligation not to enter into relations with foreign nations or other states; the authority of their rulers has no existence outside their territories. Their subjects outside their dominions become for all intents and purposes British subjects. Where foreign interests are concerned, the Paramount Power must act so that no just cause of offence is given by its subordinate ally. All Indian States alike are under an obligation to refer to the British every question of dispute with other states. Inasmuch as the Indian States have no use for a military establishment other than for police, or display, or for cooperation with the Imperial Government, their military forces, their equipment and armaments are

prescribed by the Paramount Power. Although old and unaltered treaties declare that the British Government will have no manner of concern with any of a Maharajah's dependents or servants, with respect to whom the Maharajah is absolute, logic and public opinion have endorsed the principle which Lord Canning set forth in his minute of 1860, that the "Government of India is not precluded from stepping in to set right such serious abuses in a Native Government as may threaten any part of the country with anarchy or disturbance, nor from assuming temporary charge of a Native State when there shall be sufficient reason to do so." Of this necessity the Governor-General in Council is the sole judge subject to the control of Parliament. Where the law of British India confers jurisdiction over British subjects or other specified persons in foreign territory, that power is exercised by the British courts which possess it. The subjects of European Powers and the United States are on the same footing. Where cantonments exist in an Indian State, jurisdiction both over the cantonment and the civil station is exercised by the suzerain power.

Political Officers.

The powers of the British Government are exercised through Political Officers who, as a rule, reside in the states themselves. In the larger states the Government is represented by a Resident, in groups of states by an Agent to the Governor-General, assisted by local Residents or Political Agents. These Officers form the sole channel of communication between the Indian States and the Government of India and its Foreign Department, with the officials of British India and with other Indian States. They are expected to advise and assist the Ruling Chiefs in any administrative or other matters on which they may be consulted. Political Agents are similarly employed in the larger States under the Provincial Governments but in the petty states scattered over British India the duties of the Agent are usually entrusted to the Collector or Commissioner in whose district they lie. All questions relating to the Indian States are under the special supervision of the Supreme Government, and in the personal charge of the Governor-General.

Closer Partnership.

Lieutenants have tended gradually to draw the Paramount Power and the Indian States into closer harmony. Special care has been devoted to the education of the sons of Ruling Chiefs first by the employment of tutors, and afterwards by the establishment of special colleges for the purpose. These are now established at Ajmere, Rajkot, Indore and Lahore. The Imperial Cadet Corps, whose headquarters are at Delhi, imparts military training to the sons of the ruling chiefs and

noble families. The spread of higher education has placed at the disposal of the Indian States the products of the Universities. In these ways there has been a steady rise in the character of the administration of the Indian States, approximating more closely to the British ideal. Most of the Indian States have also come forward to bear their share in the burden of Imperial defence. Following on the spontaneous offer of military assistance when war with Russia appeared to be inevitable over the Poonch incident in 1885, the states have raised a portion of their forces up to the standard of the troops in the Indian Army. These were until recently termed Imperial Service Troops, but are now designated Indian State Forces; they belong to the States; they are officered by Indians, but they are inspected by a regular cadre of British officers under the general direction of an Inspector-General. Their numbers are approximately 22,000 men, their armament is the same as that of the Indian Army and they have done good service often under their own Chiefs, on the Frontier and in China, in Somaliland and in the Great War. Secure in the knowledge that the Paramount Power will respect their rights and privileges, the Ruling Chiefs have lost the suspicion which was common when their position was less assured, and the visits of the Prince of Wales in 1875, of the Prince and Princess of Wales in 1905-06, and of the King and Queen in 1911-12 have tended to seal the devotion of the great feudatories to the Crown. The improvement in the standard of native rule has also permitted the Government of India largely to reduce the degree of interference in the internal affairs of the Indian States. The new policy was authoritatively laid down by Lord Minto, the then Viceroy, in a speech at Udaipur in 1909, when he said—

"Our policy is, with rare exceptions, one of non-interference in the internal affairs of the Native States. But in guaranteeing their internal independence and in undertaking their protection against external aggression it naturally follows that the Imperial Government has assumed a certain degree of responsibility for the general soundness of their administration and could not consent to incur the reproach of being an indirect instrument of misrule. There are also certain matters in which it is necessary for the Government of India to safeguard the interests of the community as a whole as well as those of the paramount power, such as railways, telegraphs and other services of an Imperial character. But the relationship of the Supreme Government to the State is one of suzerainty. The foundation stone of the whole system is the recognition of identity of interests between the Imperial Government and Durbars and the minimum of interference with the latter in their own affairs."

HYDERABAD.

The Nizam exercises full sovereignty within his dominions, grants titles and has the power of life and death over his subjects. Before 1910, the Government consisted of a Prime Minister responsible to the Nizam, with Assistant Minister but an Executive Council was established which now consists of seven members. A Legislative Council consisting of 20 members of whom 12 are official, 6 non-official, and 2 extraordinary, is responsible for making laws. The administration is carried on by a regular system of departments on lines similar to those followed in British India. The State is divided into two divisions—Telangana and Mahratnara—15 districts and 138 Talukas. Local Boards are constituted in each District and Taluka. The State maintains its own currency which consists of gold and silver coins and a large note issue. The rupee, known as the Osmania Sica, exchanges with the British Indian rupee at an average ratio of 116-10-8 to 100. There is a State postal Service and stamps for internal purposes. The Nizam maintains his own army consisting of 18,418 troops of all ranks of which 11,211 are Irregular, & 7,207 are Regular troops, which includes 2 battalions for Imperial Service 1,033 strong.

Finance.—Hyderabad State is by far the wealthiest of the Indian States, having a revenue in its own currency of about 82 crores, which is approximately the same as that of the Central Provinces and Behar and Orissa and double that of any other State. After many vicissitudes, its finances are at present in a prosperous condition and it enjoys a large annual surplus of revenue from which a reserve of 9 crores has been built up. This is being used partly as a Sinking Fund for the redemption debt and partly for the development of the resources of the State. The Budget estimates for the present year show a revenue of 85 79 lakhs under service heads and an expenditure of 85 85 lakhs, inclusive of large sums set aside for development, famine insurance and debt redemption. The capital expenditure programme provides for an expenditure of 46 88 lakhs which includes 16 22 lakhs for completion of large irrigation projects and 19 63 lakhs for open line works and road motor transport. The year opened with a cash balance of 104 64 lakhs which is expected to be about 79 65 lakhs by the end of the year. The Government loans stand at 118/8 for long term issues.

Production and Industry.—The principal industry of the State is agriculture, which maintains 57 per cent of the population. The common system of land tenure is ryotwari. About 55 per cent of the total area is directly administered by the State. The rest consists of private estates of His Exalted Highness the Nizam, which comprise about one-tenth of the total area of the State, and the estates of the Jagirdars and Pargana nobles. The total land revenue is over 3 crores. The principal food crops are millet and rice, the staple money-crops are cotton, which is grown extensively on the black cotton soils, and oil-seeds. Hyderabad is well known for its Gaour cotton which is the

longest stable indigenous cotton in India. The total area under cotton exceeds 3½ million acres. Hyderabad possesses the most southerly of the Indian coal mines and the whole of Southern India is dependent on it for such coal as is transported by rail. The chief mine is situated at Singareni, which is not far from Bezwada junction on the Calcutta-Madras line. The chief manufacturing industry is based on the cotton produced in the State. There are 4 large mills in existence and others are likely to be established, while about one-third of the cloth worn in the Dominions is produced on local hand-looms. There are about 391 ginning pressing decorticating factories in the cotton tracts and also a number of tanneries and flour mills, the total number of factories (as defined in the Hyderabad Factory Act) of all kinds in the State being 419. The Shalabad Cement Co. which has been established at Shalabad on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line, not far from Wadi, supplies the whole of Southern India with cement and has at present an annual output of 109,150 tons.

Taxation.—Apart from the land revenue which, as stated above, brings in about 3 21 crores, the main sources of taxation are excise and customs. The receipts from each are estimated for the present year at 170 lakhs and 103 lakhs respectively. After these come interest on investments (31 lakhs), railways (105 lakhs) and Berar rent (29 lakhs). The customs revenue is derived from an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent on all imports and exports.

Communications.—One hundred and thirty-seven miles of broad gauge line from Bombay to Madras traverse the State; also 33 miles of metre gauge line from Masulipatam to Marmagao. At Wadi, on this section, the broad gauge system of the Nizam's State Railway takes off and running east through Hyderabad City and Warangal reaches the Calcutta-Madras line at Bezwada, a total length of 352 miles. From Kazipet, near Warangal on this line, a new link to Bellary strikes north thus providing the shortest route between Madras and Delhi. From Secunderabad the metre gauge Godavari Valley railway runs north-west for 386 miles to Manmad on the main line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Calcutta. A metre gauge line also runs south from Secunderabad through Mahbubnagar to the border and is now linked up with Kurnool on the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Branch lines exist from Purna to Huzoli, Parbhani to Puri-Vajirani, Kanipli to Kothazuddin and Yikharabad to Bidar, which last was extended to Puri-Vajirani. Thus, with branch lines, there are now 695 miles of broad gauge and 656 of the metre gauge in the State. The Broad Light Railway owns a short extension from Kurnool on the Bombay-Madras line to Latur in Osmanabad District. The Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway was worked by a company until April, 1920, when it was purchased by the Nizam's Government. The road system is being rapidly extended in accordance with a well-considered programme.

administration is, under the reformed constitution, granted the power of voting on the demands for grants. The Dewan is the ex-officio President of both the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council.

The Legislative Council has a Public Accounts Committee which examines the audit and appropriation reports and brings to the notice of the Council all deviations from the wishes of the Council as expressed in its Budget grant.

Standing Committees—With a view to enlarge the opportunities of non-official representatives of the people to influence the everyday administration of the State, three Standing Committees consisting of members of the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council, have been formed, one in connection with Railway, Electrical, and P. W. Departments, the second in connection with Local Self-Government and the Departments of Medicine, Sanitation and Public Health and the third in connection with Finance and Taxation.

All the important branches of the administration are controlled by separate Heads of Departments. The combatant strength of the Military Force at the end of 1930-31 was 2,149 of which 501 were in the Mysore Lancers, 132 in the Mysore Horse, and the remaining 1,516 in the Infantry. Animal Transport Corps, was replaced by the Mechanical Transport which consists of 2 lorries (six wheeler lorries) and 4 commercial lorries with the necessary staff. The total annual cost is about 17 lakhs of rupees. The cost of the Police Administration during 1930-31 was about 19 lakhs.

Agriculture—Nearly three-fourths of the population are employed in agriculture, and the general system of land tenure is ryotwari. The principal food crops are ragi, rice, jola, millets, gram and sugarcane, and the chief fibres are cotton and sun-hemp. Nearly fifty thousand acres are under mulberry, the silk industry being the most profitable in Mysore next to Gold Mining. The Department of Agriculture is popularising agriculture on scientific lines by means of demonstrations, investigations and experiment. There are seven Government Agricultural Farms at Hebbal, Babbur, Martnur, Nagenhalli, Hunsur, Mandya and the coffee experimental Station at Balehonnur. A live-stock section has been organised which has been taking necessary steps for the improvement of live-stock. A cattle breeding station has been established at Parvatharayanakere, near Ayanpur in the Kador District, with a sub-station at Bisur. A Serum Institute has been opened at Bangalore for the manufacture of serum and virus for inoculation against rinderpest and other

contagious diseases. There are 63 Veterinary Dispensaries and Hospitals in the State under the control of the Civil Veterinary Department.

Industries and Commerce—A Department of Industries and Commerce was organised in 1913 with a view to the development of Industries and Commerce in the State. Its main functions are stimulating private enterprise by the offer of technical advice and other assistance for starting new industries, undertaking experimental work for pioneering industries and developing existing industries and serving as a general bureau of information in industrial and commercial matters. The department has under its control the following demonstration factories—the Government Soap Factory, Government Porcelain Factory and the Central Industrial Workshop. The Department has a well-equipped staff to undertake the drilling of boreholes for meeting the requirements of drinking water in the rural areas. Mysore is the largest producer of silk in India, and the care and development of this industry is entrusted to a Department of Sericulture in charge of a Superintendent subject to the general control of the Director of Industries and Commerce. Arrangements have been made for the supply of disease-free seed and a central and five taluk popular schools have been doing good work. With a view to demonstrate and impart instructions in the utilisation of the high grade silk produced in the State, Government have recently established a silk Weaving Factory and Dyeing and Finishing Works at Mysore. The Sandalwood Oil Factory started on an experimental basis is now working on a commercial scale. A factory is working at Mysore. A large plant at a cost of more than 170 lakhs of rupees has been constructed at Bhadravathi for purposes of manufacturing charcoal, pig-iron, distilling wood-alcohol, and developing subsidiary industries. A new pipe foundry was opened there for the manufacture of pipes which are in great demand in several towns in India. A steel plant is also proposed to be installed shortly. The works are on the borders of an extensive forest area and practically at the foot of the hills containing rich deposits of iron, manganese and bauxite, and are not far from the Gersoppa Water Falls estimated to be capable of producing 100,000 horse-power of electric energy. A Trade Commissioner in London has been appointed to look after the interest of the trade and industry of the State.

Finances—The actual total receipts and disbursements charged to Revenue for the past five years together with the revised budget estimate for 1933-34 and budget for 1934-35 were as below—

Year	Receipts	Disbursements	Surplus	Deficit
	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
1928-29	3,74,37,981	3,74,02,395	35,586
1929-30	3,75,40,314	3,75,34,720	5,594
1930-31	3,32,35,293	3,94,29,342	61,94,049
1931-32	3,37,47,182	3,50,03,767	12,56,581
1932-33	3,38,27,323	3,66,15,671	27,88,348
1933-34 (Revised)	3,44,37,000	3,65,92,000	21,55,000
1934-35 (Budget)	3,63,40,000	3,62,72,000	1,07,000

Administration—An executive council consisting of the principal officers of the State carries on the administration, subject to the control of the Maharaja, who is assisted by a Dewan and other officers. A number of departments have been formed, which are presided over by officials corresponding to those in British India. The State is divided into five *Prants* each of which is sub-divided into *Mahals* and *Peta Mahals* of which there are in all 42. Attempts have for some years been made to restore village autonomy, and village panchayats have been formed which form part of a scheme for local self-government. There is a Legislative Department, under a Legal Remembrancer, which is responsible for making laws. There is also a Legislative Council, consisting of nominated and elected members. A High Court at Baroda possesses jurisdiction over the whole of the State and hears all final appeals. From the decisions of the High Court appeals lie in certain cases, to the Maharaja who decides them on the advice of the Huzur Nyaya Sabha. The State Army consists of 5,086 Regular forces and 3,806 Irregular forces.

Finance—In 1932-33, the total receipts of the State were Rs 2,70,10,000 and the disbursements Rs 2,04,36,000. The principal Revenue heads were—Land Revenue, Rs 1,22,26,000, Akbari, Rs 26,07,000, Opium Rs 3,79,000, Railway, Rs 21,30,000, Interest Rs 16,63,000, Tribute from other States, Rs 6,36,000. British Currency was introduced in 1901.

Production and Industry—Agriculture and pasture support 63 per cent of the people. The principal crops are rice, wheat, gram, castor-oil, rapeseed, poppy, cotton, sun-hemp, tobacco, sugarcane, maize and garden crops. The greater part of the State is held on ryotwari tenure. The State contains few minerals, except sandstone, which is quarried at Songar, and a variety of other stones which are little worked. There are 98 industrial or commercial

concerns in the State registered under the State Companies' Act. There are four Agricultural Banks and 1,147 Co-operative Societies in the Baroda State.

Communications—The B B. & C I Railway crosses part of the Navsari and Baroda *prants* and the Rajputana Malwa Railway passes through the Mehsana *prant*. A system of branch lines has been built by the Baroda Durbar. In all the four *prants* in addition to which the Tapti Valley Railway and the Baroda-Godhra Chord line (B B & C I) pass through the State. The Railways owned by the State are about 707.67 miles in length. The total mileage of metalled and fair weather roads in the State is 532 and 932 respectively.

Education—The Education Department controls 2,510 institutions of different kinds in 113 of which English is taught. The Baroda College is affiliated to the Bombay University. There are a number of high schools, technical schools, and schools for special classes, such as the jungle tribes and unclean castes. The State is "in a way pledged to the policy of free and compulsory primary education." It maintains a system of rural and travelling libraries. Eighteen per cent of the population is returned in the census as literate. Total expense on Education is Rs 36.12 (lakhs).

Capital City—Baroda City with the cantonment has a population of 112,860. It contains a public park, a number of fine public buildings, palaces and offices, and it is crowded with Hindu temples. The Cantonment is to the north-west of the city and is garrisoned by an infantry battalion of the Indian Army.

Ruler—His Highness Farzandi-I-Khas-i-Dowlat-i-Englishtia, Maharaja Sir Sayaji Rao III Gaekwar, Sena Khas Khel, Samsher Bahadur, GCSI, GCIE, LLD, Maharaja of Baroda.

Resident—Lieut-Col J L R Weir, CIE.

Dewan—Sir V T Krishnamachari, K.T., CIE.

BALUCHISTAN AGENCY.

In this Agency lies the State of Kalat with its feudatory State of Las Bela.

Kalat is bounded on the North by the Chagai district, on the East by Sindh and the Marri-Bugti tribal territories, on the South by the Arabian Sea and on the West by Persia.

The Kalat State, unlike the other Indian States, is a confederacy of partially independent chiefs, whose head is the Khan of Kalat. The divisions of the State are Sarawan or the Highlands, Jhalawan or the Lowlands, Kachhi, Mekran and Kharan. The inhabitants are, for the most part, Muhammadans of the Sunni sect. The area is 73,278 square miles and the population 3,42,101.

The relations of Kalat with the British Government are governed by the treaties of 1854 and 1876, by the latter of which the independence of Kalat was recognized, while the Khan agreed to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. There are also agreements with Kalat in connection with the construction of the Indo-European telegraph line, the cession of jurisdiction on the railways and in the Bolan Pass, and the permanent leases of Quetta, Nushki and Nasirabad.

The Khan is assisted in the administration of the State by a Wazir-i-Azam, at present a European Officer of the Imperial service. The Governor-General's Agent in Baluchistan conducts the relations between the Government of India and the Khan, and exercises general political supervision over the State. The revenue of the State is about Rs 14.5 lakhs, out of which the Khan retains a civil list of Rs 3,00,000 per annum. The present Khan is His Highness Beglar Begi, Lieut. Mir Ahmad Yar Khan. He was born in 1903.

Las Bela is a small State under the suzerainty of Kalat. The Hab river for the Southern part of its course forms the Eastern boundary with Sindh, and the greater part of the State consists of the valley and the delta of the Purahi river. Area 7,132 square miles, population 13,000, chiefly Sunni Muhammadans. The estimated average revenue is about Rs 3.6 lakhs. The ruling chief of Las Bela, known as the Jam-i-Mir Ghulam Muhammad Khan, who was born in 1895. The administrative control of the State is exercised in the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner in Baluchistan through the Political Agent at Las Bela. The Jam-i-Mir is a Wazir to assist in the administration of the State.

RAJPUTANA AGENCY.

Rajputana is the name of a great territorial circle with a total area of about 133,886 square miles, which includes 21 Indian States, one chiefship, one estate, and the small British district of Ajmer-Merwara. It is bounded on the west by Sind, on the north-west by the Punjab State of Bahawalpur, on the north and north-east by the Punjab, on the east by the United Provinces and Gwalior, while the southern boundary runs across the central region of India in an irregular zigzag line. Of the Indian States, Chiefship and estate 19 are Rajput, 2 (Bharatpur and Dholpur) are Jat, and two (Palanpur and Tonk) are Mahomedan. The chief administrative control of the British district is vested *ex-officio* in the political officer, who holds the post of Governor-General's Agent for the supervision of the relations between the several Indian States of Rajputana and the Government of India. For administrative purposes they are divided into the following groups—Bikaner and Sirohi in direct relations with the Agent to the Governor-General. Eastern Rajputana Agency 6 States (Bharatpur, Bundi, Dholpur, Jhalawar, Karauli and Kotah), Jaipur Residency 1 State (Alwar, (Jaipur, Kishangarh, Tonk, Shalipura and Lava Estate), Mewar Residency, and Southern Rajputana States Agency 4 States (Mewar, Dargarpur, Banswara and Pratibgarh and the Kishangarh Chiefship). Western Rajputana States Residency, 4 States (Jodhpur, Jaisalmer, Palanpur and Danta.

The Aravalli Hills intersect the country most from end to end. The tract to the north-west of the hills is, as a whole, sandy, ill-watered and unproductive, but improves gradually from being a mere desert in the far west to comparatively fertile lands to the north-east. To the south-east on the Aravalli Hills lie higher and more fertile regions which contain extensive hill ranges and which are traversed by considerable rivers.

Communications—The total length of railways in Rajputana is 3,259 miles, of which about 1,000 are the property of the British Government. The B B & C. I. (Metre-gauge) (Government) runs from Ahmedabad to Bandikui and from there branches to Agra and Delhi. Of the Indian State railways the most important are the Jodhpur and Bikaner lines from Marwar Junction to Hyderabad (Sind) and to Bikaner.

A new Railway line from Manli (on the Udaipur-Chittorgarh Railway) to Marwar Junction is under construction.

Inhabitants—Over 50 per cent of the population are engaged in some form of agriculture, about 20 per cent of the total population are maintained by the preparation and supply of material substances, personal and domestic service provides employment for about 5 per cent and commerce for 2½ per cent of the population. The principal language is Rajasthani. Among castes and tribes, the most numerous are the Brahmans, Jats, Mahajans, Chamars, Rajputs, Minas, Gujars, Bhils, Mahs and Balais. The Rajputs are, of course, the aristocracy of the country, and as such hold the land to a very large extent, either as receivers of rent or as cultivators. By reason of their

position as integral families of pure descent, as a landed nobility, and as the bearers of ruling chiefs, they are also the aristocracy of India; and their social prestige may be measured by observing that there is hardly a tribe or clan (as distinguished from a caste) in India which does not claim descent from, or irregular connection with, one of these Rajput stocks.

The population and area of the States are as follows—

Name of State	Area in square miles	Population in 1931
In direct political relations with A.G.A.—		
Bikaner	23,317	976,219
Sirohi	1,074	216,524
Western Residency and S. R. Agency—		
Udaipur	12,691	1,569,910
Banswara	1,600	225,106
Dungarpur	1,147	227,541
Pratapgarh	856	60,539
Kushalnagar (Chiefship)	310	37,561
Jaipur Residency—		
Alwar	3,154	749,751
Jaipur	15,579	2,671,775
Kishangarh	858	67,774
Tonk	2,553	317,560
Shalipura	107	51,233
Lawa (Estate)	19	2,790
Western Rajputana States Residency—		
Jodhpur	37,016	2,127,082
Jaisalmer	16,062	76,235
Palanpur	1,769	231,179
Danta	317	26,172
Eastern States Agency—		
Bundi	2,220	216,722
Bharatpur	1,076	186,954
Dholpur	1,221	254,980
Jhalawar	810	107,894
Karauli	1,212	110,527
Kotah	5,681	655,805

Udaipur State (also called Mewar) was founded in about 646 A.D. The capital city is Udaipur, which is beautifully situated on the slope of a low ridge, the summit of which is crowned by His Highness the Maharana's palaces, and to the north and west, houses extend to the banks of a beautiful piece of water known as the Pichola Lake in the middle of which stand two island palaces. It is situated near the terminus of the Udaipur-Chittorgarh Railway, 697 miles from Bombay. His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharana Sir Bimpal Singhji Bahadur, G.O.S.I., K.C.I.B., who succeeded his father the late Maharana His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharana, Sir Fateh Singhji Bahadur, G.O.S.I., G.O.I.B., G.O.V.O., in 1930, is the Premier Ruling

Prince of Rajputana The revenue and expenditure of the State are now about 806 lakhs. Its archaeological remains are numerous, and stone inscriptions dating from the third century have been found.

Banswara State is the southernmost State of Rajputana within the Political Agency of the Southern Rajputana States. The area of the State is 1,946 square miles and the population 2,60,670 souls. It is thus in regard to size eleventh among the States of Rajputana. Banswara with Dungarpur originally formed a country known as Bagar, which was, from the beginning of the thirteenth century until about the year 1529, held by certain Rajput Rulers of the Ghelot or Sishodiyu clan, who claimed descent from an elder branch of the family now ruling in Udaipur. After the death of Maha-Rawal Udal Singhji, the Ruler of Bagar, about 1529, his territory was divided between his two sons, Jagmal Singhji and Prithvi Rajji and the descendants of the two families are now the Rulers of Banswara and Dungarpur respectively. Where the town of Banswara now stands, there was a large Bhil pal or colony under a powerful Bhil Chieftain, named Wasna, who was defeated and slain by Maharawal Jagmal Singhji about 1580. The name of Banswara is by tradition said to be a corruption of Wasnawara or the country of Wasna. Others assert that the word means the country (wara) of bamboos (hans). Nearly three centuries after its foundation by Maharawal Jagmal Singhji, Maharawal Bhai Singhji anxious to get rid of the supremacy of the Mahattas offered to become a tributary to the British Government. In 1818, a definite treaty was made with his successor, Maharawal Umed Singhji. Banswara has been described as the most beautiful portion of Rajputana, it looks at its best just after the rains. The principal rivers are the Mahi, the Anas, the Eran, the Chap and the Haran.

The present Ruler is His Highness Rajan Rni Maharaja Dhuraj Maharawalji Sahib Shree Sir Pirthi Singhji Bahadur, K.C.I.E., who was born on July 15, 1888, and is the 21st in descent from Maharawal Jagmal Singhji. His Highness was educated in the Mayo College and succeeded his father in 1914. His Highness is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The State is ruled by His Highness the Maharawalji Sahib Bahadur with the assistance of the Diwan and the Home Minister, and the Judicial and the Legislative Council, of which the Diwan is the President and the heir apparent, Maharaj Raj Kumar Sahib Shri Chandrasevi Singhji Sahib, is Senior Member. The revenue of the State is about 7 lakhs and the expenditure is about the same.

Diwan—Mr. Nand Lal Binerjee (Actg.)

Home Minister—Mr. Nand Lal Binerjee

Dungarpur State, with Banswara, formerly comprised the country called the Bagar. It was invaded by the Mahattas in 1818. As in other States inhabited by hill tribes, it became necessary at an early period of British supremacy to employ a military force to coerce the Bhils. The State represents the Gadgi of the eldest branch of the Sisodias and dates its separate existence from about the close of the 12th Century. Samant Singh, King of Chitor, when driven away by Kartikey

of Jalor, fled to Bagar and killed Chovramul Chief of Baroda, and founded the State of Dungarpur. The present Chief is His Highness Rai Rajan Mahimahendra Maharajpraj Maharawal Shri Lakshman Singhji Bahadur born on 7th March 1908, succeeded on 15th November 1916 and assumed charge of the administration on the 16th February 1928. No railway line crosses the territory, the nearest railway station, Udaipur, being 65 miles distant and Talad on Ahmedabad side, being about 70 miles distant. Revenue about 8 lakhs.

Partabgarh State, also called the Kanthal, was founded in the sixteenth century by a descendant of Rana Mohal of Mewar. The town of Partabgarh was founded in 1693 by Partab Singh. In the time of Jaswant Singh (1775-1844), the country was overrun by the Marathas, and the Maharawat only saved his State by agreeing to pay Holkar a tribute of *Salim Shahi* Rs. 72,700 (which then being coined in the State Mint was legal tender throughout the surrounding Native States), in lieu of Rs. 15,000 formerly paid to Delhi. The first connexion of the State with the British Government was formed in 1804; but the treaty then entered into was subsequently cancelled by Lord Cornwallis, and a fresh treaty by which the State was taken under protection was made in 1818. The tribute to Holkar was paid through the British Government, and in 1904 was converted to Rs. 36,350 British currency. The present ruler is His Highness Maharawat Ram Singh Bahadur who was born in 1903 and succeeded in 1929. The State is governed by the Maharawat with the help of the Dewan, and, in judicial matters, of a Committee of members styled the Raj Sabha or State Council. Revenue about 5½ lakhs; expenditure nearly 5½ lakhs. The financial administration is under the direct supervision of the State.

Jodhpur State, is the largest in Rajputana with an area of 36,021 square miles and a population of 2.4 millions, of which 55 per cent are Hindus, 8 per cent Muslims and the rest Jains and Animists. The greater part of the country is an arid region. It improves gradually from a mere desert to comparatively fertile land as it proceeds from the West to the East. The rainfall is scanty and irregular. There are no perennial rivers and the supply of sub-surface water is very limited. The only important river is Luni.

The Maharaja of Jodhpur is the head of the Rathor Clan of Rajputs and claims descent from Rama the deified King of Ayodhya. The earliest known king of the Clan named Abhimanyu lived in the 11th century, from which time their history is increasingly clear. After the breaking up of their kingdom at Kanauj, they founded this State about 1312 and the foundations of the Jodhpur Empire were laid by Rao Todar in 1379. He established the rule of the Rathors in the State of Jodhpur from the Ganga. His descendant was the famous Rao Maldev the most powerful ruler of the time having a army of 50,000 Rajputs. The Emperor Barbarossa captured him in 1542 and held him captive for 11 years. Raja Sir Singh son of Rao Maldev was the first recognition of his deeds as a ruler of the State. "Sawal Raja" with a title of 5000 Rs.

and 3,300 Sowars by the Emperor Akbar. Maharaja Jaswant Singh I, was once a pillar of the Indian Empire and a great defender of the Hindus and their temples. He was also a patron of learning and wrote books on Philosophy, Prosody and other professional subjects. After his demise in 1678 A.D. Aurangzeb confiscated Marwar, and Maharaja Jaswant Singh's posthumous son and successor Maharaja Ajit Singh had to pass 8 years in hiding in mountains and the subsequent 20 years in constant wars with Aurangzeb's army with the help of his nobles, chief of whom was the famous hero Durga Dass, before he ascended the throne of Marwar. In the time of Maharaja Bheja Singh, a later descendant of the same line, one of the richest districts, viz., Godwar, was finally acquired from Mewar and annexed to Marwar in 1771 A.D. The State entered into a treaty of alliance with the British Government in 1818.

The present ruler Lieut. Colonel His Highness Raj Rajeshwar Harmand Rajrao Hindusthan Maharaja Dhuraj Maharaja Sri Sir Umed Singhji Sahib Bahadur G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O. is the head of the Rathors, and is the 32nd ruler from Rao Sindhya. His Highness was born on 8th July 1903 and is now in the 31st year of his age. He succeeded his elder brother on 3rd October, 1918. He was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer and was invested with full ruling powers on 27th January 1921. In October of the same year he was granted the rank of Honorary Captain in the British Army, made a Knight Commander of the Royal Victorian Order in March 1921, was elevated to the rank of Honorary Major in June 1923 and Honorary Lieut.-Colonel in August 1923. He was created K.C.S.I., on 3rd June 1924 and invested with G.C.I.E. on the 1st January 1925. His Highness was married in November 1921, and has four sons and one daughter, the apparent being Maharaj Kumar Sri Hanwant Singhji Sahib born on 16th June 1923. His Highness the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur has one younger brother Maharaj Sri Ajit Singhji Sahib, and two sisters, the elder of whom is Maharam of Jaipur and the younger the Maharam of Rewa.

His Highness is greatly interested in educational, athletic, and progressive institutions generally of modern times both in India and abroad, and has always exhibited his sympathy with them by liberal donations. An example of this is found in the donation of 3 lakhs made by His Highness for founding the Irwin Chair of Agriculture at the Benares Hindu University. He is a keen sportsman, Polo player and a first-rate shot. His favourite pastime is pig-sticking, fishing, shooting, photography and air piloting.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 19 guns within his own territories and 17 guns elsewhere.

The administration is carried on with the aid of a State Council composed of His Highness, the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur as President, Rao Bahadur Thakur Cham Singhji, M.A., LL.B. Judicial Minister, Thakur Madho Singhji, Home Minister, Mr. J. B. Irwin, D.S.O., M.C., I.C.S. Revenue Minister and Mr. S. G. Edgar, I.S.C. P.W. Minister. There is also an Advisory Committee representing the great body of bardars who hold as much as five sixths of the total area, to aid the administration with

opinion on matters affecting the revenue and law in the country.

The revenue of the State during the year 1932-33 was Rs. 1,30,15,921 and the expenditure Rs. 1,07,08,736. The Jodhpur P.W.D. is a branch from Hyderabad (Sindh) to Jodhpur and Marwar Junction to Kuchawa. It has branches on all sides on the territory of the State. The principal railway line of the State is the P.W.D. Railway line which is a branch of the South Eastern Railway. The line runs through the quarries of Marwar and all the other parts of the State. It is a branch of the P.W.D. Railway.

Jaisalmer State is one of the largest States in Rajputana and covers an area of 18,000 square miles. The ruler of Jaisalmer is the head of the Jodha clan and is the direct descendant of Sri Krishna. Jaisalmer City was founded in 1136, and the State entered into an alliance of perpetual friendship with the British Government in 1818. In 1844 after the British conquest of Sind the fort of Shahpore, Ghar and Ghore were restored to the State. The population according to the census of 1911 is 67,752. The present Ruling Prince is His Highness Maharaj Raj Raj Singhji Maharaj, Sri Sir Umed Singhji Sahib Bahadur, V.C.M., I.C.S., P.W.D., K.C.S.I. Revenue about 10 lakhs.

Sirohi State is much broken up by hills of which the highest is Mount Abu, 5,650 feet. The Chief of Sirohi is a Dora, a branch of the famous Chauhan clan which founded the last Hindu kings of Delhi. The present capital of Sirohi was built in 1425. The city suffered in the eighteenth century from the wars with Jodhpur and the appropriations of wild tribes. Jodhpur claimed suzerainty over Sirohi but this was disallowed and British protection was granted in 1823. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajdhraj Maharao Shri Sir Sirup Ram Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. The State is ruled by the Maharao with the assistance of Ministers and other officials. Revenue about 10 lakhs.

Jaipur is the fourth largest State in Rajputana. It consists for the most part of level and open country. It was known to the ancients as Vatsya Desh, and was the kingdom of the King Virata mentioned in the Mahabharata, in whose court, the five Pandava brothers during their last period of exile resided. Bhairat in the Jaipur State has been identified.

The Maharaja of Jaipur is the head of the Kuchawa clan of Rajputs, which claims descent from Kush, son of Rama, king of Avadhya, the famous hero of the famous epic poem, the Ramayana. This dynasty in Eastern Rajputana dates as far back as ninth century A.D. Dula Ral, one of its most early rulers, made Amber the capital of the State in 1037 A.D. About the end of 12th century one of the rulers, Raju at the head of the army of Prithvi Raj, Emperor of Delhi, defeated Shahabuddin Ghori in the Khyber Pass and pursued him as far as Ghazni. Prithvi Raj had given his sister in marriage to him. History of India records several distinguished rulers of Jaipur from amongst whom the following require particular mention. Man Singh 1560-1615. He was a victorious general intrepid commander and

tactful administrator, whose fame had spread throughout the country. During most troublous times, he maintained Imperial authority in Kabul and was the brilliant character of Akbar's time. Maharaja Sawai Jai Singh II (1700—44) was the first town planner in India. He removed the capital of the State to Jaipur, so named after him. During his time, the State acquired great power and fame. He was a great mathematician and scientist of his age, and is famous for his astronomical observatories which he built at several important centres in India. His court was visited by foreign astronomers. Maharaja Sawai Ram Singh, 1835-1880. He was one of the most enlightened princes in India at that time. He encouraged art and learning. He embellished the city in various ways and improved the administration and material condition of the people. Maharaja Sawai Madho Singh II, 1880-1922. He was a very wise and intelligent ruler who followed in the footsteps of his father. He maintained and steadily improved all the useful measures initiated by the late Maharaja. His administration was characterized by great liberality, catholicity and a broad outlook on affairs. His deep religious devotion and piety and unrivalled generosity and genuine and active sympathy are well known. His staunch loyalty and maintenance of the traditions of his house raised him in the estimation of the paramount power. He passed away after a long reign of 41 years. His late Highness' donations and subscriptions to works of charity are enormous and too numerous to detail. His Highness the present Maharaja Sawai Man Singh II Bahadur was born on 21st August 1911. He was adopted by His late Highness on 24th March 1921. He is a scion of the Rajawat House of Isarda, and ascended the gadi on the 7th September 1922, and was married to the sister of the present Maharajah of Jodhpur on the 30th January 1924, from whom he has a daughter and a son and heir (b. 22nd October 1931). His second marriage with the daughter of his late Highness Maharaja Shri Sumar Singhji Bahadur of Jodhpur was celebrated on the 24th April 1932. By this marriage he has a son born in England on May 5, 1933. He studied at the Woolwich Military Academy in England and promises to be an ideal ruler having given abundant evidence already of the keen and sympathetic interest he takes in all that concerns the welfare of his people and mankind in general.

His Highness the Maharaja Salub Bahadur was invested with full powers on 14th March 1931. His Highness was appointed Honorary Lieutenant in the Indian Army on the 25th April, 1931 and was promoted to the rank of Honorary Captain on the 1st January, 1934. In 1937, His Highness took his Polo Team to England where it achieved exceptional success, setting up a record by winning all open tournaments. A Chief Court of Induciture was established in 1921. The army consists of Cavalry, Infantry, Transport and Artillery. The normal revenue is about one crore and twenty lakhs.

According to the Census of 1931 the population of the State is 26,31,775. In area it is 16,632 square miles.

Kishangarh State is in the centre of Rajputana and consists practically of two narrow strips of land separated from each other with an area of 858 square miles (population 7,55,000), the northern mostly sandy, the southern fertile. The Ruling Princes of Kishangarh belong to the Rathor clan of Rajputana and descended from Maharaja Kishan Singh (a cond son of Maharaja Udal Singh of Jodhpur) who founded the town of Kishangarh in 1611. The present ruler is His Highness Umdre Rajhai Buland Mahan Maharajah Dhuraj Dikshit Singh Bahadur. He was born on the 26th January, 1896, and was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma Examination. He was married to the sister of Raja Bahadur Maksudangarh in May, 1915. He went to England and travelled on the Continent with His Late Highness in 1921. On the demise of His Late Highness on 25th September 1926, he succeeded to the Gadi on the 24th November 1926. He administers the State with the help of a Council. Revenue about 9 lakhs and expenditure 8 lakhs.

Lawa State, or Chief of Rajputana is a separate chieftship under the protection of the British Government and independent of any Native States. It formerly belonged to Talpur and then became part of the State of Tonk. In 1887, the Nawab of Tonk murdered the Thakur's uncle and his followers, and Lawa was then raised to its present State. The Thakurs of Lawa belonged to the Naruka sect of the Kachwaha Rajputs. The present Thakur Bhanupersingh Singh, was born on September 24, 1923 and succeeded to the chieftship on 31st December 1929. The chieftship is under minority Administration. Revenue about Rs 50,000.

Bundi State is a mountainous territory in the south-east of Rajputana. The Ruler of Bundi is the head of the Hara sect of the great clan of Chauhan Rajputs and the country occupied by this sect has for the last five or six centuries been known as Haraoli. The State was founded in the early part of the thirteenth century and constant feuds with Mewar and Malwa followed. It threw in its lot with the Mohammedan emperors in the sixteenth century. In later times it was constantly ravaged by the Marathas and Pindaries and came under British protection in 1816. The present ruler of the State is His Highness Maharaja Raja Shri Ishwar Singhji Sahab Bahadur. He was born on 8th March 1897 and succeeded to the Gadi on 8th August 1927. His Highness is entitled to a Salute of 17 guns. His apparent Maharaj Kumar Shri Bagadur Singhji. Revenue about 18 lakhs and expenditure 12 lakhs.

Tonk State—Partly in Rajputana and partly in Central India consists of two parts separated from one another. The ruler belongs to the Sahrawa clan of the Jaisalmer Arghwan tribe. The founder of the State was Nawab Muhammad Amir Khan Jaisawal, General of Holkar's Army from 1781-1800. Holkar bestowed grants of land on him in Rajputana and Central India and he later on granted to him the territory of Tonk. The present ruler is His Highness Maharaja Raja Shri Ishwar Singhji Sahab Bahadur. He was born on 8th March 1897 and succeeded to the Gadi on 8th August 1927. His Highness is entitled to a Salute of 17 guns. His apparent Maharaj Kumar Shri Bagadur Singhji. Revenue about 18 lakhs and expenditure 12 lakhs.

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By clan and family the Maharaj Rana is connected with the Jot Chiefs of Patiala, Jhind, Nabha and Bhagpur. His mother was the second sister of late Shahzada Basdeo Singh Sahib Bahadur of the family of Maharaj Ranjit Singh of Lahore. His Highness is married to the daughter of the Sardar of Badrukha in the Jhind State.

Karauli State.—A State in Rajputana under the Political control of the Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States Agency, lying between 26° and 27° north latitude and 76° 30' and 77° 30' east longitude. Area, 1,242 square miles. The river Chambal forms the south-eastern boundary of the State, dividing it from Gwalior (Solundhia's Territory) on the south-west. It is bounded by Jaipur, and on the north-east by the States of Bharatpur, Jaipur and Dholpur. The State pays no tribute to Government. Languages spoken Hindi and Urdu.

Ruler.—His Highness Maharajahdhiraj Maharaja Bhom Pal, Deo Bahadur, Yadukul Chandra Bhal, Heir-apparent, Maharaj Kumar Ganesh Pal Dewan — Rao Bahadur Pandit Shanker Nath Sharma

Kotah State belongs to the Hara section of the clan of Chauhan Rajputs, and the early history of their house is, up to the 17th century, identical with that of the Bundi family from which they are an offshoot. Its existence as a separate State dates from 1625. It came under British protection in 1817. The present ruler is H. H., Lieut.-Colonel Maharao Sir Umed Singhji Bahadur, G.O.S.I., G.O.I.E., G.B.E., who was born in 1873 and invested with full powers in 1896. In administration he is assisted by two members, Rai Bahadur Pandit Bishwambhar Nath, M.A., and Major-General Onkarsingh, O.I.E. The most important event of his rule has been the restoration, on the deposition of the late Chief of the Jhalawar State, of 15 out of the 17 districts which had been ceded in 1838 to form that principality. Revenue 51 lakhs, Expenditure 47 lakhs.

Jhalawar State consists of two separate tracts in the south-east of Rajputana with an area of 813 square miles yielding a revenue of about 8 lakhs of rupees. The ruling family belongs to the Jhala clan of Rajputs. The present Ruler, Lieutenant His Highness Maharaj Rana Rajendra Singhji, succeeded to the Gadi on 13th April, 1929. He was born in 1900 and educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, and Oxford University. The heir-apparent Maharaj Kumar Virendra Singh was born in England on 27th September, 1921. Rai Bahadur Dewan Pandit Manmohan Lal Ji Langar is the Dewan of the State.

The Bikaner State in point of area is the seventh largest of all the Indian States and the second largest in Rajputana. The population of the State is 9,86,218 of whom 77 per cent are Hindus, 15 per cent Mohammedans, 4 per cent Sikhs and 3 per cent Jains. The capital city of Bikaner, with its population including the suburbs of 85,927, is the third city in Rajputana.

The northern portion of the State consists of level loam land whilst the remainder is for the most part sandy and undulating. The average rainfall is about 12 inches. The water level over most of the State is from 150 feet to 30 feet deep.

The reigning family of Bikaner is of the Chohra clan of Rajputs, and the State was founded in 1463 A.D. by Rao Bika, son of Rao Jodha, Ruler of Marwar (Jodhpur), and after Jodha both the Capital and the State are named after him (Singhji), the first to receive the title of Rajah, Raj.

was "one of Akbar's most distinguished Generals" and it was during his reign that the present Fort of Bikaner was built in 1593. The title of Maharajah was conferred on Rajah Anup Singhji by the Mughal Emperor in 1637 in recognition of his distinguished services in the capture of Golconda. The conspicuous services of Maharajah Sardar Singhji who in the Indian Mutiny of 1857 personally led his troops to co-operate with the British forces in the field on the outbreak of the Mutiny was acknowledged by the Government of India by the transfer of the Sub-Tehsil of Tibi, consisting of 41 villages from the adjoining Sirsa Tehsil in the Punjab to the Bikaner State.

The present Ruler, Lieutenant-General His Highness Maharajahdhiraj Raj Rajeshwar Narendra Shiromani Maharajah Sri Ganga Singhji Bahadur, G.O.S.I., G.O.I.R., G.O.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C., L.L.D., is the 21st of a long line of distinguished rulers renowned for their bravery and statesmanship. He was born on the 13th October 1880 and assumed full ruling powers in December, 1898. He was awarded the first class Kirti-Hind Medal for the active part he took in relieving the famine of 1899-1900, and soon after he went on active service to China in connection with the China War of 1900-1901 in command of his famous Ganga Risala and was mentioned in despatches and received the China Medal and K.O.I.E. The State Forces consist of the Camel Corps, known as 'Ganga Risala,' whose sanctioned strength is 465 strong, an Infantry Battalion known as Sadul Light Infantry, 610 strong, a Regiment of Cavalry known as Dungar Lancers 342 strong, including His Highness' Body Guard, a Battery of Artillery (4 guns 275), 236 strong, two sections of Motor Machine Guns 100 strong and Camel Battery, 20 strong and State Band 35 strong. At outbreak of the Great War in 1914, His Highness immediately placed the services of himself and his State forces, and all the resources of the State at the disposal of His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor, and the Ganga Risala reinforced by the Infantry Regiment which became incorporated in the Camel Corps, in the field, rendered very valuable service in Egypt and Palestine. An extra force was also raised for internal security. His Highness personally went on active service in August 1914 and enjoys the honour of having fought both in France and Egypt, and thus has the distinction of having fought for the British Crown on three Continents, viz., Asia, Europe and Africa. He was mentioned in despatches both in Egypt and France. His Highness also played a very conspicuous political part during the period of the War when he went twice to Europe as the Representative of the Prince of India, once in 1917 to attend the meeting of the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, and again in 1918-19 to attend the Peace Conference where he was one of the signatories to the Treaty of Versailles. His Highness led the Indian Delegation to the 11th Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva and represented the Indian States at the Imperial Conference in 1920. His Highness also attended the Indian Round Table Conference and the Federal Structure Sub-Committee both in 1920 and 1931.

of the G I P Railway Besides the trunk roads, there are 691 miles of roads constructed and maintained by the State The reforms introduced recently are the establishment of State Savings Banks, a scheme of Life Insurance of State officials, establishment of a Legislative Committee consisting of seven elected members out of a total of nine members, introduction of a scheme of Compulsory Primary Education in the City of Indore, measures for the expansion of education in the mofussil a scheme for the formation of the Holkar State Executive Service, a scheme of water supply and municipal drainage in the Indore City, raising of the marriageable age of boys and girls to 18 years and 14 years respectively, and the passing of the Indore Nukta Act and the Marriage Expenses Controlling Act for controlling expenditure on funeral ceremonies and marriages.

The Chief imports are cloth, machinery, sugar, salt and kerosene oil The total imports in 1932-33 amounted to Rs 1,55,33,293

The chief exports are cotton, cloth, tobacco and cereals The total exports in 1932-33 amounted to Rs 56,84,969 exclusive of the exported produce of the Ginning and Pressing factories

Cloth manufactured at the local mills is valued at over two crores and the local trade in wheat is estimated at one crore

Cotton excise duty at 32 per cent *ad valorem* has been abolished from 1st May 1926 and an industrial tax is levied on the cotton mills from the same date

Bhopal—The principal Mohamadan State in Central India ranks next in importance to Hyderabad among the Mohammadan States of India The ruling family was founded by Sardar Dost Mohamud Khan Diler-Jung a Tirah Afghan who after having served with distinction in the army of the Emperor Aurangzeb, obtained the *parwana* of Berar in 1709 with the disintegration of the Moghal Empire Bhopal State developed into an independent State In the early part of the 19th century the Nawab successfully withstood the inroads of Scindia and Bhopala and by the agreement of 1817 Bhopal undertook to assist the British with a contingent force and to co-operate against the Pindari bands In 1818 a permanent treaty succeeded the agreement of 1817

The present ruler of the State, His Highness Sikander Sanat Nawab Istikhari-Mulk Mohammad Hamidullah Khan, Bahadur, CCSI, CIL, CVO B, succeeded his mother Her late Highness Nawab Sult in Jahan Begum on her abdication in May 1926 He had previously actively participated in the administration of the State for nearly ten years as Chief Secretary and afterwards as Member for Finance and Law and Justice

His Highness is the head of the Government and is assisted by an Executive Council consisting of five Members and one secretary whose names are given below—

Almirtabat Times Ferguson Dyer CPT, ICS President of the State Council and Member, Revenue and Public Works Departments

Almirtabat Motamad-us-Sultan Bahadur Rani Onli Nisbi Bahadur B, Member Law and Justice and Education Departments

Almirtabat Motamad-us-Sultan Nisiri-Mulk Sir Syed Lulak Ali, Kt, M A, IIC, Member Roubkari-Illas

Almirtabat, Lieut-Colonel H de N Luer, Member, Army Department

Almirtabat Rafiq-Qadr Ziaul-Uloom Mufti Mohammad Anwarul Haq, M A, M F, Member, State Council

Secretary—Munshi Hasan Mohammad Hayat, B A

The Political Department is under His Highness direct control, the secretary being Munshurul-Mulk, Ali-Qadr Kazi Ali Haider Abbas

The work of legislation with the right of discussing the budget moving resolutions and interpellations rests with a representative Legislative Council inaugurated in 1927 The *rayagwari* system in which the cultivator holds his land direct from Government has lately been introduced The State forests are extensive and valuable and the arable area which comprises more than two-thirds of the total consists mostly of good soil producing cotton, wheat other cereals, sugar-cane and tobacco The State contains many remains of great archaeological interest including the famous Sanchi Topes which date from the 2nd century B C and which were resorted to under the direction of Sir John Marshall Sanchi Station on the G I P main line to Delhi adjoins the Topes

Among other troops the State maintains one full strength Infantry battalion The capital, Bhopal City beautifully situated on the northern bank of an extensive lake is the junction for the Bhopal-Punjab Section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway

Bewa—Is the largest State in Central India Agency with an area of 13,000 square miles and a population of 1,587,445 (1931) The Rulers are Bishel Rajputs descended from the famous Solanki clan which ruled over Gujarat from the 10th to 13th Century During the mutiny the Durbar rendered meritorious services to the Crown for which various parganas which had been seized by Marathas were re-secured to the Maharaja The present ruler is His Highness Baudhesh Maharaja Sir Gulab Singh Bahadur, CIL, CCSI who was born in 1907 His Highness was married in 1919 to the sister of the Maharaja of Jodhpur Upon the death of his father, Lt-Col Sir Venkat Raman Singh Bahadur, CCSI on 30th October 1918 His Highness Baudhesh Maharaja Sir Gulab Singh Bahadur succeeded to the Gadi on 31st October as a minor During the period of minority the State was administered by Council of Regents with His Highness Maharaja Col Ram Singh Bahadur, CCSI, KCSI and of Rudra Regent His Highness Maharaja Sir Gulab Singh Bahadur assumed majority in 1922 and was invested with full ruling powers by His Excellency the Viceroy The Maharaja exercises full sovereignty within his State and the administration is now carried on by him with the help of a State Council of which His Highness is president His Highness is very much interested in all round progress of the State He takes keen interest in education and development of agriculture and mineral resources He has opened several mines by construction of roads and bridges

Pratap Singh, GCSI, GCIE, died in March 1930 and has been succeeded by his grandson His Highness Sawai Mahendra Maharaja Vir Singh Dev Bahadur, the present ruler. The ruler of the State has the hereditary titles of His Highness Saramad-i-Rajahan-Bundelkhand Maharaja Mahendra Sawai Bahadur. The State has a population of about 315,000 and an area of 2,080 square miles. The capital is Tikamgarh, 36 miles from Lalitpur Station, on the GIP Railway. Orchha, the old capital, has fallen into decay but is a place of interest on account

of its magnificent buildings of which the finest were erected by Maharaja Vir Singh Dev I the most famous ruler of the State (1615-1627).

Chief Minister—Major B P Pandey, I.C., L.B., F.R.E.S.

Gwalior
Resident—E C Gibson, C.I.E.
Bhopal

Political Agent—Lt-Col H W C Robinson
Bundelkhand

Political Agent—L W Jardine.

SIKKIM.

Sikkim is bounded on the north and north-east by Tibet, on the south-east by Bhutan, on the south by the British district of Darjeeling, and on the west by Nepal. The population consists of Bhutias, Lepchas, and Nepalese. It forms the direct route to the Chumbi Valley in Tibet. The main axis of the Himalayas, which runs east and west, forms the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet. The Singalila and Chola ranges, which run southwards from the main chain, separate Sikkim from Nepal on the west, and from Tibet and Bhutan on the east. On the Singalila range rise the great snow peaks of Kinchinunga (28,146 feet), one of the highest mountains in the world. The Chola range which is much loftier than that of Singalila, leaves the main chain at the Dongkya La

and received Rs 12,000 annually in lieu of it. The State was previously under the Government of Bengal, but was brought under the direct supervision of the Government of India in 1906. The State is thinly populated, the area being 2,818 square miles, and the population 109,651, chiefly Buddhists and Hindus. The most important crops are maize and rice. There are several trade routes through Sikkim from Darjeeling District into Tibet. In the convention of 1890 provision was made for the opening of a trade mart but the results were disappointing, and the failure of the Tibetans to fulfil their obligations resulted in 1904 in the despatch of a mission to Lhasa, where a new convention was signed. Trade with the British has increased in recent years, and is now between 40 and 50 lakhs yearly. A number of good roads have been constructed in recent years. The present ruler, His Highness Maharajah Sir Tashi Namgyal, K.C.I.E., was born in 1893 and succeeded in 1914. His Highness was invested with full ruling powers on the 5th April 1918. The title of a C.I.E. was conferred upon the Maharaja on the 1st January 1918 and K.C.I.D. on 1st January 1923. The average revenue is Rs 7,20,122.
Political Officer in Sikkim.—J. Williamson.

Tradition says that the ancestors of the Rajas of Sikkim originally came from eastern Tibet. The State was twice invaded by the Gurkhas at the end of the eighteenth century. On the outbreak of the Nepal War in 1814, the British formed an alliance with the Raja of Sikkim and at the close of the war the Raja was rewarded by a considerable cession of territory. In 1835 the Raja granted the site of Darjeeling to the British

BHUTAN.

Bhutan extends for a distance of approximately 180 miles east and west along the southern slopes of the central axis of the Himalayas, adjacent to the northern border of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Its area is 18,000 square miles and its population, consisting of Buddhists and Hindus, has been estimated at 300,000. The country formerly belonged to a tribe called Tek-pa, but was wrested from them by some Tibetan soldiers about the middle of the seventeenth century. British relations with Bhutan commenced in 1772 when the Bhotias invaded the principality of Cooch Behar and British aid was invoked by that State. After a number of raids by the Bhutanese into Assam, an envoy (the Hon A. Eden) was sent to Bhutan, who was grossly insulted and compelled to sign a treaty surrendering the Duars to Bhutan. On his return the treaty was disallowed and the Duars annexed. This was followed by the treaty of 1865, by which the State's relations with the Government of India were satisfactorily regulated. The State formerly received an allowance of half a lakh a year from the British Government in consideration of the cession in 1865 of some areas on the southern borders. This allowance was doubled by a new treaty concluded in January 1910, by which the Bhutanese Government bound itself to be guided by the advice of the British Government in regard

to its external relations, while the British Government undertook to exercise no interference in the internal administration of Bhutan. On the occasion of the Tibet Mission of 1904, the Bhotias gave strong proof of their friendly attitude. Not only did they consent to the survey of a road through their country to Chumbi, but their ruler, the Tongsa Penlop, accompanied the British troops to Lhasa, and assisted in the negotiations with the Tibetan authorities. For these services he was made a K.C.I.D., and he has since entertained the British Agent hospitably at his capital. The ruler is now known as His Highness the Maharaja of Bhutan, Sir Ugyen Wangchuk, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.D. At the head of the Bhutan Government, there are nominally two supreme authorities, the Dharma Raja, known as Shabdring Remyoche, the spiritual head; and the Deb or Depa Raja, the temporal ruler. The Dharma Raja is regarded as a very high incarnation of Buddha, far higher than the ordinary incarnations in Tibet of which there are several hundreds. On the death of Dharma Raja a year or two is allowed to elapse, and his reincarnation then takes place, always in the Choje, or royal family of Bhutan.

Cultivation is backward and the chief crop is maize. The military force consists of local levies under the control of the district chiefs. They are of no military value.

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER STATES.

The Indian States of the North-West Frontier Provinces are Amb, Dir, Swat and Chitral. The area of the latter three is 3,000, 1,800 and 4,000 square miles and population 250,000, 216,000 and 99,000 respectively.

Amb—Is only a village on the western bank of the Indus in Independent Tanawala.

Chitral—Runs from Lowara to the south of the Hind-Kush range in the north, and has an area of about 4,000 square miles. The ruling dynasty has maintained itself for more than three hundred years, during the greater part of which the State has constantly been at war with its neighbours. It was visited in 1885 by the Lockhart Mission, and in 1889, on the establishment of a political agency in Gilgit, the ruler of Chitral received an annual subsidy from the British Government. That subsidy was increased two years later on condition that the ruler, Amen-ul-Mulk, accepted the advice of the British Government in all matters connected with foreign policy and frontier defence. His sudden death in 1892 was followed by a dispute as to the succession. The eldest son Nizam-ul-Mulk was recognised by Government, but he was murdered in 1895. A war was declared by Umrah Khan of Jandul and Dir against the infidels and the Agent at Gilgit, who had been sent to Chitral to report on the situation, was besieged with his escort and a force had to be despatched (April 1895) to their relief.

The valleys of which the State consist are extremely fertile and continuously cultivated. The internal administration of the country is conducted by His Highness Sir Shuja-ul-mulk, K O I E., the Mehtar of Chitral and the foreign policy is regulated by the Political Agent at Malakand.

Dir—The territories of this State, about 3,000 square miles in area, include the country drained by the Panjkora and its affluents down to the junction of the former river with the Bajaur Kud. The Nawab of Dir is the overlord of the country, exacting allegiance from the petty chiefs of the clans. Dir is mainly held by Yusufzai Pathans, the old non-Pathan inhabitants being now confined to the upper portion of the Panjkora Valley known as the Dir Kohistan. A motor road has been constructed to Dir from Malakand.

Swat—The Ruler of the State, Mangul Gulshahzada, Sir Abdul Wadood, K B I., is a descendant of the famous Akhund Salub of Swat. He consolidated his rule in Swat from 1917 to 1922, and was recognized by the Government of India as Wali of Swat in 1926. The area of the State is 1,800 square miles and population 216,000. The Headquarters of the State is at Saidu Sharif about 40 miles from Malakand and connected with Malakand by motor road.

Political Agent for Dir, Swat and Chitral—L. W. H. D. Best, O B E., M O., I C S.

STATES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Madras Presidency includes 5 Indian States covering an area of 10,644 square miles. Of these, the States of Travancore and Cochin represent ancient Hindu dynasties. Pudukottai is the inheritance of the chieftain called the Tondiman, Banganapalle and Sandur two petty States, of which the first is ruled by a Nawab, lie in the centre of two British districts.

Name.	Area sq miles	Popula- tion.	Estimated Gross Revenue in lakhs of rupees
Travancore .	7,625	5,095,973	232.92
Cochin .	1,417	1,205,016	92.08
Pudukottai .	1,179	400,694	53.32
Banganapalle .	256	39,218	3.77
Sandur .	167	13,583	1.55

These States were brought into direct relation with the Government of India on October 1st, 1923.

Travancore—This State, which has an area of 7,624.84 square miles and a population of 5,095,973 with a revenue of Rs 232.93 lakhs

occupies the south-west portion of the Indian Peninsula, forming an irregular triangle with its apex at Cape Comorin. The early history of Travancore is in great part traditional, but there is little doubt that H. H. the Maharaja is the representative of the Chera dynasty, one of the three great Hindu dynasties which exercised sovereignty at one time in Southern India. The petty chiefs, who had subsequently set up as independent rulers within the State, were all subdued, and the whole country, included within its present boundaries, was consolidated and brought under one rule, by Maharaja Marthanda Varma (1729-58). The English first settled at Anjengo, a few miles to the north of Trivandrum, and built a factory there in 1684. In the wars in which the East India Company were engaged in Madras and Trincavelly, in the middle of the 18th century, the Travancore State gave assistance to the British authorities. Travancore was reckoned as one of the staunchest allies of the British Power and was accordingly included in the Treaty made in 1784 between the East India Company and the Sultan of Mysore. To protect the State from possible inroads by Tipu, an arrangement was come to in 1788 with the East India Company, and in 1795 a formal treaty was concluded, by which the Company agreed to protect Travancore from all foreign enemies. In 1805 the annual subsidy to be paid by Travancore was fixed at 8 lakhs of rupees.

H H the Maharaja (b 7th November 1912) ascended the masnad on the 1st September 1924. During the minority the State was ruled by Her Highness Maharani Setu Lakshmi Bai, C I, aunt of the Maharaja, as Regent on his behalf. His Highness was invested with ruling powers on the 6th November 1931. The work of legislation was entrusted to a Legislative Council established as early as 1888. The Legislature was last re-constituted in January 1933 when a bicameral body was instituted. The new Chambers, viz., the Sri Mulam Assembly and the Sri Chitra State Council have a predominant elected non-official majority. Both Chambers possess the right to vote on the annual Budget to move resolutions and ask questions. Both Chambers have also the right to initiate legislation. The elections to the Assembly are based on a wide franchise. Differences of opinion between the two Chambers will be settled by a Joint Committee consisting of an equal number of members selected by each Chamber. Women are placed on a footing of complete equality with men in the matter both of franchise and membership in the Legislature.

Local Self-Government on a small scale exists in the more important towns. The State supports a military force of 1,471 men. Education has advanced considerably in recent years and the State takes a leading place in that respect. In the matter of female education the State has a leading place among Indian States and the British Indian Provinces. The principal food-grain grown is rice, but the main source of agricultural wealth is the coconut. Other crops are pepper, areca-nut, jack-fruit, sugar-cane and tapioca. Rubber and tea are among other important products. Cotton weaving and the making of matting from the coir are among the chief industries. The State is well provided with roads, and with a natural system of back-waters, besides canals and rivers navigable for country crafts. One line of railway about one hundred miles in length cuts across the State from east to west and then runs along the Coast to the Capital. More Railway lines are in contemplation. The capital is Trivandrum.

Agent to the Governor-General—Lieut.-Col D M Field

Dewan—Sir Muhammad Habibullah, F C S I, K C I E, LL D.

Cochin.—This State on the south-west coast of India is bounded by the Malabar District of the Madras Presidency and the State of Travancore. Very little is known of its early history. According to tradition, the Rajas of Cochin hold the territory in right of descent from Cheraman Perumal, who governed the whole country of Kerala, including Travancore and Malabar, as Viceroy of the Chola Kings about the beginning of the ninth century, and afterwards established himself as an independent Ruler. In 1502, the Portuguese were allowed to settle in what is now British Cochin and in the following year they built a fort and established commercial relations in the State. In the earlier wars with the Zamorin of Calicut, they assisted the Rajas of Cochin. The influence of the Portuguese on the west coast began to decline about the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in 1663 they were ousted from the town of Cochin by the Dutch with whom the Raja

entered into friendly relations. About a century later, in 1759, when the Dutch power began to decline, the Raja was attacked by the Zamorin of Calicut, who was expelled with the assistance of the Raja of Travancore. In 1776, the State was conquered by Hyder Ali, to whom it remained tributary and subordinate, and subsequently to his son, Tippu Sultan. A treaty was concluded in 1791 between the Raja and the East India Company, by which His Highness agreed to become tributary to the British Government for his territories which were then in the possession of Tippu, and to pay a subsidy.

His Highness Sri Sir Rama Varma, G C I I, who ascended the throne in January 1915 having demised on 25th March 1932, His Highness Sri Rama Varma who was born on 30th December 1861 succeeded to the throne and was duly installed as Maharaja on 1st June 1932. The administration is conducted under the control of the Maharaja whose chief Minister and Executive officer is the Dewan, C G Herbert, Esq., F C S. The forests of Cochin form one of its most valuable assets. They abound in teak ebony, blackwood, and other valuable trees. Rice forms the staple of cultivation. Coconuts are largely raised in the sandy tracts and their products form the chief exports of the State. Communications by road and backwaters are good, and the State owns a line of railway from Shoranore to Trankulam, the capital of the State, and a Forest Stream Tramway used in developing the forests. The State supports a force of 111 officers and 552 men.

Agent to the Governor-General—Lieut.-Col D M Field

Pudukkottai.—This State is bounded on the north and west by Trichinopoly, on the south by Ramnad and on the east by Tanjore. In early times a part of the State belonged to the Chola Kings and the southern part to the Pandya Kings of Madura. Relations with the English began during the Carnatic wars. During the siege of Trichinopoly by the French in 1752, the Tondiman of the time did good service to the Company's cause by sending them provisions, although his own country was on at least one occasion ravaged as a consequence of his fidelity to the English. In 1756 he sent some of his troops to assist Muhammad Yusuf, the Company's sepoy commandant, in settling the Madura and Tinnevely countries. Subsequently he was of much service in the wars with Hyder Ali. His services were rewarded by a grant of territory subject to the conditions that the district should not be alienated (1806). Apart from that there is no treaty or arrangement with the Raja. His Highness Sri Brihaddamba Das Raja Rajagopalai Tondiman Bahadur, the present ruler, is a minor. He was installed as Raja on 19-11-28. The administration of the State is carried on by an Administrator. The various departments are constituted on the British India model. The principal food crop is rice. The forests which cover about one-seventh of the State contain only small timber. There are no large cities. The State is well provided with roads. Pudukkottai is the only municipal town in the State.

Agent to the Governor-General—Lieut.-Col D M Field

Banganapalle.—This is a small State in two detached portions which in the eighteenth century passed from Hyderabad to Mysore and back again to Hyderabad. The control over it was ceded to the Madras Government by the Nizam in 1800. The present ruler is Nawab Meer Fazole Ali Khan Bahadur. The chief food-grain is cholam. The Nawab pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The revenue of the State is over 9 lakhs. The Nawab enjoys a salute of 2 guns.

Agent to the Governor-General—Lt.-Col. D. M. Field.

Sandur.—The State is almost surrounded by the District of Bellary. The State is under the political control of the Agent to the Governor General, Madras States. After the destruction of the Empire of Vijayanagar in 1565 the State came to be held by semi-independent chiefs under the nominal sovereignty of the Sultan of Bijapur and in 1728 one of these chiefs, a Pohgar of Bedar tribe, was turned out by an ancestor of the present Raja named Siddon Rao of the Bhosle family or the famous Mahratta Chief Sivaji, they were Senapathies of Sivaji. In Sivaji Rao's time the State came under the Mad-

ras Government and his heirs in perpetuity with full powers. In 1876 the title of Raja was conferred on the Chief as a hereditary distinction. The present ruler is Raja Shrinant Yeshwantrao Hindurao Ghorpde who was invested with full ruling powers in February 1930.

The Raja pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The most important staple crop is cholam. Teak and sandalwood are found in small quantities in the forests.

The minerals of the State possess unusual interest. The hematites found in it are probably the richest ore in India. An outcrop near the southern boundary forms the crest of a ridge 150 feet in height, which apparently consists entirely of pure steel grey crystalline hematite (specular iron) of intense hardness. Some of the softer ores used to be smelted, but the industry has been killed by the cheaper English iron. Manganese deposits have also been found in three places, and during 1911 to 1914 over 223,000 tons of manganese ore were transported by one company.

Agent to the Governor-General—Lt.-Col. D. M. Field.

STATES OF WESTERN INDIA

Owing to the large number of States concerned and the interlacing of their territories with neighbouring British districts, the transfer of States under the Bombay Government to direct political relations with the Government of India (which was advocated in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report on the Constitutional Reforms) had been delayed. The first stage of that process, however, was carried out in October, 1924, when a new Residency was created in direct relation with the Government of India comprising the whole of the compact area making up the Kathiwar, Cutch and Palanpur Agencies under the Government of Bombay.

The remaining States in the Bombay Presidency which continued to remain in political relations with the Government of Bombay were transferred to the direct control of the Government of India with effect from the 1st April 1933. The transfer necessitated regrouping not only of the remaining Bombay States but also of some of the States comprised in the Western India States Agency. All the States and Estates hitherto included in the Jhaji Kantha Agency except the Danta State are now in the Western India States Agency. These and the States and Estates comprised in the Banas Kantha Agency except the Palanpur State under the Western India States Agency now form a combined Agency which is designated "Sabar Kantha Agency". The Danta State has been transferred to the Rajputana Agency, so also the Palanpur State which was in the Western India States Agency has been transferred to the Rajputana Agency.

Resident of the First Class and Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India—

The Honourable Mr. C. Latimer, C.S.I. C.I.E., I.C.S.

Judicial Commissioner in the States of Western India—D. R. Norman, I.C.S.

Kathiwar.—Kathiwar is the peninsula lying immediately to the north of Gujarat in the Bombay Presidency. Its extreme length is about 220 miles and its greatest breadth about 165 miles, the area being 23,445 square miles. There are nearly 200 separate States in Kathiwar, which for purposes of administrative convenience is sub-divided into subordinate Agencies known as the Western and Eastern Kathiwar Agencies. The Western Kathiwar Agency comprises the Halar and Sorath Prants, while the Eastern Kathiwar Agency comprises the Prants of Jhalawad and Gohelwad but in whichever of these two Agencies States with Salutes of guns are situated, they are in direct political relations with the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General. The history of the British connection with Kathiwar commences from Colonel Walker's settlement of 1807. In 1863, the States in Kathiwar were classified into 7 classes, and although classes have since been abolished, the various jurisdictions still remained graded, as fixed in 1863.

Cutch.—Before the creation in October 1924, of the Western India States Agency, the relations of the Cutch Durbar with the Bombay Government were conducted through a Political Agent in charge of the Cutch Agency, with Headquarters at Bhuj. The Cutch Agency and the appointment of the Political Agent have since been abolished and the State of Cutch is in direct relations with the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India.

Sabar Kantha Agency.—As stated above, this is a new group comprising the States and Estates in the old Banas Kantha Agency and States and Estates in the old Jhaji Kantha

Agency except the Danta State. Before the year 1925, the Banas Kantha Agency was known as the Palanpur Agency when it also comprised the First Class States of Palanpur and Radhanpur. Of these two States, Palanpur is now in direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana and Radhanpur, through the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India. The First Class State of Idar which was included in the old Mahi Kantha Agency is also in direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India, so also the full powered State of Vyayanagar. The group comprising the remaining minor States, Estates and Talukas which were included in the old Banas Kantha Agency under the Western India States Agency and the old Mahi Kantha Agency under the Government of Bombay has been named the Sabar Kantha Agency and is in charge of a Political Agent who is subordinate to the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India.

Bhavnagar—This State lies at the head and west side of the Gulf of Cambay. The Gohel Rajputs, to which tribe the Ruler of Bhavnagar belongs, are said to have settled in the country about the year 1260, under Sajakji from whose three sons—Ranaji, Sarangji and Shahji—are descended respectively the rulers of Bhavnagar, Lathi and Palitana. An intimate connexion was formed between the Bombay Government and Bhavnagar in the eighteenth century when the ruler of that State took pains to destroy the pirates which infested the neighbouring seas. The State was split up when Gujarat and Kathiawar were divided between the Peshwa and the Gaekwar, but the various claims over Bhavnagar were consolidated in the hands of the British Government in 1807. The State pays an annual tribute of Rs 1,28,000 to the British Government, Rs 3,581-8-0 as Peshkashi to Baroda, and Rs 22,858 as Zoratali to Junagadh. His Highness Maharaja Krishna Kumar-sinhji succeeded to the *gadi* on the death of his father, Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji, KCSI on 17th July 1919, and was invested with full powers on 18th April 1931. The State Council consists of Sir Prabhashankar D Pattani, KCSI, as President. The other members of the Council are Dewan Bahadur T K Trivedi and Khan Bahadur S A Goghawala, MA, LLB, Bar-at-Law. One noteworthy feature in the administration is the complete separation of judicial from executive functions and the decentralisation of authority is another. The authority and powers of all the Heads of Departments have been clearly defined, and each within his own sphere is independent of the others being directly responsible to the Council.

The chief products of the State are grain, cotton, sugar-cane and salt. The chief manufactures are oil, copper and brass vessels and cloth. The Bhavnagar State Railway is 307 miles in length. The capital of the State is the town and port of Bhavnagar, which has a good and safe harbour for shipping and carried on an extensive trade as one of the principal

markets and harbours of export for cotton in Kathiawar. Bhavnagar supports 270 State Lancers and 250 State Infantry.

Population (in 1931) was 500,274 of whom 86 per cent were Hindus and 8 per cent Mahomedans. The average income for the last five years was Rs 1,50,08,857, and the average expenditure Rs 1,20,20,099.

Dhrangadhra State is a State of the First Class in Kathiawar with a population of nearly one lakh and an area of 1,167 square miles exclusive of the Dhrangadhra portion of the Bunn of Cutch. The ruler of Dhrangadhra is the head of the Jhala family of Rajputs, originally called the Makranas. This Rajput clan is of great antiquity having migrated to Kathiawar from the North, establishing itself first at Patli in the Ahmedabad District, thence moving to Halvad and finally settling in its present seat. Being the guardians of the North-Eastern marches of Kathiawar they had to suffer repeatedly from the successive inroads of the Mahomedans into that Peninsula, but after suffering the various vicissitudes of war they were confirmed in their possession of Halvad, its surrounding territories and the salt-pans attached thereto by an Imperial Ferman issued by Emperor Aurangzeb. The States of Wankaner, Limbdi, Wadhwan, Chuda, Sayla and Than-Lakhtar are offshoots from Dhrangadhra. His Highness Maharaja Maharana Shri Sir Ghanshyamsinhji, GCSI, KCSI, Maharaja Raj Saheb, is the ruler of the State and the titular head of all the Jhalas. The administration is conducted under the Maharaja's directions by a Council of four members, Imperial, Political, Revenue and Military. The soil being eminently fit for cotton cultivation, the principal crops are long stapled cotton and cereals of various kinds. Excellent building and ornamental stone is quarried from the hills situated within the State. Wadagari Salt of an excellent quality with Magnesium Chloride and other by-products of salt are also manufactured in the State Salt Works at Kudra which offer practically inexhaustible supplies for their manufacture. To utilize these valuable resources, the State has recently built and put into operation a huge factory in Dhrangadhra, known as the Shri Shakti Alkali Works, for the manufacture on a large scale of Soda Ash, Caustic Soda and Soda Bicarb as by-products of salt, and these have found a ready market all over India. The capital town is Dhrangadhra, a fortified town, 75 miles west of Ahmedabad.

Dhrangadhra State owns the Railway from Wadhwan Junction to Halvad, a distance of 40 miles, which is worked by the B & C I Railway. An extension of this line to Mahva is under contemplation. A railway siding has been laid from Dhrangadhra to Kudra—a distance of 11 miles—to facilitate the salt traffic.

Gondal State—The Ruling Prince of Gondal is a Rajput of the Jadeja stock with the title of H H. Maharaja Thakore Sahib, the present Ruler being H H. Shri Bhagwat Singh, GCSI. The early founder of the State, Kunbhoy I, had a modest estate of 20 villages. Kunbhoy II, the most powerful Chief of the House, widened the territories to almost their present limits by conquering the area left to the present ruler to develop

its resources to the utmost, and in the words of Lord Reay, Governor of Bombay, by its "importance and advanced administration to get it recognised as a First Class State. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,10,721. The chief products are cotton, groundnuts and grain and the chief manufactures are cotton and woollen fabrics and gold embroidery. Gondal has always been pre-eminent amongst the States of its class for the vigour with which public works have been prosecuted, and was one of the earliest pioneers of railway enterprise in Kathiawar, having initiated the Dhasa-Dhoraji line. It owns the Dhasa-Jam Jodhpur section called the Gondal Railway and manages it along with the Jetalpur-Rajkot Railway, it subsequently built the Jetalpur-Rajkot Railway in partnership with other Native States in Kathiawar. There are no export and import dues, the people being free from taxes and dues. Comparatively speaking Gondal stands first in Kathiawar in respect of the spread of education. Compulsory female education in the State has been ordered by His Highness. Rs. 25 lakhs have been spent on irrigation tanks and canals, water supply and electricity to the town of Gondal. The capital is Gondal, a fortified town on the line between Rajkot and Jetalpur.

Junagadh State—A first class State under the Western India States Agency and lies in the South-Western portion of the Kathiawar Peninsula between 24°-44' and 21°-53' North latitude, 80° and 72° East longitude with the Halar division of the province as its northern boundary and Gohilwad Prant to its east. It is bounded on the south and west by the Arabian Sea. The State is divided into 12 Mahals. It has 16 ports of which the principal are Veraval and Mangrol. The principal rivers in the State are the Bhadar, Uben, Ozat, Hiran, Saraswati, Machhandri, Singoda, Meghal, Vrajmi, Raval and Sabhil. The principal town of Junagadh, which is one of the most picturesque towns in India, is situated on the slope of the Girnar and the Datar Hills, while in antiquity and historical interest it yields to none. The Upperkote or old citadel contains interesting Buddhist caves and the whole of the ditch and neighbourhood is honey-combed with caves of their remains. There are a number of fine modern buildings in the town. The famous Asoka inscription of the Buddhist time carved out on a big bolster of black granite stone is housed at the foot of the Girnar Hill, which is sacred to the Jains, the Shivrates, the Vaishnavites and other Hindus. To the south-east of the Girnar Hill lies the extensive forest of the Gir comprising 494 square miles, 823 acres and 10 gunthas. It supplies timber and other natural products to the residents of the State and the neighbouring districts and is unique as the sole stronghold of the Indian lion. The area of the State is 3,337 square miles and the average revenue amounts to about Rs. 84,00,000. The total population according to the census of 1931 is 545,152. Until 1472 when it was conquered by Sultan Mahomed Begra of Ahmedabad Junagadh was a Rajput State ruled by Chiefs of the Chuda Sama tribe. During the reign of the Emperor Akbar it became a dependency of Delhi under the immediate authority of the Moghal Viceroy of Gujarat. 'About

1785 when the representatives of the Moghals had lost his authority in Gujarat, Sherkhan Babi, the ancestor of the present Babi Ruler, expelled the Moghal Governor, and established his own rule. The ruler of Junagadh first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The principal articles of production in the State are cotton, bajri, jawar, sesamum, wheat, rice, sugarcane, cereals, grass, timber, stone, castor-seed, fish, country tobacco, groundnuts, coconuts, bamboos, etc., while those of manufacture are ghee, molasses, sugar candy, copper, and brassware, dyed cloth, gold and silver embroidery, pottery, hardware, leather, bamboo furniture, etc. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 28,304 annually to the Paramount Power and Peshkashi of Rs. 37,210 to His Highness the Gaekwar. On the other hand, the State of Junagadh receives a tribute styled Zortali amounting to Rs. 92,421 from not less than 134 States and Talukas, a relic of the day of Mahomedan supremacy. The State maintains State forces consisting of Janceers and the Mahabadi Khani Infantry, the sanctioned strength of the former being 173 and of the latter 210 inclusive of Bag-pipe Band.

The Ruler bears the title of Nawab. The present Nawab is His Highness Sir Mahabat Khan III, G C I E, K C S I, and is the ninth in succession and seventh in descent from His Highness Bahadurkhanji I, the founder of the Babi Family of Junagadh in 1735 A D. His Highness the Nawab Sahib was born on 2nd August 1900 and succeeded to the *gadi* in 1911, visited England in 1913-14 received his education at the Mayo College, Ajmer, and has been invested with full powers since March 1920. His Highness the Nawab Sahib is the Ruler of the Premier State in Kathiawar, ranks first amongst the Chiefs of Kathiawar, exercising plenary power and enjoys a salute of 15 guns personal, 11 permanent and 15 local within the territorial limits of the Junagadh State. Language spoken—Gujarati and Urdu.

Ruler—His Highness Sir Mahabat Khanji, G C I E, K C S I

Heir-Apparent—Shahzada Mahomed Dilawarkhanji, 2nd Shahzada Mahomed Himatkhanji, 3rd Shahzada Mahomed Sadavat Khanji, 4th Shahzada Mahomed Gulam Mahomed Khanji

President of the Council—J Montenth

Navanagar State, on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch, has an area of 3,791 square miles. The Maharaja of Navanagar is a Jadeja Rajput by caste, and belongs to the same family as the Rao of Cutch. The Jadejas originally entered Kathiawar from Cutch, and dispossessed the ancient family of Jethwas then established at Ghnmli. The town of Jamnagar was founded in 1540. The present Jam Sahib is Captain His Highness Maharaja Jam Shri Digvijaysinhji who succeeded in April 1933. The principal products are gram, cotton and oil-seeds, shipped from the ports of the State. A small pearl fishery lies off the coast. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,20,093 per annum jointly to the British Government, the Gaekwar of Baroda and Zortali to the Nawab of Junagadh. The State maintains two squadrons of Navanagar State Lancers and 1½ company

of the State Infantry The capital is Jamnagar, a flourishing place, nearly 4 miles in circuit, situated 5 miles east of the port of Bedi
Population 4,09,192 Revenue nearly Rs 94 lakhs

Deewan—Khan Bahadur Merwanji P. tonji, B A, L L B

Revenue Secretary—Gokulbhai B Desai, Bar-at-Law

Military Secretary and Home Member—Lt-Col R K Himmatsinhji

Cutch—The State is bounded on the north and north-west by Sind, on the east by the Palanpur Agency, on the south by the Peninsula of Kathiawar and the Gulf of Cutch and the south-west by the Indian Ocean Its area, exclusive of the great salt marsh called the Rann of Cutch, is 8,249 square miles The capital is Bhuj, where the ruling Chief (the Maharaja) His Highness Maha Rao Sri Khengarji Savai Bahadur, GCSI, GOIE, resides From its isolated position, the special characteristic of its people their peculiar dialect, and their strong feeling of personal loyalty to their ruler, the peninsula of Cutch has more of the elements of a distinct nationality than any other of the dependencies of Bombay The earliest historic notices of the State occur in the Greek writers Its modern history dates from its conquest by the Sind tribe of Samma Rajputs in the fourteenth century The section of the Sammas forming the ruling family in Cutch were known as the Jadejas or 'children of Jade'. The British made a treaty with the State in 1815 There is a fair proportion of good arable soil in Cutch, and wheat, barley and cotton are cultivated Both iron and coal are found but are not worked Cutch is noted for its beautiful embroidery and silverwork and its manufactures of silk and cotton are of some importance Trade is chiefly carried by sea. The ruling chief is the supreme authority A few of the Bhayats are vested with jurisdictional powers in varying degrees in their own estates and over their own vots A notable fact in connection with the administration of the Cutch State is the number and position of the Bhayat These are Rajput tribes forming the brotherhood of the Rao They were granted a share in the territories of the ruling chief as provision for their maintenance and are bound to furnish troops on an emergency The number of these chiefs is 137, and the total number of the Jadeja tribe in Cutch is about 16,000 The British military force having been withdrawn from Bhuj, the State now pays Rs 82,257 annually as an indemnity equivalent to the British Government the military force consists of about 1,000 in addition to which, there are some regular infantry, and the Bhayats could furnish on requisition a mixed force of four thousand The State is in direct political relations with the Government of India through the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India since October 1921

Porbandar—The Porbandar State on the Western Coast of the province of Kathiawar comprises an area of 642½ square miles and has a population of 1,15,741 souls

according to the Census of 1931 The capital of the State is Porbandar, a flourishing port having trade connections with Java, Burma, Persian Gulf, Africa and the important Continental Ports The State has its own Railway. The well-known Porbandar stone is quarried in the Barda Hills near Adityana and is largely exported to important places in as well as outside India Porbandar Ghee (butter) has also a reputation of its own and is largely exported to Africa The Indian Cement Factory of Messrs Tata & Sons was established at Porbandar in 1912 It manufactures Gramapli Brand Portland cement which has stood keen competition Among more recent industries may be mentioned the establishment of the Nadar Salt Works and Distemper and Paints manufacture The State maintains a Military Force

His Highness Maharaja Rana Sahel Shri Sri Natwarsinhji Bahadur, KCSI, is the present Ruler of the State Born on the 30th June 1901, His Highness the Maharaja was educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, where he distinguished himself both in studies and sports His Highness ascended the gadi on the 26th January 1920 and was married next month to Kunvari Shri Rupaliba Sahab, MRF, of Lambdi His Highness belongs to the ancient Rajput clan of the Jethwas, the earliest settlers in Western India and enjoys a salute of 13 guns. His Highness led the All-India Cricket Team to England in 1932. The Porbandar State ranks fourth among the States of Western India

Radhanpur is a first class State, with an area of 1,150 square miles, which is held by a branch of the illustrious Babi family, who since the reign of Humayun have always been prominent in the annals of Gujarat The present Ruler is His Highness Nawab Jalal ud-Dakhani Bismillahkhanji Babi, Nawab Sahab of Radhanpur The State maintains a Police force of 200 The principal products are cotton, wheat and grain The capital is Radhanpur town, a considerable trade centre for Northern Gujarat and Cutch Sauri has a cotton press and 3 ginning factories There is one ginning factory at Munjpur, one at Lolada and one at Sanekeshwar which is a great centre of Jain pilgrimage all the year round Gotark, Dev and Trakod Loti are also the principal places of pilgrimage for Mohammedans, Vaisnavas and Brahmans, respectively

There are several ancient monuments in the State, viz Fatehpote at Radhanpur, Jhalore's Teba at Subapur, Loteswara Mahadev at Loti, Sankheshwara temple at Sankheshwara, Waghel tank at Waghel, Varanath place at Waghel, Lateshwar Mahadev at Lateshpur, Rajapur, Bhotevari Old Masjid at Munjpur, Place of Achan at Gotark, Mahabab Pir's Dargah at Gotark and Nulhanthi Mahadev at Kunwar

There is also an Anath Ashram for the poor known as "The Hussaini Bhai" Teba Mohabat Vilas "

His Highness the Nawab Sahab Bahadur has established a Bank named "Vadhis Bank" to lend money to cultivators and all other terms, and thus save them from the clutches of the money lenders

Idar—Idar is a First Class State with an area of 1,669 square miles and an average revenue of about 20 lakhs. The present Ruler of Idar H. H. Maharaja Himatsinghji is a Rajput of the Rathod clan. He was born in 1899 A.D. and ascended the gadi in 1931 on the demise of His late Highness Maharaja Sir Dowlatsinghji. His Highness accompanied His late Highness Lt.-Col. Sir Dowlatsinghji to Europe when the latter went to attend the Coronation of His Majesty the King-Emperor in London and acted as Page to his Imperial Majesty at the Coronation Durbâr held at Delhi in 1911. The subordinate Feudatory Jagirdars are divided into three classes. The Jagirdars comprised in the class of Bhayats are cadets of the Ruling House to whom grants have been made in maintenance or as a Jiwarak. Those known as Sardar Pattavats are descendants of the military leaders who accompanied Anandsinh and Rai Singh, the founder of the present Marwar dynasty when they took possession of the State in the first quarter of the eighteenth century and to whom grants of land were made by Maharaja Anandsinh in 1741 A.D. on condition of military service. In the case of

the Bhoomas are included all subordinate Feudatories who were in possession of their Pattas prior to the advent of the present Marwar dynasty. The pattas they hold were acquired by their ancestors by grant from the former Rao Rulers of the State. The Maharaja receives Rs 52,427 annually on account of Khichdi and other Raj Haks from his subordinate Sardars the tributary talukas of the Mahi Kantha Agency and others and pays Rs 30,340 as Ghasdana to Gaekwar of Baroda through the British Government.

Vijaynagar.—The State has an area of 135 square miles with a population of 5,858 and an annual revenue of about Rs 57,630. The Ruler is Rathod Rajput. His ancestors were the Rulers of Idar but on being driven from that place established their rule in Polo. The present Chief is Rao Shri Hamirsinghji Hindusinhji. He was born on 3rd January 1904 and succeeded to the gadi in 1916. The Ruler has no salute but on account of the historic importance of the family he enjoyed rank above the Ruler of the salute State of Danta in the old Mahi Kantha Agency.

GUJARAT STATES AGENCY AND BARODA RESIDENCY.

Consequent upon the establishment of direct relations between the Government of India and the Bombay States since April 1933 many States and States which were previously included in the various Political Agencies of the Bombay Government have now been included in a newly formed Political Agency of the Government of India designated the Gujarat States Agency. The change in this new Agency has been added to the charge of the Resident at Baroda, who is now known as the A.G.G. for the Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda. The Political Agency thus amalgamated were the Rewa Kantha Agency, the Kaira Agency, the Surat Agency, the Nasik Agency and the Thana Agency.

The following are the full-powered salute States now in direct political relations with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor-General for the Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda:—

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|
| (1) Balasinor | (Old Rewa Kantha Agency) |
| (2) Jamnoli | (Old Surat Agency) |
| (3) Pardi | (Old Rewa Kantha Agency) |
| (4) Barodi | |
| (5) Cambay | (Old Kaira Agency) |
| (6) Chhoti Udaipur | (Old Rewa Kantha Agency) |
| (7) Dahanu | (Old Surat Agency) |
| (8) Dahanu | (Old Thana Agency) |
| (9) Dahanu | (Old Rewa Kantha Agency) |
| (10) Rajput | (Old Rewa Kantha Agency) |
| (11) Sidi | (Old Surat Agency) |
| (12) Sidi | (Old Rewa Kantha Agency) |

The Headquarters of the Agency are at Baroda and consist of—

Agent to the Governor-General, Gujarat States, and Resident at Baroda—Lieutenant-Colonel J. T. R. Wen, C.I.E.

Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General, Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda—Capt G. A. Fakomer.

Indian Assistant to the Agent to the Governor-General Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda—Mr A. W. De Cruz.

Balasinor.—This State has an area of 180 square miles, a population of 52,525, and an annual revenue of about Rs 21 lakhs. The Ruling Prince belongs to the Babi family. The State pays a tribute of Rs 9,766-0-8 to the British Government and Rs 3,077-11-1 to the Baroda Government. The name of the present Ruler is Bala Shri Jamsatkhani Manvar-khani, Nawab of Balasinor. He was born on the 10th November 1894 and succeeded to the gadi in 1899. The Ruler of the State received in 1890 a Sanad guaranteeing succession according to Muhammadan Law in the event of failure of direct heirs. The Nawab is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Bansda.—This State has an area of 215 square miles, a population of 48,807 and an annual revenue of about Rs 7½ lakhs. The Ruler of Bansda are Solanki Rajputs of the Lunar Race and descendants of the Great Sidhrji Jaysing. The present Ruler Mahavajal Shri Indrasinhji was born on 16th February 1888, and succeeded to the gadi in September 1911. The Ruler of the State has received a Sanad guaranteeing succession to an adopted heir in the event of failure of direct heirs. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Baria.—This State has an area of 813 square miles with a population of 159,429 and is situated in the heart of the Panchmahals District. The capital Devgad Baria is reached by the Baria State Railway from Piprod Station on the B B & C I Railway at a distance of 10 miles. The average revenue of the State is about 12 lakhs. The Ruler, Major His Highness Maharaj Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji, K C S I, is the direct descendant of the Great House of Khichi Chowhan Rajputs who ruled over Gujarat for 244 years with their capital at Champaner, enjoying the proud title of Pavapatis. The State pays no tribute either to the British Government or to any other Indian State. His Highness served in France and Flanders in the Great European War and in the Afghan War, 1919. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and a personal salute of eleven guns.

Cambay.—This State has an area of 350 square miles, a population of 87,761 and an annual revenue of about Rs 10½ lakhs. The founder of the Ruling family was Mirza Jafar Najamud-Daulah Nominkhan I, the last but one of the Muhammadan Governors of Gujarat. The present Ruler is His Highness Mirza Hussain Yavar Khan Sahib. He was born on the 10th May 1911, succeeded to the gadi on the 21st January 1915 and was invested with ruling powers on the 13th December 1930. His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 11 guns.

Chhota Udepur.—This State has an area of 890 square miles, a population of 1,44,640 and an annual revenue of about Rs 14½ lakhs. The Ruling family belongs to the Khichi Chavan Rajput clan and claims descent from the last Patal Raja of Pavagadh or Champaner, the State being founded shortly after the fall of that fortress in 1484. The name of the present Ruler is Maharaj Shri Natwarsinhji. He was born on the 16th November 1906 and succeeded to the gadi on the 29th August 1923 on the death of his father. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Dharampur.—This State has an area of 704 square miles, a population of 1,12,051 and an annual revenue of about Rs 12 lakhs. The Rulers of Dharampur trace their descent from Ramchandrayji of Hindu Mythology. They belong to the Solar Sisodia Rajputs dynasty. The present Raja, His Highness Maharaj Shri Vijaydevji Mohandevji, was born on the 3rd December 1884 and succeeded to the gadi on the 26th March 1921. His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and a personal salute of 11 guns.

Jawhar.—This State is situated to the North of the Thana District of the Bombay Presidency on a plateau above the Konkan plain. It has an area of 310 square miles, a population of 57,288 and an average annual revenue of about Rs 5½ lakhs. Up to the period of the first Mahomedan invasion of the Deccan, Jawhar was held by a Varli, not a Koli Chief. The first Koli Chief obtained his footing in Jawhar by a device similar to that of Dido when he asked for and received as much land

as the hide of a bull would cover. The Koli Chief cut a hide into strips, and thus enclosed the territory of the State. The present Chief, Raja Patangsha alias Yeshwantrao Vikramshi, is a minor and the State is at present under minority administration. The Raja is entitled to become a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Lunawada.—The State has an area of 388 square miles, a population of 95,162 and an annual revenue of about Rs 5½ lakhs. The Rulers of Lunawada belong to the historic Solanki clan of Rajputs claiming their descent from the famous Sidhraj Jaysinh of Anhilwad (Gujarat). Besides having fine patches of good agricultural land, the State contains a considerable forest area yielding rich timber. The present Raja, Maharaj Shri Virbhadrasinghji, was invested with full powers on 2nd October 1930. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Rajpipla.—This important State lies to the south of the Narbada. It has an area of 1,517½ square miles, a population of 206,114 and an average annual revenue of about Rs 24½ lakhs. The lands are rich and very fertile and, except for a few forest-clad hills, are suitable and available for cultivation in large quantities. In the south-east talukas the family of the Maharaja of Rajpipla, Major H H Maharaj Shri Sir Vijaysinhji, K C S I, is said to derive its origin from a Rajput of the Gohel clan. Cotton is the most important crop in the State. In the hills there are valuable teak forests. The capital is Rajpipla which is connected with Ankleshwar by railway built by the State. His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 13 guns.

Sachin.—This State has an area of 49 square miles, a population of 22,125 and an annual revenue of about Rs 4 lakhs. The ancestors of the Nawab of Sachin were the Rulers of Jaipur. The founder of the Sachin family was Abdul Karim Yakut Khan commonly called Jalu Mijan. In 1744 on the death of his father Abdul Karim, (Nawab of Janjira), the Chieftainship was seized by Sidi Jawhar and Jalu Mijan fled to Poona where he sought the protection of Nana Farnavis, who managed to secure for him a tract of land near Surat then estimated to yield Rs 75,000 a year. Jalu Mijan was granted the hereditary title of Nawab by the Emperor of Delhi. The present Ruler is Nawab Moamed Hyder Khan who was born on the 11th September 1909 and succeeded to the gadi in November 1930. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Sant.—This State has an area of 394 square miles, a population of 83,530 and an annual revenue of about Rs 5½ lakhs. The Puhar family belongs to the Mithavati branch of the Puhar or Pirmar Rajputs. The Rulers used to pay a tribute of 5,554-9-10 to the British Government. The present Ruler, Maharaj Shri Jorawarsinhji Pratapsinhji was born on the 24th March 1881 and succeeded to the gadi in 1920. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Rewa Kantha Agency—Including the Surgana State and the Dungs

This Agency is a subordinate Political Agency of the Gujarat States Agency. It is composed of all the non-salute States and parts of the Old Rewa Kantha Agency, the State of Surgana, previously in the Nishk Agency, and the petty states known as the Dungs, previously in the Surat Agency.

Rewa Kantha means the district or province situated on the bank of the river Rewa or Narmada or Nerbada. This river is held in high veneration among the Hindus especially in the Bombay Presidency.

All the States comprised in the Province of Rewa Kantha are not on the banks of Nerbada; for some of the Northern States, i.e., Kadams and the Satins in Pauran Mewas are on the banks of the Mithi river. In fact the Rewa Kantha Agency comprises territories watered both by the Rewa and Mithi Rivers.

The population consists of the following in classes: Hindus, Jains, Muslims, Ahimsites, Bhils, Dhankis, Kulis and Nalkdas.

Surgana—is situated on the borders of the Nerbada.

The Dungs consist of a tract of country between the Nerbada and the Surat District which is parcelled out among 11 petty Chiefs, of these Chaurpadi and Lakadmi.

The headquarters of the Agency, which is situated at the Baroda head, is in the fact that the Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General, Major J. S. S. and Resident at Pooné had a conference at Pooné of the Agency, on 1st of -

Political Agent—Captain G. A. Lathrop.

Deputy Political Agent—Mr. M. B. Mulla.

Assistant Political Agent for the Dungs—Mr. D. Simpson, B.A.

Many of the States and Chiefs are small and only a few enjoy restricted jurisdictional powers. The four Chiefs of Kadams, Bhilwara, Surgana and Lakadmi are however, larger and more important than the States named before, and in the list of representatives for representative members of the Chamber of Princes.

DECCAN STATES AGENCY AND KOLHAPUR RESIDENCY.

This Agency which was formed in consequence of the transfer of the Bombay States to the direct control of the Government of India includes the following States—

Kolhapur	Miraj (Senior)
Janjira	Miraj (Junior)
Savantvadi	Kurandwad (Senior)
Mudhol	Kurandwad (Junior)
Sangli	Ramdurg
Bhor	Aundh
Jamkhandi	Akalkot
Phaltan.	Savanur.
Jath	Wadi Estate.

The above States are in political relations with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor-General for the Deccan States and Resident at Kolhapur, whose headquarters are at Kolhapur.

Agent to the Governor-General for the Deccan States and Resident at Kolhapur—Lieutenant-Colonel J. C. Tate.

Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General—Major A. A. Russell, M.C.

Under-Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General (Ex officio)—Captain L. T. Wilcock.

Kolhapur—Kolhapur is a State with an area of 3,217 square miles and population of 9,57,137. Subordinate to Kolhapur are nine fiefdoms, of which the following four are important: Vishalganj, Bayda, Katal (senior), and Ishalkaranji. The ruling house traces its descent from a younger son of Shivaji, founder of the Maratha power. The prevalence of piracy from the Kolhapur port of Malvan compelled the Bombay Government to send expeditions against Kol-

hapur in 1707, and again in 1702, when the Raja agreed to give compensation for the losses which British merchants had sustained since 1785, and to permit the establishment of factories at Malvan and Kolhapur. Internal dissensions and wars with neighbouring States gradually weakened the power of Kolhapur. In 1812 a treaty was concluded with the British Government, by which, in return for the cession of certain ports, the Kolhapur Raja was guaranteed against the attacks of foreign powers; while on his part he engaged to abstain from hostilities with other States, and to refer all disputes to the arbitration of the British Government. The principal articles of production are rice, jowar, and sugar-cane and the manufactures are cotton and woollen cloth, pottery and hardware. The State pays no tribute, and supports a military force of 602. The nine fiefdoms, estates are administered by their holder, except in the case of two whose holders are minors. Kolhapur proper is divided into seven pethas or talukas and three mahals and is managed in the Maharaja, who has full powers of life and death. The Madras and Southern Mahrattah Railway passes through the State and is connected with Kolhapur City by a line which is the property of the State. The present Ruler is Lt-Col His Highness Maharaja Shri Sir Rajaram Shahu Chhatrapati, GCSI., G.C.I.F. He has a dynastic salute of 19 guns.

Janjira—This State is situated to the South of the Kolaba District of the Bombay Presidency. The ruling family is said to be descended from an Abyssinian in the service of one of the Nizams. Shahi Kings of Ahmednagar at the end of the fifteenth century. The most noticeable point in its history is the successful resistance that it alone, of all the States of Western India, made against the determined attacks of the

The Indian States—Deccan States.

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Marathas The British, on succeeding the Marathas as masters of the Konkan, refrained from interfering in the internal administration of the State. The chief is a Sunni Mahomedan by race a Sidi or Abyssinian, with a title of His Highness the Nawab. He has a sanad guaranteeing succession according to Mahomedan law and pays no tribute. Till 1868 the State enjoyed singular independence, there being no Political Agent, and no interference whatever in its internal affairs. About that year the maladministration of the chief, especially in matters of police and criminal justice, became flagrant, those branches of administration were in consequence taken out of his hands and vested temporarily in a Political Agent. The last ruler, H. H. Nawab Sidi Sir Ahmed Khan, G. O. I. E., died on 2nd May 1922, and was succeeded by his son His Highness Sidi Muhammad Khan, born on the 7th March 1914. The State was under a minority administration until 9th November 1923 when His Highness the Nawab was invested with ruling powers. The area of the State is 379 square miles, and the population including that derived from a small dependency named Jafferabad in the south of Kathiawar under the Western India States Agency of 243. The capital is Murud on the main land, the name of Janjira being retained by the island fort opposite. The Nawab is entitled to a dynastic salute of 11 guns. In recognition of services rendered in connection with the war the last ruler's salute was raised on the 1st January 1918 to 13 guns personal and 13 guns local on the 1st January 1921.

Sawantwadi—This State has an area of 930 square miles and population of 230,580. The average revenue is Rs 6,33,000. It lies to the north of the Portuguese territory of Goa, the general aspect of the country being extremely picturesque. Early inscriptions take the history of the State back to the sixth century. So late as the nineteenth century the country was very much disturbed and the present Ruler is Major His Highness Raja Badadur Shrimant Khem Sawant W. Sahab Bhonsle, Raja of Sawantwadi. He is invested with the powers of his State on 29th Oct. 1924. Rice is the principal crop of the State. It is rich in valuable teak. The sturdy Marathas of the State are favourite troops for the British Army and supply much of the immigrant labour in the adjacent British districts. The Capital is Sawantwadi, also called Sundar Wadi, or simply Wadi. Tho Raja enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and a permanent local salute of 11 guns.

Mudhol—The State has an area of 308 square miles, a population of 62,800 and an annual revenue of about Rs 5,61,000. The present Ruler is Lieutenant Raja Sir Malojirao Venktrao alias Nana Sahab Ghorpade, K. C. I. L. He was born in 1884 and succeeded to the gadi in 1900 when he was a minor. He was invested with Ruling powers in 1904. He enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and is a Member of the Chamber of Princes.

Sangli—The State has an area of 1,130 square miles, a population of 2,58,142 and an annual revenue of Rs 15,37,000. The founder of the family was Harbhut who rose to distinction during the rule of the Peshwas. The present Ruler Lieutenant (Honorary) His Highness Raja Sir Chintamanrao Dhundirao alias Appasaheb Patwardhan, K. C. I. L., was born on the 14th February 1890 and succeeded to the gadi in 1901 on the death of his adoptive father Dhundirao Chintamanrao Patwardhan. He was invested with ruling powers on 2nd June 1910 on attaining his majority. His Highness has been granted the hereditary title of Raja. He enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and a personal salute of 11 guns.

Bhor—The State lies in the Western Ghats in wild and mountainous country. It has an area of 925 square miles, a population of 1,11,746 and an annual revenue of about Rs 6,71,146. The present Chief Shrimant Raghunathrao Shrinikarrao alias Tribasaleb Pant Sachiv, was born on 20th September 1878. He succeeded to the gadi in 1922. The honour of receiving a dynastic salute of 9 guns was conferred on him in 1927.

The following are the particulars of the remaining States grouped in this Agency—

State	Name of Chief	Area	Population	Revenue	Tribute to British Government
Ahankot	Shrimant Meherbhai Vyasrao Intasimrao Raja Bhonsle Raja Sahab of	405	92,636	Rs 7,12,000	Rs 14,592
Aundh	Meherbhai Bhivarrao Shrinikarrao alias Bilasheba Pant Pratimdh	601	70,507	4,15,000	No tribute
Jamkhandi	Meherbhai Shrinikarrao Parbhuramrao alias Appasaheb Patwardhan	524	1,14,222	8,27,000	20,241
Jath	Shrimant Vajirajsinh Raghunrao alias Bibisabheb Pant	950	91,162	3,92,000	11,245

The following are the particulars of the remaining States grouped in this Agency—*contd.*

State	Name of Chief	Area	Population	Revenue	Tribute to British Government
				R.	R.
Kurundwad (Senior)	Meherban Chhatrapati alias Bhulchandraro alias Bilasahab Patwardhan	182	11,251	2,29,000	9,519
Kurundwad (Junior)	(1) Meherban Ganpatrao alias Madhavrao alias Bipureshab Patwardhan (2) Meherban Ganpatrao alias Trimbakrao alias Sahab Patwardhan	116	11,587	1,91,000	No tribute
Miraj (Senior)	Meherban Sir Gangadharrao alias Ganesh alias Bilasahab Patwardhan K.C.I.E.	312	97,637	5,27,000	12,338
Miraj (Junior)	Meherban Madhavrao alias Har alias Babisahab Patwardhan	106	40,005	2,51,000	6,413
Phaltan	Captain Meherban Malojirao alias Mullojirao Naik Nimbalkar	397	54,761	1,51,000	2,599
Ramdurg	Meherban Ruarao alias Venkatarao alias Rionahab Lkave	169	55,101	30,400	No tribute.
Savanur	Major Meherban Nawab Abdul Majidkhan alias Dilair Jung Bahadur	70	20,320	1,70,000	Do.
Wadi Estate	Meherban Ganpatrao Gangadharrao alias Dapsahab Patwardhan J. Shergudar.	12	1,701	8,000	Do.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.

Cooch Behar—This State which at one time comprised almost the whole of Northern Bengal, Assam and a part of Bhutan known as the Duars and formed part of the famous kingdom of Kamrup, is a low-lying plain in North Bengal. It has an area of 1,318 square miles and a population of 5,90,866. On the demise of the late Ruler His Highness Maharaja Sir Jitendra Narayan Bhup Bahadur, K.C.S.I. in December 1922 in England, his eldest son His Highness Jagaddipendra Narayan Bhup Bahadur (born on December 18, 1915) succeeded to the *gadi* at the age of 7. His Highness the Maharaja Bhup Bahadur belongs to the Kshatriya Varna of Kshatriya origin. His Highness the Maharaja Bhup Bahadur has three sisters Maharajkumaris Ila Devi, Gayatri Devi and Menaka Devi and one brother Maharajkumar Indrajitendra Narayan. Her Highness the Maharani Saheba is Regent of the State and the administration of the State is conducted by a Council or Regency composed of Her Highness the Regent, *President*, Lt.-Col. J. A. Brett, C.I.E., *Vice-President*, with (vacant) Revenue Officer, Sd. Umrauth Dutt, B.L., Civil and Sessions Judge, and Sd. Dineshananda Chakraverty, Civil Surgeon, as members.

—The capital is Cooch Behar, which is reached by the Cooch Behar Railway, linked to the Eastern Bengal Railway System.

Tripura—This State lies to the east of the district of Tippera and consists largely of hills covered with dense jungles. It has an area of 4,116 square miles and a population of 382,450. The revenue from the State is about 20 lakhs and from the Zemindaries in British India is about 13 lakhs. The State enjoys a Salute of 12 guns. The present Ruler is His Highness

Maharaja Manikya Bir Bikram Kishore Deb Barman Bahadur, who is a Kshatriya by caste and comes of the Lunar race. He was born on 19th August 1908 and he is entitled to a salute of 13 guns. He succeeded the late Maharaja Manikya Birendra Kishore Deb Barman Bahadur on 18th August 1928. The Military prestige of Tripura dates back to the fifteenth century and a mythical account of the State takes the history to an even earlier date. Both as regards its constitution and its relations with the British Government, the State differs alike from the large Native States of India, and from those which are classed as tributary. Besides being the Ruler of Tripura, the Maharaja also holds a large landed property situated in the plains of the Districts of Tippera, Noakhali and Sylhet. This estate covers an area of 600 square miles, and is held to form with the State an indivisible Raj. Disputes as to the right of succession have occurred on the occasion of almost every vacancy in the *gadi* producing in times gone by disturbances and domestic wars, and exposing the

inhabitants to serious disorders and tribulation from the Kukis, who were always allied in as auxiliaries by one or other of the contending parties. The principles which govern succession to the State have recently, however, been embodied in a *sanad* which was drawn up in 1904. The chief products of the State are rice, cotton, oil, jute, tea and forest produce of various kinds, the traffic being carried chiefly by water. The Maharaja received full administrative powers on 10th August 1927. His Highness married the sixth daughter of the late Maharaja Sir Bhagabat Prasad Singh Sahab Bahadur, K.C.I.E., K.B.E., of Bahrampur (Oudh) on the 16th January, 1929 but on her death in November, 1930, married the eldest daughter of H. H. Maharaja Mahendra Sur Yadvendra Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., Maharaja of Panna. The State courts are authorised to inflict capital punishment. The capital is Agartala.

Political Agent—Magistrate and Collector of Tippera (*Ex-officio*).

EASTERN STATES AGENCY.

From the 1st April 1933 the States in Bihar and Orissa and in the Central Provinces (with the exception of Malwa) were comprised in the newly created Eastern States Agency and placed in the political charge of an Agent to the Governor General.

The names of the States are,—Athgarh, Athmalik, Bamra, Baramba, Bastar, Baud, Bonai, Changuahakar, Chhukhadan, Daspalla, Dhenkanal, Gangpur, Hindol, Jashpur, Kalahandi, Kanker, Kawardha, Keonjhar, Kharsagarh, Khandpara, Kharsawan, Kora, Mayurbhajar, Nandgaon, Narsinghpur, Nayagarh, Niguri, Pal-Lahara, Patna, Raigarh, Rairakhol, Ranpur, Sakta, Saragarh, Serakela, Sonpur, Surguja, Talcher, Tigra, and Udaipur.

The total area is 59,680 square miles and the total population 71,08,786. The annual income is Rs 1,47,67,529. These States pay a tribute amounting to Rs 3,35,549 to Government.

Kharsawan and Serakela—The inhabitants are mostly hill-men of Kolarian or Dravidian origin. The Chief of Kharsawan belongs to a junior branch of the Porahat Raja's family. The State first came under the notice of the British in 1793, when in consequence of disturbances on the frontier of the old Jungle Mahals the Thakur of Kharsawan and the Kunwar of Serakela were compelled to enter into certain agreements relating to the treatment of fugitive rebels. The Chief is bound, when called upon, to render service to the British Government, but he has never had to pay tribute. The Bengal Nagpur Railway runs through a part of the State. The adjoining State of Serakela is held by the elder branch of the Porahat Raja's family.

The States of Athgarh, Athmalik, Bamra, Baramba, Baud, Bonai, Daspalla, Dhenkanal, Gangpur, Hindol, Kalahandi, Keonjhar, Khandpara, Mayurbhajar, Narsinghpur,

Nayagarh, Niguri, Pal-Lahara, Patna, Rairakhol, Ranpur, Sonpur, Talcher, and Tigra have no connected or authentic history. They were first inhabited by aboriginal races who were divided into innumerable communal or tribal groups each under its own Chief or headman. These carried on incessant warfare with their neighbours on the one hand and with the wild beasts of the forests on the other. In course of time their hill retreats were penetrated by Aryan adventurers who gradually overthrew the tribal Chiefs and established themselves in their place. Tradition relates how these during interlopers, most of whom were Rajputs from the north, came to Puri on a pilgrimage and remained behind to found *Khuzoms* or dynasties. It was thus that Jal Singh became ruler of Mayurbhajar over 1,300 years ago, and was succeeded by his eldest son, while his second son seized Keonjhar. The Chiefs of Baud and Daspalla are said to be descended from the same stock, and a Rajput origin is also claimed by the Rajas of Athmalik, Narsinghpur, Pal-Lahara, Talcher and Tigra. Nayagarh, it is alleged, was founded by a Rajput from Rewari, and a scion of the same family was the ancestor of the present house of Baramba. On the other hand, the Chiefs of Athgarh, such as Athgarh, Baramba, and Baud, owe their origin to favourites or distant servants of the Ruling sovereigns of Orissa. The State of Ranpur is believed to be the most ancient, the list of its Chiefs covering a period of over 3,000 years. It is noteworthy that the family is of Khono origin, a fact which is the only known instance in which, among the various dynasties, the supremacy of the original settlers has remained intact. The Rajas acknowledged the suzerainty of the British Government and were under an obligation to render assistance in the event of a rebellion in other respects they were independent of Orissa and the other States of the Eastern States Agency.

Marathas, ever interfered with their internal administration. All the States have uncles of the dynasties that have ruled over them, but they are made up for the most part of legend and fiction and long genealogical tables of doubtful accuracy, and contain very few features of general interest. The British conquest of Orissa from the Marathas which took place in 1803, was immediately followed by the submission of ten of the tributary States the Chiefs of which were the first to enter into treaty engagements.

The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. They were taken over from the Marathas in 1803 with the rest of Orissa, but, as they had always been tributary States rather than regular districts of the native Governments, they were exempted from the operation of the general regulation system. This was on the ground of expediency only and it was held that there was nothing in the nature of British relations with the proprietors that would preclude their being brought under the ordinary jurisdiction of the British Courts, if that should ever be found advisable. In 1882 it was held that the States did not form part of British India and this was afterward accepted by the Secretary of State.

The staple crop in these States is rice. The forests in them were at one time among the best timber producing tracts in India, but until lately forest conservancy was practically unknown. The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character.

The States of Bastar, Chhangbhar, Chhulkhani, Jaspur, Kanher, Kawaiha, Kharagarh, Korea, Nandgaon, Raigarh, Sakli, Sarangarh, Surguja and Udaipur are scattered round the Chhattisgarh Division in the Central Provinces to the different districts of which the majority of them were formerly attached.

Bastar—This State is situated in the south-east corner of the Central Provinces. In area (13,002 square miles) it is the twelfth largest State in India and is very scattered and backward. A point of interest is that Bastar is the only State in India of which the Chief is a Hindu lady. She is the last descendant of an ancient family of Lunar Rajputs, which ruled over Warangal until the Mohammedan conquest of the Deccan in the 14th century A.D. when the brother of the last Raja of Warangal fled into Bastar and established a kingdom there. From then till the days of the Marathas the State was virtually independent, its inaccessibility securing it from all but occasional raids of Mohammedan freebooters. The Bhonslas of Nagpur imposed a small tribute on Bastar in the 18th century, and at various times for delay in payment deprived it of the Sihawa tract in the Raipur district, and allowed the Raja of Jeypore in the adjacent Vizagapatam Agency of Madras to retain possession of the Kotapad tract, originally pledged to Jeypore by a Bastar Raja for assistance during family dissensions. The dispute between Bastar and Jeypore over this land led to constant border disturbances, and was not finally settled till 1863, when the Government of India, while recognising Bastar's claim, finally made the tract over to Jeypore

on the ground of long possession, on condition of payment by Jeypore of Rs. 3,000 tribute, two-thirds of which was remitted from the tribute payable by Bastar. The present tribute paid by Bastar is Rs. 15,000 a year.

On the formation of the Central Provinces Bastar was recognised as a Tributary State. Since then the state has made slowly, if slowly, progress, hampered by the innate conservatism of its aboriginal population, which has from time to time rebelled. The last rebellion in 1910 was due to oppression by minor State officials and dislike of the alien forest policy then under introduction. After the rebellion the Raja had his powers reduced and a series of Diwans were appointed by the Central Provinces Administration. The State has since his death continued to be under Government management owing to the minority of Maharaj Pratap Singh Kumari Devi.

Nearly 11,000 square miles are covered by forest of which about 3,000 square miles are reserved. Cultivation is in the forest areas. Rice and mustard are the chief crops. There is a large export of grain, timber and minor forest produce, particularly myrabolans. Most of the sal forest is used for shipper manufacture. There are more than 600 miles of gravel motorable road in the State. The capital, Jashalpur, on the Indravati river is 181 miles, by motorable road, from Raipur in the Central Provinces.

Surguja—Until 1903 this was included in the Chota Nagpur States of Bengal. The most important feature is the Malpura, a magnificent table land forming the southern barrier of the State. The early history of Surguja is obscure, but according to a local tradition in Palamanu the present ruling family is said to be descended from an Arakhi Raja of Palamanu in 1758 a Maratha army overran the State and compelled its Chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Bhonsla Raja. At the end of the eighteenth century in consequence of the Chief having aided a rebellion in Palamanu against the British an expedition entered Surguja and though order was temporarily restored, disputes again broke out between the Chief and his relations, necessitating British interference. Until 1818 the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness; but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under the provisional agreement concluded with Mudhoji Bhonsla of Nagpur, and order was soon established. The principal crops are rice and other cereals.

Agent to the Governor-General Lt Col A. B. Meek, C.V.O.

Secretary, Ranchi Mr L. G. Wallis, I.C.S.
Assistant Secretary, Ranchi Rai Bahadur Ramji Das

Secretary, Eastern States Agency and Political Agent, Sambalpur Mr J. Bowstead, M.C., I.O.S.

Forest

Agency Forest Officer Eastern States Agency, (Sambalpur) Mr F. A. A. Hart, I.C.S.

Education

Agency Inspector of Schools, (Raipur) Rai Sahib P. H. Kataria.

Agency Inspector of Schools, (Sambalpur) Mr H. Misra.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF ASSAM.

Manipur.—The only State of importance, under the Government of Assam, is Manipur which has an area of 8,620 square miles and a population of 4,46,808 (1931 Census), of which about 68 per cent are Hindus and 35 per cent animistic hill tribes. Manipur consists of a great tract of mountainous country, and a valley about 50 miles long and 20 miles wide, which is shut in on every side. The State adopted Hinduism in the early eighteenth century, in the reign of Pamheiba or Gharib Nawaz, who subsequently made several invasions into Burma. On the Burmese retreating, Manipur negotiated a treaty of alliance with the British in 1762. The Burmese again invaded Manipur during the first Burmese war, and on the conclusion of peace in 1826 Manipur was declared independent. The chief event in its subsequent history was the intervention of the British in 1891 to establish the claim of Kula Chandra Singh as Maharaja, followed by the treacherous murder of the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Quenton, and the officers with him, and the withdrawal of the escort which accompanied him. From 1891 to 1907 the State was administered by the Political Agent, during the minority of H. H. Chura Chand Singh. The Raja was invested with ruling powers in 1907 and formally installed on the gadi in 1908. For his services during the War the hereditary title of Maharaja was

conferred on him. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

The administration of the State is now conducted by H. H. the Maharaja, assisted by a Durbar, which consists of a President, who is usually a member of the Indian Civil Service, his services being lent to the State by the Assam Government three ordinary and three additional members, who are all Manipuris. The staple crop of the country is rice. Forests of various kinds cover the great part of the mountain ranges.

Khasi States.—These petty chiefships, 25 in number, with a total area of about 3,600 square miles and a population of 1,80,000, are included under the Government of Assam. Most of the States have treaties or engagement with the British Government. The two largest are Khyrim and Mjilhem and the smallest is Nongliwal, which has a population of only 213. Most of them are ruled by a Chief or Siem. The Siemship usually remains in one family. The succession is originally controlled by a small electoral body constituted from the heads of certain clans but in recent years there has been a tendency to broaden the elective basis. The constitution of a Khasi State has always been of a very democratic character, a Siem exercising but little control over his people.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Three States—Rampur, Tehri and Benares—are included under this Government.—

State	Area Sq Miles	Population.	Revenue in lakhs of Rupees
Rampur	892	4,64,919	62
Tehri (Garhwal)	4,502	4,70,109	19
Benares	875	3,91,165	20

Rampur State.—The State of Rampur was founded by Nawab Sayed Ali Mohammad Khan Bahadur in the middle of the 18th century and his dominions included a considerable portion of what is now known as Rohilkhand. The founder belonged to the famous Sayeds of the Bareilly class in the Muzaffargarh district and was a statesman of remarkable ability. He rendered invaluable services to the Moghul Emperor who recognised him as Ruler of Rohilkhand.

Upon his death, his Kingdom underwent many vicissitudes and was considerably reduced in size during the reign of his son Nawab Sayed Faizulla Khan Bahadur. The Province of

Rohilkhand had now passed into the hands of the East India Company. Nawab Sayed Faizulla Khan Bahadur was most loyal and true to the British Government to whom he always looked up for help during those unsettled days and he gave tangible proof of his loyalty when during the war against France he offered all his cavalry 2,000 strong to the British Government. In 1878 and received the following message of thanks from the then Governor-General—

"That in his own name as well as that of the Board, he returned him the warmest thanks for this instance of his faithful attachment to the Company and the English Nation."

Another opportunity arose for the ruler of Rampur to evince his steadfast loyalty and devotion to the Imperial Cause on the outbreak of the Mutiny of 1857. His Highness Nawab Sir Sayed Yusuf Ali Khan Bahadur offered the Musnads of Rampur in those days. I was very start till we were re-established in the country, he was lavish in his expenditure of time and money on the side of the British Government, he fought their battles, saved the lives of Europeans whom he provided with food and other means of comfort and had established his reputation as a loyal ruler that he was placed in charge of the Province of Rohilkhand. These signal services were recognised by the Government in the grant of the title of Bahadur to him.

The reign of His Late Highness Nawab Sir Sayed Mohammad Hamid Ali Khan Bahadur stood out unique in many ways. Rampur made great strides in trade and commerce and in fact in every walk of life. He took keen interest in Education and did not only contribute handsome donations but made annual grants to the various educational institutions. He was no whit behind his compatriot in his loyalty to the British Government. The Great War of 1914 found him foremost in offering his personal services and all the resources of the State—men, money and material—to the British Government. The 1st Rampur Infantry was sent to East Africa and returned home after nearly four years' service and won the favourable remarks of high British Officers. Besides the expenditure involved in this His Highness also participated in the Scheme of the Hospitalship "Loyalty" and contributed one lakh of rupees towards the cost and upkeep of it. His other contributions to the various funds amounted to over half a lakh of rupees and he also subscribed Rs. 7,00,000 to the two War Loans. At the time of the Afghan War 1919 the I S Lancers and the Imperial Service Infantry were sent on garrison duty in British India.

The present Ruler Captain His Highness Nawab Sayed Raja Ali Khan Bahadur succeeded his father on 20th June 1930. His Highness was born on 17th November 1906 and was educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot. He is an enlightened ruler and takes very keen interest in the administration of the State.

Since his accession to the masnad, His Highness introduced reforms in Judicial, Police, Revenue and Army Departments and during the short period that the reins of the State have been in his hands he has overhauled and reorganised the whole administration. His Highness is also greatly interested in education, commerce and industry and has taken practical steps to improve them. The welfare of his subjects and their advancement in every walk of life is the cherished desire of His Highness.

His Highness has two sons and two daughters. The eldest son Sahibzada Sayed Murtaza Ali Khan Bahadur is the Heir Apparent.

The permanent salute of the State is 15 guns and the annual income over fifty lakhs of rupees.

Tehri State (or Tehri-Garhwal)—This State lies entirely in the Himalayas and contains a tangled series of ridges and spurs radiating from a lofty series of peaks on the border of Tibet. The sources of the Ganges and the Yamuna are in it. The early history of the State is that of Garhwal District, the two tracts having formerly been ruled by the same dynasty since 688 A.D. Pradyumna Shah, the last Raja of the whole territory, was killed in battle fighting against the Gurkhas; the State then passed to the Nepalese. In 1815, it was recovered from the British by the present ruler. During the Mutiny the latter rendered valuable assistance to Government. He died in 1879. The present Raja is Major H. H. Sahibzada Ali Khan Bahadur, K.C.S.I., who is the eighth direct descendant from the original founder of the dynasty, Raja Kanak Pal. The principal products are rice and wheat grown on the hill sides. The State is very valuable and there is

considerable export of timber. The Raja has full powers within the State. The strength of the State forces is 330. Tehri is the capital but His Highness and the Secretarial Office are at Narendranagar for the greater part of the year. The summer capital being Pratapnagar, 8,000 feet above the sea-level.

Agent to the Governor-General: The Governor of the U. P. of Agra and Oudh.

Benares—The kingdom of Benares under its Hindu Rulers existed from time immemorial and finds mention in Hindu and Buddhist literature. In the 12th century it was conquered by Shahab-ud-din Ghorri and formed a separate province of the Mohammadan Empire. In the 18th century when the powers of Moghal Emperors declined after the death of Aurangzeb, Raja Mansa Ram an enterprising zamindar of Gangapur (Benares district) founded the State of Benares and obtained a Sanad from the Emperor Mohammad Shah of Delhi in the name of his son Raja Balwant Singh in 1738. Raja Mansa Ram died in 1740 and his son Balwant Singh became the virtual ruler. During the next 30 years attempts were unsuccessfully made by Safdar Jang and after him by Shuja-ud-daula of Oudh to destroy the independence of the Raja and the Fort of Ramnagar was built on the bank of the Ganges opposite the Benares City. Raja Balwant Singh died in 1770 and was succeeded by his son Omet Singh. He was expelled by Warren Hastings. Balwant Singh's daughter's son Mahip Narain Singh was placed on the *gadi*. The latter proved an imbecile and there was maladministration which led to an agreement in 1794 by which the lands, held by the Raja in his own right which was granted to him by the British Government, were separated from the rest of the province. The direct control of the latter was assumed by the Government and an annual income of one lakh of rupees was assured to the Raja while the former constituted the Domains. Within the Domains the Raja had revenue powers similar to those of a Collector in a British district. There was thus constituted what for over a century was known as the Family Domains of the Maharaja of Benares. On the 1st of April, 1911, the major portion of these Domains became a State consisting of the parganas of Bhadohi and Chakia (or Kera Mangraur). The town of Ramnagar and its neighbouring villages were ceded by the British Government to the Maharaja in 1918 and became part of the State. The Maharaja's powers are those of a Ruling Chief, subject to certain conditions, of which the most important are the maintenance of all rights acquired under laws in force prior to the transfer, the reservation to Government of the control of the postal and telegraph systems, of plenary criminal jurisdiction within the State over servants of the British Government and European British subjects, and of a right of control in certain matters connected with Law and Order.

The present ruler is Captain H. H. Maharaja Sir Aditya Narain Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., who was born in 1874 and succeeded to the State in 1931 and the Heir Apparent Maharaja Kumar Abhuthi Narain Singh born on November 6, 1927, adopted by His Highness the Maharaja Bahadur as his son and successor on the 21st June, 1934.

PUNJAB STATES.

There are 14 States of the Punjab which since 1921, have been in direct political relation with the Government of India through the Hon'ble

the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, who resides at Lahore
The following are details —

Name.	Permanent salute in guns	Area (Sq miles)	Population (1921)	Approximate revenue in lakhs of rupees
Patiala ..	17	5,942	1,025,520	1,45.0
Bahawalpur	17	16,434	984,612	45.5
Khairpur†	15	6,050	227,148	15.0
Sind ..	13	1,299	324,676	24.0
Nabha*	13	947	287,574	2.55
Kapurthala	13	590	316,757	36.0
Mandi	11	1,139	207,465	1.25
Sirmur, (Nabab)†	11	1,046	148,568	59.0
Bilaspur (Kahlur)*	11	453	100,994	3.0
Malerkotla	11	165	83,072	85.0
Fardkot*	11	638	164,304	1.73
Chamba	11	3,127	146,870	83.7
Suket ..	11	392	58,408	22.5
Loharu*	9	226	23,388	13.7

* Under administration

† Personal salute raised to 13 guns

‡ Brought under the Political control of the A G Q Punjab States in April 1933

Bahawalpur.—A Native State in direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States Agency Bahawalpur is situated between the Punjab and Rajputana, Latitude 27° 41' to 30° 22' 15", Long 70° 47' to 74° 1' and bounded on the North-East by the District of Ferozepur, on the East and South by the Rajputana States of Bikaner and Jaisalmer, on the South-West by Sind, on the North-West by the Indus and Sutlej rivers. Area, 15,000 square miles.

This State is about 300 miles in length and about 50 miles wide, is divided lengthwise into three great strips. Of these, the first is a part of the Great Indian Desert, the central track, which is as barren as uplands of the Western Punjab, has however been partly rendered capable of cultivation by the network of Sutlej Valley Canals constructed recently, and the third a fertile alluvial tract in the river valley is called the Sind. The State is a partner in the great Sutlej Valley Project which is now nearing completion. The scheme embodies four colossal weirs and a network of canals that are gradually but surely converting the arid and bleak desert of Cholistan into a valley of smiling fields and rich gardens. It has been estimated that the perennial and non-perennial areas to be brought under cultivation by the Project would cover 1,484 and 25,82 lakh acres of land respectively. The ruling family is descended from the Abbasside Khalifas of Baghdad. The tribe originally came from Sind, and assumed independence during the dismemberment of the Durrani Empire in the Treaty of Lahore in 1809. Ranjit Singh was confined to the right bank of the Sutlej.

The first treaty with Bahawalpur was negotiated in 1833, the year after the treaty with Ranjit Singh for regulating traffic on the Indus. It secured the independence of the Nawab within his own territories and opened up the traffic on the Indus and Sutlej. During the first Afghan War the Nawab rendered assistance to the

British and was rewarded by a grant of territory and life pension. On his death his heir being minor for a time the administration of the State was in the hands of the British authorities. The present ruler is Rukn-ud-Daula, Nur-ud-Daula, Mukhlis-ud-Daula, Hafiz-ul-Mulk, His Highness Major Nawab Sir Sadig Muhammad Khan Abbasi V, C.O.I.E., K.C.V.O., K.C.I.E., who was born in 1904 and succeeded in 1907. During his minority the State was managed by a Council of Regency which ceased to exist in March 1924, when His Highness the Nawab was invested with full power. His Highness is now assisted in the administration of his State by a Prime Minister, Izat Nislan, Imad-ul-Mulk, Rai Ruz-ul-Wazir, Khan Bahadur, Mir Nabil Buksh Mahomed Husain, V.A., L.B., C.I.E., K.C.A.O., D.O.S., a Public Works and Revenue Minister, Mr C. A. H. Townsend, C.I.E., a Minister for Law and Justice, Rai N. S. Khan, Iftikhar-ul-Mulk, Lt-Col. Naqibul Haq Khan Kurashah, V.A., L.B., C.A.O., C.I.E., a Home Minister, Amin-ul-Mulk, Umdat-ul-Umra, Sardar Mohammad Amir Khan, C.I.E., an Army Minister, Major General Sahibzadeh Haji Mohiuddin Dilawar Khan Abbasi, O.B.E., C.I.E., and a Minister for Commerce, Dewan Sukha Nand, V.A.O.

The chief crops are wheat, rice and millet. The Lahore-Karachi branch of the North Western State Railway passes through the State. The State supports an Imperial Service combined infantry, in addition to other troops. The capital is Bahawalpur, a walled town built in 1718.

Income from all sources over 70 lakhs. Languages spoken Multani or Western Punjabi (Jatli), and Marwari.

Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States —
The Hon. Lt-Col. H. Wilberforce, L.D.S.O., K.C.I.E., D.I., I.C.S.

Chamba.—This State is enclosed on the west and north by Kahlur, on the east by the British districts of Ferozepur and south by the British districts of Ferozepur and

Gurdaspur, and it is shut in on almost every side by lofty hill ranges. The whole country is mountainous and is a favourite resort of sportsmen. It possesses a remarkable series of copper plate inscriptions from which its chronicle have been compiled.

Founded probably in the sixth century by Marut a Sraybansi Rajput, who built Brahm-pura, the modern Barmanur, Chamba was extended by Meru Varma (680) and the town of Chamba built by Sahil Varma about 920. The State maintained its independence, until the Moghal conquest of India.

Under the Moghals it became tributary to the empire, but its internal administration was not interfered with, and it escaped almost unscathed from Sikh aggression. The State first came under British influence in 1846. The part west of the Ravi, was at first handed over to Kashmir, but subsequently the boundaries of the State were fixed, as they now stand, and it was declared independent of Kashmir. The present chief is H. H. Raja Ram Singh, who was born in 1890, and succeeded in 1919. The principal crops are rice, maize and millets. There are some valuable forests which were partly leased to Government in 1864 for a term of 99 years, but the management of them has now been retroceded to the Chamba Durbar. The mountain ranges are rich in minerals which are little worked. The principal road to Chamba town is from Pathankot, the terminus of the Amritsar Pathankot branch of the North-Western Railway. Chamba town, on the right bank of the Ravi, contains a number of interesting temples, of which that of Lakshmi Narayan, dating possibly from the tenth century, is the most famous.

Faridkot—The ruling family of this sandy level tract of land belongs to the Sidhu-Batar clan of the Jats, and is descended from the same stock as the Poulkhan houses. Their occupation of Faridkot and Kot Kapura dates from the time of Akbar, though quarrels with the surrounding Sikh States and internal dissensions have greatly reduced the patrimony.

The present Ruling Prince, Farzand-i-Saadat Mirza-i-Hazrat-i-Kutub-i-Hind Bar Bar Singh Raja Har Indar Singh Bahadur was born in 1915 and succeeded his father in 1919. Under the orders of the Government of India the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration consisting of a President, Bahadur Bahadur Sirdar Indar Singh, B.A., and three members. The State has an area of 643,000 miles with a population of 1,64,364. It has an annual income of 18 lakhs. The Ruler is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. He is visited and returns visit from the Viceroy. The State Force consists of State Sappers and Muzakki-i-Feroz (Cavalry and Infantry).

Jind—Jind is one of the three Poulkhan States (the others being Patiala and Nabha). It was founded by Raja Ranjit Singh, with a population of 24,700 and an income of 25 lakhs.

The State of Jind as a separate State dates from 1775, when Raja Gajpat Singh, the maternal grandfather of Raja Ranjit Singh, and great-grandfather of the late Raja Ranjit Singh, his

principality. He was succeeded by Raja Bhag Singh, who greatly assisted Lord Lake in 1805. His grandson Raja Sangat Singh was succeeded by the nearest male collateral Raja Sarup Singh in 1837. In the crisis of 1857 Raja Sarup Singh rendered valuable services to the British and was rewarded with a grant of nearly 600 square miles of land, known as Dadri territory. He was succeeded by his son Maharaja Raght Singh, who gave help to the British Government on the occasion of Kuka outbreak (1872) and the 2nd Afghan War (1878). The present ruler Maharaja Ranbir Singh was born in 1879, succeeded in 1887, and invested with full powers in 1899. The State rendered exemplary services in the Great European War. It supplied 8,673 men to the Indian Army and Imperial Service Troops and doubled the strength of its Imperial Service Infantry. The total contribution amounted to nearly 35 lakhs, in gifts of cash, materials, animals and loan.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 15 guns. The capital is Sangrur, which is connected by State Railway with the North-Western Railway. The principal executive Officer of the State is called Chief Minister.

Ruler.—Colonel His Highness Farzand-i-Dilbar-i-Rasikh-ul-Itikad, Daulat-i-Inglish-i-Raja-i-Rajgan Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh Rajendra Bahadur, G.O.I.E., K.C.S.I., etc.

Kapurthala—This State consists of three detached pieces of territory in the great plain of the Jullundur Doab. The ancestors of the ruler of Kapurthala at one time held possession both in the Cis and Trans-Sutlej and also in the Bari Doab. In the latter lies the village of Ahl whence the family springs, and from which it takes the name of Ahluwalia. When the Jullundur Doab came under the dominion of the British Government in 1846, the estates north of the Sutlej were maintained in the independent possession of the Kapurthala Ruler, conditional on his paying a commutation in cash for military service engagements by which he had previously been bound to Maharaja Ranjit Singh, Lahore. This annual tribute of Rs. 1,31,000 per year was remitted by the Government of India in perpetuity in (1924) in recognition of the splendid war record and uniformly efficient administration of the State. The Bari Doab estates are held by the head of the House as a jaghir in perpetuity, the civil and police jurisdiction remaining in the hands of the British authorities. For good services during the Mutiny, the present Maharaja's grandfather was rewarded with a grant of other estates in Oudh, which yielded large annual income equal to those of Kapurthala State. The present Ruler's titles are Col. H. Farzand-i-Dilbar-i-Rasikhul-Itikad Daulat-i-Inglish-i-Raja-i-Rajagan Maharaja Jagat Singh Bahadur Maharaja of Kapurthala, G.O.I. (1911), G.C.I.F. (1918), G.B.F. (1927) who was born on 24th November 1872 and succeeded his father His Highness the late Raja-i-Rajgan Kharak Singh of Kapurthala in 1877. He was granted the title of Maharaja as an hereditary distinction in 1911. His salute was raised to 15 guns and he was made Honorary Colonel of the 15th Battrays Sikhs. The Maharaja received the Grand Cross of the Legion d'Honneur from the French Government in 1924, and possesses also the Grand Cross of the

Order of Carlos 3rd, of Spain, Grand Cross of the Order of the Star of Romania, Grand Cross of the Order of Menelik of Abyssinia, Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile of Egypt, Grand Cordon of the Order of Morocco, Grand Cordon of the Order of Tunis, Grand Cross of the Order of Chili, Grand Cross of the Order of the Sun of Peru, Grand Cross of the Order of Cuba, represented Indian Princes and India on the League of Nations in 1926, 1927 and 1929, celebrated the Golden Jubilee of his reign in December 1927 with great eclat, when Their Excellencies the Viceroy and Lady Irwin, the Commander-in-Chief in India and Lady Birdwood, Governor of the Punjab and Lady Hailey, Their Highnesses the Maharajas of Jammu and Kashmir, Bikaner Patiala, Jammu, Alwar, Bharatpur, Rajpipla, Mandi, the Nawabs of Palanpur, Malerkotla, Loharu and the Raja of Kalsia were present, besides a very large and distinguished gathering of European and Indian guests.

The rulers of Kapurthala are Rajput Sikh, and claim descent from Rana Kapur, a distinguished member of the Rajput House of Jaisalmer. Only a small proportion of the population however are Sikhs, the majority being Mahomedans. The chief crops are wheat, gram, maize, cotton and sugarcane. The town of Sultanpur in this State is famous for hand-printed cloths. Phagwara is another important town in the State and is very prosperous on account of its grain markets and factories for manufacture of agricultural implements, and metallic utensils of household use. The situation of this town on the main railway line and the consequent facilities of export and import make its importance still greater and this is the chief commercial town in the State. The main line of the North-Western Railway passes through part of the State and the Grand Trunk Road runs parallel to it. A branch railway from Jullundur City to Ferozepur passes through the capital. The Imperial Service and local troops of the State have been re-organized and are now designated as Kapurthala State Forces. The State Troops, the strength of which was raised during the Great War, to nearly 2,000, served the Empire in that crisis in East Africa, Mesopotamia and on the Afghan Frontier. Primary education is free throughout the State, and it spends a large proportion of its revenues on its Education Department. The State also possesses a Legislative Assembly which was created by the present Maharaja on the occasion of the Silver Jubilee of his reign in 1916. The capital is Kapurthala which has been embellished by the present Maharaja with a Palace of remarkable beauty and grandeur and with various buildings of public utility. The town boasts modern amenities such as electric light, water-works, etc.

Political Officer. The Hon'ble Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore.

Malerkotla.—This State consists of a level sandy plain unbroken by a hill or stream, bounded by the district of Ludhiana on the north, by Patiala territory on the east and south and by the Ludhiana District, Patiala and Nabha territories on the west. The Rulers (Nawabs) of Malerkotla are of "Kurd",

descent who came originally from the Province of "Sherwan" and settled in the town of "Sherwan" north of Persia, and after settling for a time in Afghanistan near Ghazni came to India and settled at Maler, the old capital of the State in 1442. Originally they held positions of trust under the Lodhi and Moghal Emperors. As the Moghal Empire began to sink into decay they gradually became independent. They were in constant feuds with the newly created adjacent Sikh States. After the victory of Laswar, gained by the British over Sindhi in 1803 and the subjugation and flight of Holkar in 1805, when the Nawab of Malerkotla joined the British Army, the British Government succeeded to the power of the Mahrattas in the districts between the Sutlej and the Jammu. The State entered into political relations with the British Government in 1809. The present Ruler is Lt-Col. His Highness Nawab Sir Ahmad Ali Khan, Bahadur, KCSI, KCIG, who was born in 1881 and succeeded in 1908. He was created Hon. Major in the Indian Army in June 1916 and promoted to the rank of Lt-Col. in December 1919.

The chief products are cotton, sugar, poppy, aniseed, mustard, ajwain, methi, tobacco, garlic, onions and all sorts of grains.

The State maintains Sappers, Infantry, Cavalry and Artillery. The capital is Malerkotla. The population of the town is 30,000. Annual revenue of the State is about 16 lakhs.

Mandi is an Indian State in the Punjab Political Agency lying in the upper reaches of Bias river which drains nearly all its area. Its area is 1,200 square miles and it lies between 31°-23' North Lat. and 76°-22' East Long.; and is bounded on the east by Kulu; on the south by Suket and on the north and west by Kangra. It has an interesting history of considerable length which finally resulted in its entering into a treaty with the British in 1846.

The present Ruler, Capt His Highness Raja Sir Joginder Sen Bahadur, KCSI, assumed full powers in February 1925. His Highness married the only daughter of His Highness the Maharaja of Kapurthala.

The Mandi Hydro-Electric Scheme was formally opened by His Excellency the Viceroy in March, 1932. The principal crops are rice, maize, wheat and millet. About three-fifths of the State are occupied by forests and grazing lands. It is rich in minerals. The capital is Mandi, founded in 1527, which contains several temples and places of interest and is one of the chief marts for commerce with Ladakh and Yarkand.

Nabha.—Nabha which became a separate State in 1763 is one of the 3 Phulkian States—Nabha, Patiala and Jind—and though second in point of population and revenue of the 3 sister States, it claims seniority being descended from the eldest branch. It consists of two distinct parts: the main portion comprising 12 separate pieces of territory scattered among the other Punjab States and Districts, and the City of Nabha and the *Amritsar* of Phel

In 1930, His Highness led the Princes' delegation to the Round Table Conference. He was again elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes in 1933.

Sirmur (Nahan)—This is a hilly State in the Himalayas under the Political control of the Hon'ble Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore. Its history is said to date from the 11th century. In the eighteenth century the State was able to repulse the Gurkha invasion, but the Gurkhas were invited to aid in the suppression of an internal revolt in the State and they in turn had to be evicted by the British. In 1857 the Raja rendered valuable services to the British, and during the second Afghan War he sent a contingent to the North-West Frontier. The present Prince is H. H. Maharaja Rajendra Prakash who was born in 1913 and succeeded in 1933. The main agricultural feature of the State is the recent development of the Kiarda Dam, a fertile level plain which produces wheat, gram, rice, maize and other crops. The State forests are valuable and there is an iron foundry at Nahan which was started in 1867 but, being unable to compete with the imported iron, is now used for the manufacture of sugarcane crushing mills. The State supports a Corps of Sappers and Miners which served in the Great War. It was captured by General Townshend's force at Kut-al-Amara, but the Corps was reconstituted and sent to service.

Khairpur—The state of Khairpur lies in Upper Sind between 26°10' and 27°-46' North Latitude and 68°-20' and 70°-14' East Longitude. It is bounded on the East by Jodhpur and Jessalmere territories and on the North, West and South by British Districts of Sind. The climate is similar to the rest of Sind. The maximum temperature in summer is 117° in the shade and the minimum in winter 30°. The nearest hill station is Quetta, 5,500 feet above

sea level. Rainfall is scarce, the last 11 years' average being 3°-50". The area of the State is about 6,050 square miles. The population of the State according to the census of 1931 is 2,21,15 souls. The majority of them are cultivators. Others are engaged in trade, State services and labour. By religion they are mainly Suni Muslims, but the Ruler and his family and some others are Shias. Hindus form the minority community. The State's revenue from all sources calculated on the average of the past five years amounts to Rs 19,31,957. The relations of the State with the British Government are those of subordinate allyship. The State pays no tribute either to the British Government or to any other State. The language of the State is Sindhi. Urdu and English are also spoken. The chief product of the State is grain, which is cultivated on irrigation canals taking off from the Indus river at the Lloyd Barrage and to a small extent on wells. Oil-seeds, ghee, indies, tobacco, kulkar, earth ("met"), carbonate of Soda ("Khuro chaniho"), cotton and wool are also produced. The manufactures comprise cotton, silken and woollen fabrics, lacquer work, carpets and pottery.

The Ruler's full name is His Highness Mir Ali Nawaz Khan. He is a Muslim of the Baloch and belongs to the Shii sect. He ascended the gadi on the 25th June 1921. Previous to the accession of this family on the fall of the Kachori dynasty of Sind in 1783, the history of the State belongs to the general history of Sind. In that year Mir Inderah Khan Talpur established himself as Ruler of Sind and subsequently his nephew, Mir Sorhar Khan Talpur, founded the Khairpur branch of the Talpur family. In 1882 the independence of the Khairpur State was recognised by the British Government. The Ruler is a first class prince and is entitled to a permanent salute of 15 guns outside and 17 guns inside the State limits.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BURMA.

The States under this Government comprise the Shan States which are included in British India though they do not form part of Burma proper and are not comprised in the regularly administered area of the Province and the Karen States which are not part of British India and are not subject to any of the laws in force in the Shan States or other parts of Burma.

The Shan States comprise the two isolated States of Hsawngsup and Singalung Hkamti in the Upper Chinthein District under the supervision of the Commissioner, Sagaing Division, the eight petty village communities under separate hereditary Chiefs known as Hkamti Long in the Myittha District and the two main divisions of the Shan States known as the Northern and Southern Shan States numbering six and thirty States respectively which are under the Commissioner, Federated Shan States.

Hsawngsup with an area of 529 square miles and a population of 7,239 lies between the 24th and 25th parallels of latitude and on the 95th parallel of longitude between the Chindwin river and the State of Manipur.

Singalung Hkamti has an area of 983 square miles and a population of 2,157 and lies on the 96th and 98th parallels of latitude and longitude respectively.

The Hkamti Long States have an area of 200 square miles with a population of 6,349 and lie between the 27th and 28th parallels of latitude on the Upper Waters of the Salween branch of the Irrawaddy.

The Northern Shan States (area 20,156 square miles and population 630,107) and the Southern Shan States (area 36,157 square miles and population 870,230), form with the unadministered Wa States (area about 2,600 square miles) and the Karen States, a huge triangle lying roughly between the 19th and 27th parallels of latitude and the 96th and 102nd parallels of longitude with its base on the plains of Burma and its apex on the Meikong river.

The population consists chiefly of Shan who belong to the Sino group of the Indo-Chinese family; the remainder belong chiefly to the Wa-palaung and Mon-Khmer groups. Of the Wa-palaung and Mon-Khmer groups of the Austro-Asiatic branch of the Indo-Chinese

Toungoo. The largest State is Kantarawadi with an area of 8,000 square miles and a population of 30,677 and a revenue of nearly 14 lakhs of rupees. More than half of the inhabitants are Red Karens. An Assistant Political Officer is posted at Loukaw subject to the supervision of the Superintendent, Southern Shan States, who exercises in practice much the same control over the Chiefs as is exercised in the Shan States though nominally they are more independent than their Shan neighbours. Mineral and forest rights however in Karenni belong to the Chiefs and not to the Government. In the past substantial contribu-

tions from Provincial revenues have been made to the Karenni Chiefs for education and medical service. The Chiefs are at present unwilling to surrender their special rights and join the Shan States Federation though very considerable advantages might accrue from their doing so.

The principal wealth of the country used to be in its teak timber and a large alien population was at one time supported by the timber trade. This has largely declined in the last few years and unless the Chiefs are prepared to deny themselves and close their forests they will soon disappear.

JAMMU AND KASHMIR STATE.

The territory known generally as the Jammu and Kashmir State lies between 32° and 37° N. and 73° and 80° E. It is an almost entirely mountainous region with a strip of level land along the Punjab Border, and its mountains, valleys and lakes comprise some of the grandest scenery in the world. The State may be divided physically into three areas: the upper, comprising the area drained by the River Indus and its tributaries; the middle, drained by the Jhelum and Kishenganga Rivers, and the lower area, consisting of the level strip along the southern border, and its adjacent ranges of hills. The dividing lines between the three areas are the snow-bound inner and outer Himalayan ranges known as the Zojila and the Panchal. The area of the State is 84,258 square miles. Beginning in the south where the great plain of the Punjab ends, it extends northwards to the high Karakoram mountains "Where three Empires Meet."

Briefly described, the State comprises the valleys of the three great rivers of Northern India, viz., the upper reaches of the Chenab and the Jhelum, and the middle reaches of the Indus. The total population is 3,220,518 souls.

History—Various historians and poets have left more or less trustworthy records of the history of the Valley of Kashmir and the adjacent regions. In 1586 it was annexed to the Moghul Empire by Akbar Srinagar, the Capital, originally known as Pravarapura, had by then been long established though many of the fine buildings said to have been erected by early Hindu rulers had been destroyed by the Muhammadans who first penetrated into the Valley in the fourteenth century. In the reign of Sikandar, who was a contemporary of Timur-lane, a large number of Hindus was converted to Islam. Jahangir did much to beautify the Valley but after Aurangzeb there was a period of disorder and decay and by the middle of the eighteenth century the Suba or Governor of Kashmir had become practically independent of Delhi. Thereafter the country experienced the oppression of Afghan rule until it was rescued in 1819 by an army sent by Maharaja Ranjit Singh. The Sikh rule was less oppressive than that of the Afghans. The early history of the State as at present constituted is that of Maharaja Shri Gulab Singh, a scion of the old Ruling Family of Jammu who rose to eminence in the service of Maharaja Ranjit Singh of Lahore and was, in recognition of his distinguished services, made Raja of Jammu in 1820. He held aloof from the war between the British and the

Sikhs, only appearing as mediator after the battle of Sobraon (1846), when the British made over to him the valley of Kashmir and certain other areas in return for his services in re-establishing peace. His son, His Highness Maharaja Ranbir Singh, G.S.I., G.C.I.E., a model Hindu and one of the staunchest allies of the British Government, ruled from 1857 to 1885. He did much to consolidate his possessions and evolve order in the frontier districts. He was succeeded by his eldest son His Highness Maharaja Sir Pratap Singh, G.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., who died on 23rd December 1925 and was succeeded by His Highness the present Maharaja Shri Harisingh Bahadur.

The most notable reform effected in the State during the reign of the late Maharaja was the Land Revenue Settlement originally carried out under Lawrence and revised from time to time.

Administration—For some years after the accession to the *gadi* of the late Maharaja, the administration of the State was conducted by a Council over which the Maharaja presided. In 1905 this Council was abolished and the administration of the State was thereafter carried on by His Highness the Maharaja with the help of a Chief Minister and a number of Ministers in charge of different portfolios. This system continued until the 21st January 1922 when an Executive Council was inaugurated. Very recently, certain modifications have been introduced in the Constitution as a result of which the contact of His Highness with the administration of the State has become more direct and intimate.

The British Resident has his headquarters at Srinagar and Shikot and there is also a Political Agent at Gikot. A British Officer stationed at Leh to assist in the supervision of the Central Asian Trade with India which passes through Kashmir.

In the Dogra the State has splendid material for the Army which consists of 7,792 troops. Besides these, thousands of Dogra serve in the Indian Army.

Finance—The financial position of the State is strong. The total revenue including grants is about Rs. 270,00,000; the chief sources of land, forests, customs and excise and 2 to 3 lakhs. There is a big reserve and a big debt.

Production and Industry—The State is predominantly agricultural and the principal food crops are rice, wheat, oil, etc. The principal industries are wool, cotton, silk, etc.

almonds and hops are also grown. Pears and apples, the principal fruits of the Valley, are exported in large quantities. The State forests are extensive and valuable. The principal species of timber trees are deodar, blue pine and fir. The most valuable forests occur in Kishtwar, Karnah and Kamraj Ilqas. A survey of the mineral resources of the State is being conducted under an expert. The most noteworthy of the minerals are bauxite, coal, fuller's earth, kaolino, slate, zinc, copper and talc. Gold is found in Baltistan and Gilgit, sapphires in Paddar, aquamarines in Skardu and lead in Uri. The silk flature in Srinagar is the largest of its kind in the world. Manufacture of silk is a very ancient industry in Kashmir. Zain-ul-Abidin who ruled from 1421 to 1472 is said to have imported silk weavers from Khurasan and settled them here. Woollen cloth, shawls, pashm, and wood carving of the State are world-famous. The State participated in the British Empire Exhibition of 1924. The Kashmir Court was styled "The Gem of The Smaller Courts" and attracted many visitors.

Communications—Great efforts have been made and are being made towards the improvement of roads for wheeled traffic in the State. The Jhelum Valley road (196 miles) which links the Kashmir Valley with the Punjab and the North-Western Frontier Province is considered to be one of the finest motorable mountain roads in the world.

The Banihal Cart Road, 205 miles long, which has recently been completed, joins Kashmir with the North Western Railway system at Jammu-Tawi and is also a fine motorable road.

Roads for pack animals lead from Srinagar, the summer capital of Kashmir, to the frontier districts of Gilgit and Ladakh. Internal village communications have also been much improved.

The Jammu-Suchetgarh Railway, a section of the Wazirabad-Sialkot branch line of the North Western Railway system, is the only Railway in the State. The mountainous nature of the

country has made the extension of the line into the heart of the State so far impracticable.

Public Works—In 1904 a flood spill channel above Srinagar was constructed to minimise the constant danger of floods in the River Jhelum and it was hoped that the danger would be still further reduced by the carrying out of a scheme for lowering a part of the bed of the River Jhelum by dredging, which has been taken in hand. It is interesting to know that dredging operations were once before carried out in the reign of Avantivarman (A.D. 855-883) by his engineer Suyya near Sopore, with the same object. Good progress has been made with irrigation but the most important scheme of recent years has been the installation of a large Electric Power Station on the Jhelum River at Mahora which was completed in 1907.

Education—Of the total population of 3,259,527 excluding the frontier ilqas where literacy is not recorded, there are 72,228 persons who are able to read and write, of whom 4,007 only are females. In other words, 26 out of every 1,000 persons aged five or more can read and write. Among males 46 in every 1,000 are literate. The number of educational institutions including two Arts Colleges and two technical institutes is 784 and is being steadily increased. In municipal areas education for boys has been made compulsory from 1920. Much progress has also been made in female education and two new girls' schools have been established during the year.

Reforms—The most important reforms connected with the present Maharaja's reign have been the establishment of an independent High Court of Judicature modelled on British High Courts and the annual summoning of representatives from the provinces as a beginning of popular institutions in the State. Important legislative measures passed by His Highness' Government in recent years include the raising of the age of consent to 14 for girls and 18 for boys and the 'Agriculturists' Relief Regulation meant to cope with the problem of rural indebtedness.

THE CHAMBER OF PRINCES.

The Narendra Mandal, or Chamber of Princes came into existence, with the earnest co-operation of a number of leading Princes themselves, as one of the results of the Report on Indian constitutional reform presented to Parliament by Mr. Montagu, Secretary of State for India and H. J. Lord Chelmsford, Viceroy and Governor-General of India, in 1910. The proposal was that the Chamber should exist as a permanent consultative body, with the Viceroy as President and the members composing the Chamber consisting mainly of the Princes and Chiefs having salutes, or whose membership might otherwise be considered desirable by the Viceroy. Certain smaller Chiefs were grouped and were given the privilege of nominating a member to represent them from year to year. The Chamber is a recommendatory body, which performs its functions under a constitution approved by the Secretary of State and it deals with questions submitted to it concerning the Princes and their rights and privileges generally and their position in imperial affairs.

The Chamber was formally inaugurated by H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught on 8th February 1921. It meets regularly once a year and the agenda of subjects for discussion is framed and proposed by the Chancellor of the Chamber who at present is His Highness the Maharajah of Patiala. The Chamber selects by vote its own officers, who are the Chancellor, a pro-Chancellor to act for him in his absence out of India and a Standing Committee of the Chamber. This Committee considers before the annual meetings the subjects to be discussed at them.

Until 1920, the proceedings of the Chamber were considered as confidential and there was no admittance of the general public to its meetings. At the annual session in February 1920, the Princes passed a resolution by which all meetings were ordinarily made open to the public. The Chamber contains very restricted accommodation and admission has to be regulated according to the number of seats available.

Indian States' Tribute.

Many of the States pay tribute, varying in amount according to the circumstances of each case, to the British Government. This tribute is frequently due to exchanges of territory or settlement of claims between the Governments, but is chiefly in lieu of former obligations to supply or maintain troops. The actual annual receipts in the form of tribute and contributions from Indian States are summarised in the following table. The relations of the States to one another in respect of tributes are complicated, and it would serve no useful purpose to enter upon the question. It may, however, be mentioned that a large number of the States of Kathiawar and Gujarat pay tribute of some kind to Baroda, and that Gwalior claims tribute from some of the smaller States of Central India. —

States paying tribute directly to the Government of India.

	£
Tribute from Jaipur	26,667
„ „ Kotah	15,648
„ „ Udaipur	13,333
„ „ Jodhpur	6,533
„ „ Bundi	8,000
„ „ Other States	15,170
Contribution of Jodhpur towards cost of Erihpura Irregular Force	7,667
„ of Kotah towards cost of Deohi Irregular Force	13,333
„ of Bhopal towards cost of Bhopal Levy	10,753
„ of Jaora towards cost of United Malwa Contingent	9,142
Contributions towards cost of Malwa Bhil Corps	2,280
<i>Central Provinces and Berar.</i>	
Tribute from various States	15,696
<i>Burma.</i>	
Tributes from Shan States	28,524
„ „ other States	1,367
<i>Assam.</i>	
Tribute from Manipur	333
„ „ Rambrai	7
<i>Bengal</i>	
Tribute from Cooch Behar	4,514
<i>United Provinces</i>	
Tribute from Benares	14,600
<i>Punjab.</i>	
Tribute from Mandi	6,667
„ „ other States	3,086
<i>Madras.</i>	
Tribute from Travancore	53,833
Peshkash and subsidy from Mysore	233,333
„ „ „ Cochin	13,333
„ „ „ „ Travancore	888
<i>Bombay.</i>	
Tribute from Kathiawar	31,129
„ „ various petty States	2,825
Contribution from Baroda States	25,000
„ „ Jagirdars, Southern Mahratta Country	5,765
Tribute from Cutch	5,484

It was announced at the Coronation Durbar of 1911 that there would in future be no Nazarana payments on successions!

Foreign Possessions in India.

Portugal and France both hold small territorial possessions in the Indian Peninsula.

The Portuguese possessions in India, all of which are situated within the limits of Bombay Presidency, consist of the Province of Goa on the Arabian Sea Coast, the territory of Daman with the small territory called Pragana-Nagar-

avelly on the Gujarat Coast, at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay; and the little island of Diu, with two places called Gogia and Simbor, on the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula. All these three territories constitute what is called the State of India.

GOA.

Goa forms a compact block of territory surrounded by British districts. Savantwadi State lies to the north of it the Arabian Sea on the west and North Kanara on the south, and the eastern boundary is the range of the Western Ghats, which separates it from the British districts of Belgaum and North Kanara. The extreme length from north to south is 62 miles and the greatest breadth from east to west 40 miles. The territory has a total area of 1,301 square miles and consists of the *Velhas Conquistas*, or Old Conquests, comprising the island of Goa acquired by the Portuguese in 1510, and the neighbouring municipalities of Salsette, Bardez, and Mormugao acquired in 1543, and of the *Novas Conquistas*, or New Conquests, comprising the municipalities of Pernem, Sanquelim, Ponda, Quepin, Camoena, Satiri and Sanguem acquired in the latter half of the 18th century. The small island of Angediva situated opposite the port of Karwar, in the British district of North Kanara, forms administratively a portion of the Camoena municipality. This was acquired in 1505. The whole country is hilly, especially the eastern portion, the predominating physical feature being the Western Ghats, which bound the country along the north and south-east just off westward and spread across the country in a succession of spurs and ridges. There are several conspicuous isolated peaks, of which the highest, Sonsagar, is 3,827 feet high.

The country is intersected by numerous rivers running westward from the Ghats, and the principal of which are all navigable, are in size of some importance. Goa possesses a fine harbour, formed by the promontories of Bardez and Salsette. Half-way between these extremities lies the *cabo*, or cape, which forms the extremity of the island of Goa. This divides the whole bay into two anchorages, known as Agarda and Mormugao. Both are capable of accommodating the largest shipping from September to May, but Agarda is virtually closed during the south-west monsoon, owing to the high winds and a hind to the formation of sand bars across the mouth of the Mandovi river, which opens into Agarda. Mormugao is necessary at all times and is therefore the harbour of great importance. It is the terminus of the railway running to the coast from the inland Portuguese territory. A breakwater and port facilities for the foreign trade is considered to be a great advantage. The trade from British

tion showed an increase of 9 per cent since the census ten years previously. In the *Velhas Conquistas* the majority of the population is Christian. In the *Novas Conquistas* Hindus are more numerous than Christians. The Moslems in the territory are numbered in a few thousands. The Christians still very largely adhere to caste distinctions, claiming to be Brahmins, Chaidos and low castes, which do not intermarry. The Hindus who form about one-half of the total population are largely Maratha and do not differ from those of the adjacent Konkan districts of Bombay. All classes of the people, with the exception of Europeans, use the Konkani dialect of Marathi with some admixture of Portuguese words. The official language is Portuguese, which is commonly spoken in the capital and the principal towns as well as by all educated people. Nearly all the Christians profess the Roman Catholic religion and are spiritually subject to an archbishop who has the titles of Primate of the East and Patriarch of the East Indies and exercises ecclesiastical jurisdiction also over a portion of British India, and the provinces of Macau (China) and Timor (Oceania), with missions in foreign countries and Mocambique (Portuguese East Africa). The Christians of Daman and Diu are subject under a new Treaty signed in 1928 between Portugal and the Holy See to the Archbishop of Goa. There are numerous churches in Goa, mostly built by the Jesuits and Franciscans prior to the extinction of the religious orders in Portuguese territory. The churches are in charge of secular priests. Hindus and Mahomedans now enjoy perfect freedom in religious matters and have their own places of worship. In the early days of Portuguese rule the worship of Hindu gods in public and the observance of Hindu usages were strictly forbidden and rigorously suppressed.

The Country.

A little over one-third of the entire territory of Goa is stated to be under cultivation. The fertility of the soil varies considerably according to quality, situation and water-supply. The *Velhas Conquistas* are as a rule better and more intensively cultivated than the *Novas Conquistas*. In both these divisions a holding of fifteen or sixteen acres would be considered a good sized farm but the majority of holdings are of much smaller extent varying from half an acre to five or six acres. The staple produce of the country is rice, of which there are two good harvests, but the quantity produced is barely sufficient to meet the needs of the population for two-thirds of the year. Next to rice, the culture of coconut palms is deemed most important, from the variety of uses to which the products are applied. Hilly places and inferior

The People.

The total population of Goa was 531,932 at the census of 1911. This gives a density of 403 persons to the square mile and the popula-

soils are set apart for the cultivation of cereals and several kinds of fruits and vegetables are cultivated to an important extent. The condition of the agricultural classes in the Velhas Conquistas has improved during recent years, owing to the general rise in the prices of all classes of agricultural produce and partly to the current of emigration to British territory. There is a great shortage of agricultural labour in the Velhas Conquistas. In the summer months bands of artisans and field labourers from the adjoining British territory make their way into Bardez where the demand for labour is always keen. Stately forests are found in the Novas Conquistas. They cover an area of 116 square miles and are under conservation and yield some profit to the administration. Iron is found in parts of the territory, but has not been seriously worked. Manganese also exists and some mines are being worked at present, the ore being exported to the Continent.

Commerce.

In the days of its glory, Goa was the chief entrepot of commerce between East and West and was specially famous for its trade in horses with the Persian Gulf. It lost its commercial importance with the downfall of the Portuguese Empire and its trade is now insignificant.

The present trade of Goa is not very large. Its imports amount to about Rs. 160 lakhs and exports to about Rs. 40 lakhs. The discrepancy is met from the money sent to Goa by the many emigrants who are to be found all over the world. Few manufacturing industries of any moment exist and most manufactured articles in use are imported. Exports chiefly consist of coconuts, betel nuts, mangoes and other fruits and raw produce.

A line of railway connects Mormugao with the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Its length from Mormugao to Castle Rock above the Ghats where it joins the British system, is 51 miles, of which 49 are in Portuguese territory. The railway is under the management of the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway administration, and the bulk of the trade of Mormugao port is what it brings down from and takes to the interior. The telegraphs in Portuguese territories are worked as a separate system from the British. The latter, however, had an office at Nova-Goa maintained jointly by the two Governments but since 1925 the Nova-Goa office has been handed over to the Portuguese Government which now maintains and works all the telegraphs in its territories.

Taxes and Tariffs.

The country was in a state of chronic financial equilibrium for nearly sixty years with occasional exceptions. The last war enhanced the deficits to alarming proportions and these were met by fresh taxes and new loans. Most of the new taxes were the result of the initiative of the Governor-General Jaime de Morais, who is popularly known as the 'Governor of Taxes'. Only in 1927 the country experienced the joys of a balanced budget and the public servants whose salaries had always remained in arrears are now being paid regularly. There is an estimated surplus of about a lakh and a half which has been earmarked for promoting the indus-

trial progress of the country. If municipal and national taxes be added together, the country presents a very high incidence of taxation, even higher than that of British India. The average coming to about Rs. 8-8 per cent. There is no income-tax, except for government servants, but there is a special ten per cent tax on all incomes derived in the shape of interest on loans. This tax is a powerful contributory cause to the flight of capital from Portuguese India. The chief sources of revenue are the land tax, Excise and the customs. There is a special tax on emigrants which yields to the State about Rs. 60,000. The country being economically backward, the taxes give very little indication of its productive capacity or of its annual wealth. The national wealth is a matter of pure conjecture for lack of statistics.

The tariff schedule is based on the three-fold principle, fiscal, protective and preferential. There is a limited free list on which books and paper figure prominently. The fiscal tariff ranges from 10 to 30 per cent according to the nature of the commodities, but the duties in several cases are specific, not *ad valorem*. This causes considerable hardship to trade, and specially to the poorer classes of consumers. The preferential tariff applies to goods coming from Lisbon and the Portuguese Colonies. Very recently the principle of protection has been extended to the export of canned fruits which are entitled to a bounty of 10 per cent on their basic price.

The Capital.

Nova-Goa, the present capital of Portuguese India, comprehends Panjim and Ribandar. Old Goa is some six miles distant from the new city. Panjim occupies a narrow strip of land leading up to the Cabo, the cape dividing the Aguada bay from that of Mormugao, and mainly slopes down to the edge of the Aguada. It was selected as the residence of the Portuguese Viceroy in 1759, and in 1843 it was raised to its present rank as the capital of Portuguese India. The appearance of the city, with its row of public buildings and elegant private residences, as seen from the water is very picturesque and this impression is not belied by a closer inspection of its neat and spacious roads, bordered by decent, tidy houses. The most imposing public structures are the barracks, an immense quadrangular building the eastern wing of which accommodates the Primary School, the Public Library and the Government Press. Other noticeable buildings are the Cathedral and various churches, the viceregal palace and the High Court. The square in the lower part of the town is adorned with a life-sized statue of Albuquerque standing under a canopy.

History.

Goa was captured for the Portuguese by Alfonso de Albuquerque in 1510. Albuquerque promptly fortified the place and established Portuguese rule on a firm basis. From that time Goa rapidly rose in importance and became the metropolis of Portuguese power in the East. There was constant fighting with the armies of the Bijapur kingdom but the Portuguese held their own and gained the surrounding territory now known as the Conquistas.

The subsequent history of the town is one of ostentation and decay. Goa reached its summit of prosperity at the end of the sixteenth century. The accounts of travellers show that the Goa of those days presented a scene of military, ecclesiastical and commercial magnificence which has had no parallel in the British capitals of India. Portugal, however, with its three millions of population, was too small to defend itself against Spain and maintain at the same time its immense Empire in the four Continents. Albuquerque tried to consolidate Portuguese rule in India by his policy of attracting the conquered Indians and granting them civil and religious liberties. His contemporaries, however, could not understand his far-seeing statesmanship and after his death they undid all his work basing their dominion on conquest by the sword and military force and they laboured to consolidate it by a proselytising organisation which throws all the missionary efforts of every other European power in India into the shade. Old Goa, as the ruins of the old capital are called to-day, had a hundred churches, many of them of magnificent proportions, and the Inquisition which was a power in the land. The sixty years' subjection to Spain in the 17th century completed the ruin of the Portuguese Empire in the East and though the Marquis of Pombal in the 18th century tried to stave off its decadence, his subordinates in far-off India either could not understand or would not carry out his orders and even his strong hand was unable to stop the decline. It was in the 19th century that the colonials began to enjoy full Portuguese citizenship and sent their representatives to the Parliament in Lisbon.

Modern Times.

There was frequently recurring fighting and in 1741 the Marathas invaded the neighbourhood of Goa and threatened the city itself. An army of 12,000 men arrived from Portugal at the critical moment. The invaders were beaten off, and the *Novas Conquistas* were added to the Portuguese possessions. In 1844 the shelter given by Goa to fugitives from justice in British territory threatened to bring about a rupture with the British Government at Bombay. In 1852 the Ranes of Satara, in the *Novas Conquistas*, revolted. In 1871 the native army in Goa mutinied and the King's own brother came from Lisbon to deal with the trouble and having done so disbanded the native army, which has never been reconstituted. But another outbreak among the troops took place in 1895 and the Ranes joining them the trouble was again not quieted until the arrival of another special expedition from Lisbon. The Ranes again broke out in 1901 and again in 1912, troops being again imported to deal with the last outbreak, which was only reported concluded in the summer of 1913. There has been no outbreak after that date.

The people on the whole appear to be quite satisfied with the Portuguese connection. There is no agitation for further reforms as in British India and not a sign of disaffection against Portuguese rule. This is chiefly due to the fact that under the present regime the natives of Goa enjoy complete equality with the natives of Por-

tugal, many of the sons of Goa occupying high and responsible positions in Portugal. Thus Elvino de Brito who was Minister of Public Works towards the end of the last century was a native of Goa as was the father of Dr. Bettencourt Rodrigues, Minister for Foreign Affairs in General Carmona's dictatorial Government. Natives of Goa are also Dr. Almeida Azevedo, the President of the Supreme Court in Lisbon, Dr. Cacteno Gonsalves, Judge of the same Court and Mr. Alberto Xavier, Secretary-General of the Ministry of Finance.

Administration.

The Lisbon Government by Decree No 3266, dated 27th July 1917, enacted new rules regarding the administration of Portuguese India under an Organic Charter (*Carta Organica*) in force since 1st July 1919. This Charter, regarding civil and financial administration of the colony, was modified by rules Nos 1005 and 1022, dated 7th and 20th August 1920, and decrees Nos 7008 and 7030 dated 9th and 16th October. A new Organic Charter modifying in certain parts the earlier one was granted by Decree No 12499 of 4th October 1928 and is now in force.

The territory of Portuguese India is ruled by one Governor-General, residing in the Capital of the State, at Panjim *alias* Nova-Goa, and is divided into three districts. Goa, Daman and Diu. The last two are each under a Lieutenant-Governor. The district of Goa is under the direct superintendency of the Governor-General.

Subordinate to the Governor-General the following Secretariats are working: Home and Political, Finance, Customs, Education, Military, Naval, Agriculture, Health and Public Works. There are also three special and autonomous Departments, which do not constitute exclusive Secretariats, one of them being the Department of Posts and Telegraphs, the second that of Survey and the third that of the Fiscal of the W. I. P. Railway.

As the principal organ of administration next to the Governor-General and in collaboration with him works a Governor's Council (*Conselho do Governo*) with Legislative and advisory powers. The Council is constituted, in addition to the Governor-General, *ex-officio* President, of four officials (Attorney-General, the Director of Finances, the Director of Civil Administration and the Director of Public Works), five elected members (three representing *Velhas Conquistas*, one the *Novas Conquistas* and one the Districts of Daman and Diu) and five members nominated by the Governor-General to represent the minorities, agricultural, commercial and other interests and the press.

In each province of Goa, Daman and Diu, there is a District Council to supervise the Municipalities and other local institutions. The District Council of Goa is composed of the Director of Civil Administration, President, the Government Prosecutor of the Nova-Goa Civil Court, the Deputy Chief Health Officer; the Engineer next to the Director of Public Works; the Deputy Director of Finances; the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation of the Islands, one member elected by the Commercial and Industrial Associations of the district; one member elected by the 60 highest tax payers of Goa; one member elected by the Associations of Land-

owners and Farmers of the District, and one member advocates elected by the Legislative Council among the legally qualified.

At Daman and Diu the corresponding body is composed of the local Governor, President, the Government Prosecutor, the Chief of the Public Works Department, the Health Officer, the Financial Director of the district, the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation, two members elected by 40 highest tax payers of the District and one member elected by the Merchants, Industrialists and Farmers of the district.

Under the provisions of the above quoted Decree is also officiating in the capital of Portuguese India a administrative court tribunal to take cognizance and decide all litigious administrative matters, fiscal questions and accounts. It is named *Tribunal Administrativo Fiscal e de Contas* and is composed of the Chief Justice as President, four High Court judges, one superior Government officer, who must be a Bachelor of Laws, nominated by the Government and a citizen, who is not an official elected by the Governor-General's Council. When matters regarding finances and accounts

come up for decision and discussion the Director of Finances also sits on this Tribunal.

Under the presidency of the Governor-General the following bodies are also working:—

Technical Council of Public Works—Its members are all engineers on permanent duty in the head office, a military officer of high rank in the army or navy, the Director of Finances, the Attorney-General, the Chief Health Officer and a Secretary being a clerk of the Public Works Department appointed by the Director of Public Works.

Council of Public Instruction—This Council presided over by the Governor-General is composed of five officials the Director of Civil Administration, the Director of the Medical College, the Director of the Lyceum, the Director of the Normal School and the Inspector of Primary Schools, and four nominated members.

There is one High Court in the State of India with five Judges and one Attorney-General, and Courts of Justice at Panjim, Margao, Mapu, Bicholim, Quepem e Damio; and Municipal Courts of Justice at Mormugão (Vasco da Gama), Ponda, Diu and Nagar-Aveli.

PORT OF MORMUGAO.

Mormugão is situated towards the south of Aguada Bar, on the left Bar, on the left bank of Zuari River in Lat 15° 25' N. and Long 73° 47' E, about 225 miles south of Bombay and 62 miles south of Panjim, the Capital of Portuguese India. The Port of Mormugão is the natural outlet to the sea for the whole area served by the M. & S. M. Ry. (metre-gauge), and offers the shortest route both passenger and goods traffic. The distance from Aden to Mormugão is about the same as from Aden to Bombay. The Port is provided with light-houses, buoys and all necessary marks and it is easily accessible all the year round and at any hour of the day or night even without the assistance of a Pilot. Pilotage is not compulsory, but when usual pilot flag is hoisted, a qualified officer will board the vessel and render such assistance.

Mormugão Harbour is the terminal station of the West of India Portuguese Railway which is controlled by the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company, with headquarters at Madras. Goods are shipped direct from Mormugão to any Continental Ports, every facility being afforded for such direct shipments. Cargo can be unloaded from or loaded direct into railway wagons, which run alongside steamers, thus reducing handling. Warehouses are built on the quay and have railway sidings alongside. Steamers of over 5,000 tons net register, from any Continental Ports can be discharged or loaded rapidly and in complete safety, in a working day of 10 hours 650 tons iron work or 800 tons bale or bag cargo can ashore be loaded or discharged. The port is provided with steam cranes and all other appliances for quick loading and discharging of vessels, one of the cranes being of 30 tons capacity for discharging heavy lifts. The tonnage, quay dues and all other charges are very low, special concessions being granted to steamers arriving from European or American Ports touching Lisbon. Fresh water can be obtained at a low cost.

The Bombay Steam Navigation Company's (Shepherd) steamers between Bombay and Mangalore call at Mormugão twice a week. The British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers between Bombay and Africa call at Mormugão at least once a month. The Ellerman Strick Line maintains a regular service from Liverpool to Mormugão calling occasionally at Lisbon. This service offers every facility for shipment from the United Kingdom to stations on the M. & S. M. Railway under the "Combined Sea and Rail Through Bills of Lading." There are several stevedoring firms, the maximum rate for discharging or loading coal and general cargo being fixed by Government at 6 annas per ton, deadweight. Goods for British India pass through Goa without any charge being collected by Portuguese Government. British Customs duty payable at Castle-Block can be paid by the Railway Company and collected at destination. Goods from stations on the M. & S. M. Ry. System to Mormugão or vice-versa are railed without transshipment, thus avoiding a second handling. Steam tugs, barges, etc., for unloading in the stream can be had at a very low charge.

With a view to promoting the economical, commercial and industrial development of Mormugão, a special Department under the designation of the "Mormugão Improvement Trust" with its head office at Vasco da Gama, 2 miles from Mormugão Harbour, has been created and the Local Government have introduced various regulations granting every facility to those intending to raise buildings for residential and industrial purposes in the whole area, comprising about 1,000 acres near the Harbour. There are over 2,000 plots each measuring between 1,000 and 2,000 square metres (each square yard—0.8361 square metres), available for residential quarters, granted on permanent lease on cash payment of Rs. 1-8 per square metre according to the situation, in addition to an annual rent of 4 pice per square metre as per the regulations.

Within about 60 days from the date of application for a plot, the same is made over to the applicant or to the highest bidder, should there be more than one applicant for one and the same plot. The plan of buildings is in all cases subject to the approval of the Chairman of the Improvement Trust, such plan being required to be submitted within 60 days from the date the plot is made over to the lessee, and the period within which building is to be completed is 2 years. Importation of building materials is allowed free of Custom duties. In addition to the above, there is an extensive area available and reserved only for Industrial and Commercial Establishments this area being known as "Free Zone". Within this "Free Zone," in addition to plots, which are leased at a very low rate for building factories, bonded warehouses or for establishment of any kind of industrial or commercial concerns, in accordance with rules and regulations lately issued by the local Government, special concessions and privileges are granted, such as:

(I) *For Establishment of Factories or Industrial Concerns.*—All machinery, building materials, tools, raw materials, etc., required for construction, maintenance and regular working

of the Factories are permitted free of import duty, likewise export of the goods manufactured within the "Free Zone."

(II) *For Establishment of Depots of Manufactured or Unmanufactured Goods, Bonded Warehouses, etc., etc.*—All goods imported by the Concessionaire for the purpose of a depot are allowed to be exported to any Foreign territory, after being improved and repaired if necessary, without payment of either import or export duty.

(III) *Exemption of Government Taxes.*—In addition to the above privileges, all Factories, Commercial Establishments, buildings, etc., within the "Free Zone" are exempt from all Government taxes for a period of 20 years from May 1923. Applications for any of the above concessions have to be addressed to the Governor-General of Portuguese India and presented at the office of the Mormugao Improvement Trust at Vasco da Gama, giving therein full particulars of the area and plots, etc., required. Such applications are disposed of within as little time as possible. For information can be obtained from the Mormugao Improvement Trust, Vasco da Gama.

DAMAN.

The settlement of Damán lies at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay, about 100 miles north of Bombay. It is composed of two portions, namely, Damán proper, lying on the coast, and the detached pargana of Nagar Aveli, separated from it by a narrow strip of British territory and bisected by the B. B. & C. I. Railway. Damán proper contains an area of 22 square miles and 26 villages and has a population (1921) of 17,566 of whom 1,480 are Christians. The number of houses is according to the same census 4,095. Nagar Aveli has an area of 60 square miles and a population (1921) of 31,048, of whom only 271 are Christians. The number of houses is 6,069. The town of Damán was sacked by the Portuguese in 1531, rebuilt by the natives and retaken by the Portuguese in 1558, when they made it one of their permanent establishments in India. They converted the mosque into a church and have since built eight other places of worship. The native Christians adopt the European costume, some of the women dressing themselves after the present European fashion, and others following the old style of petticoat and mantle once prevalent in Spain and Portugal.

The soil of the settlement is moist and fertile, especially in Nagar Aveli, but despite the

ease of cultivation only one-twentieth part of the territory is under tillage. The principal crops are rice, wheat, the inferior cereals of Gujarat, and tobacco. The settlement contains many minerals. There are stately forests in Nagar Aveli, and about two-thirds of them consist of teak, but the forests are not conserved and the extent of land covered by each kind of timber has not been determined. Before the decline of Portuguese power in the East, Damán carried on an extensive commerce especially with the east coast of Africa. In those days it was noted for its dyeing and weaving.

The territory forms for administrative purposes a single district and has a Municipal Chamber and Corporation. It is ruled by the Governor-invested with both civil and military functions, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is administered by a judge, with an establishment composed of a delegate of the Attorney-General and two clerks. In Nagar Aveli the greater part of the soil is the property of the Government, from whom the cultivators hold the lands direct. A tax is levied on all land, whether alienated or the property of the State. The chief sources of revenue are land-tax, forests, excise and customs duties.

DIU.

Diú is an island lying off the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow channel through a considerable swamp. It is composed of three portions, namely, Diú proper (island), the village of Gogla, on the Peninsula separated by the channel, and the fortress of Sumbor, about 5 miles west of the island. It has a small but excellent harbour, where vessels can safely ride at anchor in two fathoms of water and owing to the great advantages which its position offers for trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf, the Portuguese were fired at an early period with a desire to obtain possession

of it. This they gained, first by treaty with the Sultan of Gujarat and then by force arms. Diú became opulent and famous for its commerce. It has now dwindled to insignificance. The extreme length of the island is about seven miles and its breadth north to south, two miles. The area is 14 square miles. The population of the town of Diú, from which the island takes its name, is said to have been 50,000 in the days of commercial prosperity. The total population of the island, according to the census of 1921, is 13,844, of whom 228 are Christians.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

The French possessions in India comprise five Settlements, with certain dependent lodges, or plots. They aggregate 208 square miles, and had a total population on the 26th Feb 1931 of 286,410. The first French expedition into Indian waters, with a view to open up commercial relations, was attempted in 1603. It was undertaken by private merchants at Rouen, but it failed, as also did several similar attempts which followed. In 1642 Cardinal Richelieu founded the first *Campagne d'Orient*, but its efforts met with no success. Colbert reconstituted the Company on a larger basis in 1664, granting exemption from taxes and a monopoly of the Indian trade for fifty years. After having twice attempted, without success, to establish itself in Madagascar, Colbert's Company again took up the idea of direct trade with India and its President, Caron, founded in 1668 the *Comptoir*, or agency, at Surat. But on finding that city unsuited for a head establishment he seized the harbour of Trincomalee in Ceylon from the Dutch. The Dutch, however, speedily retook Trincomalee, and Caron, passing over to the Coromandel coast, in 1672, seized St Thome, a Portuguese town adjoining Madras, which had for twelve years been in the possession of Holland. He was, however, compelled to restore it to the Dutch in 1674.

The ruin of the Company seemed impending when one of its agents, the celebrated Francois Martin, suddenly restored it. Rallying under him a handful of sixty Frenchmen, saved out of the wreck of the settlements at Trincomalee and St Thome, he took up his abode at Pondicherry, then a small village, which he purchased in 1683 from the Raja of Gingee. He built fortifications, and a trade began to spring up; but he was unable to hold the town against the Dutch, who wrested it from him in 1693, and held it until it was restored to the French by the Peace of Ryswick. In 1697 Pondicherry became in this year and has ever since remained, the most important of the French Settlements in India. Its foundation was contemporaneous with that of Calcutta. Like Calcutta, its site was purchased by a European Company from a native prince, and what Job Charnock was to Calcutta Francois Martin proved to Pondicherry. On restitution to the French by the Peace of Ryswick in 1697, Martin was appointed governor, and under his able management Pondicherry became an entrepot of trade.

Chandernagore, in Lower Bengal, had been acquired by the French Company in 1683, by treaty from the Delhi Emperor, Mahé, on the Allahabad Coast, was obtained in 1725-6, under the government of M. Lenoir, Karikal, on the Coromandel Coast, under that of M. Dumas, in 1739. Yanam, on the coast of the Northern Arras, was taken possession of in 1750, and finally ceded to the French two years later.

Administration.

The military command and administration in all of the French possessions in India are vested in a Governor, whose residence is at Pondicherry. The office is at present held by Monsieur George Bourret (Francois-Adrien). He is assisted

by a Chief Justice and by several "Chefs de Service" in the different administrative departments. In 1879 local councils and a council-general were established, the members being chosen by a sort of universal suffrage within the French territories. Seventeen Municipalities, or Communal Boards, were erected in 1907, namely, Pondicherry, Ariancoupam, Modelharpeth, Oulgarret, Villenour, Throubouane, Bahour and Nettapacam, for the establishment of Pondicherry, Karikal, Neravy, Nedouncadou, Tirunalar, Grande Aldée, Cotchery, for the establishment of Karikal, and also Chandernagore, Mahé and Yanam. On municipal boards natives are entitled to a proportion of the seats. Civil and criminal courts, courts of first instance and a court of appeal compose the judicial machinery. The army and establishments connected with the Governor and his staff at Pondicherry, and those of administrators at Chandernagore, Yanam, Mahé and Karikal, together with other headquarters charges necessarily engross a large proportion of the revenue. All the state and dignity of an independent Government, with four dependent ones, have to be maintained. This is effected by rigid economy, and the prestige of the French Government is worthily maintained in the East. Pondicherry is also the scene of considerable religious pomp and missionary activity. It forms the seat of an Archbishop, with a body of priests for all French India; and of the Missions Etrangères, the successors of the Mission du Carnatic founded by the Jesuits in 1776. But the chief field of this mission lies outside the French Settlements, a large proportion of its Christians are British subjects and many of the churches are in British territory. The British rupee is the ordinary tender within French territories. A line of railway running via Villenour, from Pondicherry to Villupuram on the South Indian Railway, maintains communication with Madras and the rest of British India, and Karikal is linked to the same railway by the branch from Peralam. A Chamber of Commerce consisting of fifteen members, nine of them Europeans or persons of European descent, was reorganised by a decree of 7th March, 1914. The capital, Pondicherry, is a very handsome town, and presents, especially from the sea a striking appearance of French civilisation.

People and Trade.

The Settlements are represented in Parliament at Paris by one senator and one deputy. The Senator is Mons. Lemoligne. The Deputy is Mons. Pierre Dupuy. There were in 1932 69 primary schools and 3 colleges all maintained by the Government, with 308 teachers and 9,203 pupils. Local revenue and expenditure (Budget of 1932) Rs 2,694,019. The principal crops are paddy, groundnut, and ragi. There are at Pondicherry 3 cotton mills, and at Chandernagore 1 jute mill. The cotton mills have, in all 1,631 looms and 71,744 spindles, employing 7,450 persons. There are also at work one oil factory and a few oil presses for groundnuts, and one ice factory.

The Frontiers.

By those who take a long view of politics in the wide sense of the term, it will be seen that the Indian Frontier problem, which has loomed so large in the discussion of Indian questions, has always borne a two-fold character—the local issue and the international issue. For almost a century the international issue was the greater of the two, and the most serious question which the Indian Government, both directly and as the executors of British Imperial policy, had to face. But the tendency of later times was for the international aspect to recede and for the local aspect to grow in importance, until it might be said, with as much truth as characterises all generalisations, that the local issue dominated if it did not absorb the situation.

The Local Problem.—The local problem, in its broadest outlines, may be briefly indicated before proceeding to discuss it in detail. From the Arabian Sea on the West to the confines of Nepal is a wild and troublous sea of some of the highest mountains in the world. The thin valleys in these immense ranges are poorly populated by hardy, brave, militant mountaineers, rendered the more difficult by professing the martial Moslem faith, accentuated by the most bitter fanaticism. But sparse as the population is, it is in excess of the supporting power of the country. Like mountaineers in all parts of the world, these brave and fearless men have sought to make out their exiguous agriculture by raiding the rich plains of Hindustan. We may find a fairly close parallel to the situation in the position of the Highlands of Scotland until after the rebellion of 1745 the English Government of the day sought a permanent remedy by opening for the warlike Highlanders a military career in the famous Highland regiments, and in rendering military operations easier by the construction of Wade's roads. The Highland problem has disappeared long from English politics but its precepts and lessons are little realised, but if the candid student will read again that brilliant survey by Neil Munro, "The New Road," he will recognise what Wade's work meant for the Highlands of Scotland, and what lessons it teaches to those who are called upon to face, in its local aspect, the Indian frontier problem. So far as the area with which we are dealing was concerned, two policies were tried. In Baluchistan, the genius of Sir Robert Sandeman devised the method of entering into military occupation of the principal points, and thence controlling the country. At the same time close engagements were entered into with the principal chiefs, through whom the tribesmen were kept in order. That policy was so successful that whilst the administration was expensive the Baluchistan frontier did not seriously embarrass the Government of India from the time when Sandeman set his mark on the land. Not that the country was entirely peaceful. Occasional tribal raids or risings necessitated occasional military operations, and the Gomal Pass was involved in the general tribal disturbances which followed the wanton declaration of war by Afghanistan

in 1919. But speaking broadly, Sandeman brought peace to Baluchistan, and to the large frontier area which is embraced in that generic term. So far as this section of the frontier is concerned it may be said that no frontier problem exists, save the need for an economical and constructive policy.

Towards Afghanistan.—Far otherwise has it lately been with the section of the frontier which stretches from Baluchistan to the confines of Kashmir. That has, for three quarters of a century, been the scene of almost ceaseless military operations, which have constituted a devastating drain on the Indian exchequer. For years one sought for a definite policy guiding the actions of the Government of India. One explanation of their inconsistencies was found in the existence of two schools of thought. Once the frontier with Afghanistan had been delimited, the soldiers naturally pressed for the armed occupation of the whole country right up to the confines of Afghanistan, or at any rate, for military posts, linked with good communications, which would dominate the country. But those who looked at policy not only from the military standpoint, were fearful of two considerations. They felt that occupation up to the Afghan frontier would only shift the frontier problem farther North. Instead of the differing tribes, we should, they argued, have to meet the Afghan on our border line. If Afghanistan were a strong, homogeneous State, that would be a matter of little account. But even under the iron rule of Abdurrahman Khan, the Amir's writ ran but lightly in the southern confines of his kingdom. Under his successor, Habibullah Khan, whose policy was generally wise and successful, it ran still less firmly. The Amir was unable to control the organisation of the tribal gatherings which involved us in the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions during the Indian secretarship of that arch pacifist, Lord Morley. Nor did it enable Habibullah to deal effectively with a rising against his own Governor in Khosht. The Afghan forces melted away under transport difficulties when they were moved against the rebellious Khoshtwabs, and the Amir had to make peace with his troublesome vassals. Therefore, it was said, occupation up to what is called the Durand Line because it is the line demarcated by the Frontier Commission in which Sir Mortimer Durand was the British Plenipotentiary, would simply mean that in time of trouble we should have to deal with Afghanistan instead of a tribe or two, and with the irreconcilable tribesmen along our difficult line of communications. There was the further consideration that financiers were of the fixed belief that even if the Forward Policy was wise from the military standpoint, it would involve charges over an indefinite period greater than the Indian finances would bear. Moreover on this section of the frontier, the position was complicated by the expansion of Russia in Central Asia. The great passes, and the passes down which for centuries from the time of Alexander the Great invaders

have swept from Persia and Central Asia to loot the fat plains of Hindustan, traverse this region. Therefore it was deemed essential to control, if not to occupy them in the interests of the Imperial situation. In this zone there were policy ridden and showed between the Forward School, which would have occupied, or dominated, the whole Frontier up to the Durand Line, that is to say up to the Afghan frontier, and the Close Border School, which would have remained out of the difficult impenetrable zone and used the tribesmen on the plain as a buffer force. The extreme advocates of this school would even have had us return to the line of the Indus.

The Two Policies.—The result of this conflict of opinion was a series of vacillations, of compromises, which the all-comprehensive was probably unsatisfactory. It is pushed forward to the border and there which irritate the Tribesmen, and make them fearful of their prized independence, without controlling them. The policy of posts were in many cases inadequate, held up, rarely were they linked with their supporting posts by adequate means of communication. We preferred between our administrative frontier and the Durand Line which demarcated our frontier with Afghanistan an intermediate line called the Independent Territory, in which neither we nor the Afghan Government exercised jurisdiction. This was left entirely under the control of the tribes who populated it. Now it was often asked why we did not follow the precedent of Baluchistan and Sindharan. The Independent Territory. That was one of the perennial topics of Frontier discussion. But it was held upon the essential difference between this zone and Baluchistan. Sir Robert Sandeman found a strong tribal system existing in Baluchistan, and he was able to enter into direct engagements with the tribal chiefs. There is no such tribal organisation in the Independent Territory. The tribal chief, or inwall, exercises a very precarious authority, and the instrument for the collective expression of the tribal will is not the chief, but the Jirga, or tribal council, of the most democratic character, where the voice of the young men of the tribe often has the same influence, in time of excitement perhaps more influence, than the voice of the wisest greybeard. The bitter fruit of this policy of compromise was reaped in 1897, when following a minor outbreak in the Tocki Valley the general uneasiness flamed into a rising which involved the whole of the North-West Frontier, from the Gomal to the borders of Nepal. A force over thirty thousand strong had to be mobilised to deal with it. Even this large force, owing to the immense difficulties of transportation, was unable effectively to deal with the situation, though peace was made. The emergency thus created synchronised with the advent of Lord Curzon as Viceroy. He dealt with it in masterful fashion. In the first place, he separated the frontier zone from the Government of the Punjab, which had hitherto been responsible for its administration, and had organised for the purpose a special force of Frontier soldiers, known as the Punjab Irregular Frontier Force. This was the revival of a scheme as old as the Viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, though no other Viceroy had been able to carry it through in the face of the strong opposition of successive Punjab Governments. The area so separated was

constituted into a separate administrative zone under the direct authority of the Government of India, over which the Chief Commissioner. This force was an expeditionary force, the advanced military post, and was to be maintained in being in the event of a sudden attack. The military force of the British in the Frontier was the 1st of the Frontier Force, which was a regular force, and was to be maintained in being in the event of a sudden attack. The military force of the British in the Frontier was the 1st of the Frontier Force, which was a regular force, and was to be maintained in being in the event of a sudden attack.

Lord Curzon's Success.—The result of this policy of compromise was reaped in 1897, when following a minor outbreak in the Tocki Valley the general uneasiness flamed into a rising which involved the whole of the North-West Frontier, from the Gomal to the borders of Nepal. A force over thirty thousand strong had to be mobilised to deal with it. Even this large force, owing to the immense difficulties of transportation, was unable effectively to deal with the situation, though peace was made. The emergency thus created synchronised with the advent of Lord Curzon as Viceroy. He dealt with it in masterful fashion. In the first place, he separated the frontier zone from the Government of the Punjab, which had hitherto been responsible for its administration, and had organised for the purpose a special force of Frontier soldiers, known as the Punjab Irregular Frontier Force. This was the revival of a scheme as old as the Viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, though no other Viceroy had been able to carry it through in the face of the strong opposition of successive Punjab Governments. The area so separated was

to avert the settlement of their account by the murder. When he was done to death, his brother, Nasrullah Khan, was proclaimed Amir by the assassins. But the conscience of Afghanistan revolted against the idea of Nasrullah, the arch fanatic of the ruling House of Kabul, ascending the throne over the blood-stained corpse of his brother. A military movement in Kabul itself brushed him aside and installed the son of Habibullah, Amanullah Khan, on the throne. But Amanullah Khan soon found it was a thorny bed on which he lay, and encouraged by the disorders in India which followed the passing of stringent measures to deal with anarchical crime, set his troops in motion on April 25, 1919, and preaching a *jihad* promised his soldiery the traditional loot of Hindustan. The Indian Army was at once set in motion, and as has always been the case the regular Afghan Army was easily beaten. Dacca was seized, Jelalabad and Kabul were frequently bombed from the air, and there was nothing to prevent our occupation of Kabul, save the knowledge gleaned from the bitter heritage of the wars of 1838 and 1878, that it is one thing to overset a government in Afghanistan, but it is quite another to set up a stable government in its stead. The Government of India wisely held their hand, and the Afghans having sued for peace, a treaty was signed on the 8th August 1919.

But an untoward effect of this wanton war was to set the Frontier from the Gomal to the Khyber ablaze. With one or two exceptions, the Tribal Militia left without the support of the regular troops who in the emergency ought to have been hastened to their succour, could not stand the strain of an appeal from their fellow tribesmen, and either melted away or joined the rising. This has often been described as the failure of the Curzon policy, which was based on the tribal militia. But there is another aspect to this issue, which was set out in a series of brilliant articles which Mr Arthur Moore, its special correspondent, contributed to *The Times*. He pointed out that the militia was meant to be a military police force. The lapse of time, and forgetfulness of its real purpose, had converted the militia into an imitation of the regular army. The Militia was meant to be a police. When the war broke out its units were treated as a covering force behind which the Regular Army mobilised. This is a role which it was never intended they should serve, exposed to a strain which they should never have been called upon to bear, they crumpled under it. If on the outbreak of trouble troops had promptly hurried to their support all might have been well. Left to look after themselves, with no sign of support, they found themselves too weak to hold their positions and militarily their only course was to retire from the midst of their own kinsmen, as the seal of revolt surged towards them. They would not take it.

Russia and the Frontier.—The Curzon policy was up to the time of its collapse greatly assisted by extraneous events. The greatest external force in moulding Indian frontier policy was the long struggle with Russia. For nearly three quarters of a century a welled warfare for predominance in Asia was waged between Great Britain and Russia. There are few pages

in British foreign policy less attractive to the student of Imperial affairs. Russia was confronted in Central Asia with precisely the same conditions as those which faced England in India when the course of events converted the old East India Company from a trading corporation into a governing body. The decaying khanates of Central Asia were impossible neighbours. Confronted with an inferior civilisation, and with neighbours who would not let her alone, Russia had to advance. True, the adventurous spirits in her armies, and some of the great administrators in the Tsarist capital were not adverse to paying off on the Indian Borderland the score against Great Britain for the Crimean War, and for what the Russian thought was depriving them of the fruits of their costly victory over Turkey in 1877-78. The result was a long and unsatisfactory guerrilla enterprise between the hardest spirits on both sides, accompanied by periodic panics in the British Press each time the Russians moved forward, which induced the coming, after the Russian occupation of Merv, of the generic term "Mervousness." This external force involved the Government of India in the humiliations of the Afghan War of 1838, with the tragic destruction of the retiring Indian force between Kabul and Jelalabad, slightly relieved by the heroic defence of Jelalabad and the firmness of General Pollock in refusing to withdraw the punitive army until he had set his mark on Kabul by the razing of the famous Bala Hisar fortress. It involved us in the second Afghan War of 1878, which left the baffling problem of no stable government in Afghanistan. There was a gleam of light when Abdurrahman Khan, whom we set up at Kabul to relieve us of our perplexities, proved himself a strong and capable ruler, if one ruthless in his methods. But in the early eighties the two States were on the verge of war over a squabble for the possession of Penjdeh, and then men began to think a little more clearly. There began a series of boundary delimitations and agreements which clarified the situation, without however finally settling it. The old controversy broke out in another form when intrigues with a Buriat monk, Dorjoff, during Lord Curzon's viceroyalty, gave rise to the grave suspicion that the scene had only shifted to Tibet. An expedition to Lhasa rent the veil which had so long concealed the mysterious city and dispersed the miasma of this intrigue. But it was not until the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 that the two countries arrived at a stage long sought by those who looked beyond their noses. The actual authors of the Agreement were Lord Grev, the Foreign Secretary, and Lord Hardinge, formerly British Ambassador in Petrograd, but it had been directed by their predecessors, whose efforts were rendered nugatory by the intransigent attitude of the dominant forces in Petrograd. It was not until Russia was chastened on the battle-field of Manchuria by Japan, and disappaid as a sea power in the decisive battle of Tsushima, that an atmosphere was created favourable to the conclusion of an Agreement. This embraced the whole frontier zone. There were many unsatisfactory features in the Agreement, especially in regard to Persia, for which we had to pay a considerable price in the "old"

Minor and The Middle East, and the route-selected, often criticised, was the best for the rapid movement of troops to the strategic centres. As a commercial line, the Railway, if completed, would have served three zones. The western area of Turkey in Asia at Haidar Pasha. The rich lands of Anatolia at Alexandretta. The eastern zone at Basra. The Germans, it is understood, attached immense importance to the subsequent engagements with Turkey which placed them in maritime command at Alexandretta. They began to inaugurate a commercial position in the Persian Gulf through the establishment of a subsidized line of steamers run by the great Hamburg-America corporation. They strove to obtain an actual footing in the Gulf through the German house of Winkhaus. The Germans were probably never serious in their alleged designs on Koweit, which could never have borne a more definite relation to the commerce of the Gulf than Flushing to Antwerp or Ouxhaven to Hamburg, that was one of the red herrings they drew across their trail to divert attention from their real objective, Basra, which is destined by virtue of an unchallengeable geographical and natural position to be the great port of The Middle East. These considerations have no more than an academic value now. Germany was defeated. The Turks, when they emerged from an isolated military despotism based on Angora, were confronted with the immense problem of re-building their bankrupt State, deprived of the most intelligent section of the old population—the Greeks and the Armenians, by massacre and expulsion—were a very different factor. The completion of the through line was indefinitely postponed. But as the advantages of the route, for the purposes we have indicated, are many and great, the ultimate construction of the through line is only a matter of time, so one has placed these authoritative characteristics on record for the guidance of opinion when the project of the through route is revived, as it must be.

Turkey and the Frontier—The position of Turkey on the Indian frontier was never of any considerable importance in itself, and never assumed any significance, save as the *avant courier* of Germany, when she passed under the tutelage of that Power, and for a limited period during the war. Although so long established in Mesopotamia, Turkey was not very firmly seated in that country, the Arabs tolerated rather than accepted Turkish rule so long as they were substantially left alone, and the administration, it is understood, never paid its way. For a brief period Muidhat Pasha raised the status of Mesopotamia, and after the Revolution that fine soldier Nazim Pasha became a power in the land. But speaking broadly Turkey remained in Mesopotamia because it was no-one's interest, even that of the Arab, to turn her out. When however Germany developed her "B B B" policy, Turkey was used as a stalking horse. She moved a small force to the Peninsula of Al-Katr in order to frighten the Sheikh of Bahrain, and tried to convert the nominal suzerainty exercised, or rather claimed, over the Sheikh of Koweit into a *de facto* suzerainty, exercised by military force. These efforts faded before the vigorous action of the British Government which con-

cluded a binding arrangement with the Sheikh of Koweit, and the position of the Turks at Al-Katr was always very precarious. On the outbreak of the war however the situation profoundly changed. When the sound and carefully executed expedition to Basra and its strategic hinterland was developed into the insane enterprise to capture Baghdad by *coup de main*, with very inadequate forces, and still more inadequate transport, we found ourselves involved in military operations of the most extensive and unprofitable character. These were completely successful with General Maude's occupation of Baghdad. After the Russian *débâcle* we found ourselves involved in a new front, which stretched from the Euphrates to the wildest part of Central Asia, producing military exploits of an almost epic character, but exercising little influence on the war. They were brought to an end by pressure not on extensive wings, but at the heart of Turkish Power in Palestine, where Lord Allenby scattered the Turks like chaff. But the aftermath of the war left us in an indefinite position in Mesopotamia, with indefinite frontiers. This enabled the Turks, if they were so disposed, to be troublesome through guerilla warfare in the Mosul Zone, and by stirring up the Kurds, who are the Ishmaelites of Asia Minor. The conclusion of the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923 brought temporary relief, but it did not settle the main issue, the frontier between Turkey and Irak. Under the Treaty it was provided that if the two parties could not agree to a boundary line delimitation should be left to The League of Nations. Negotiations were promptly opened at Constantinople, but it was immediately found that there could be no mutual agreement; the Turks demanded the whole of the Mosul vilayet, and the British delegates declared that Mosul and its hinterland were necessary to the existence of Irak. The issue therefore went to the League of Nations. That body despatched a neutral commission to study the position on the spot, this commission reported that the best settlement would be for the Mosul vilayet to be incorporated in Irak, if the British Government were prepared to prolong its mandate over that State for a period of twenty-five years. When the report of this commission came before the League in 1925 Britain gave the necessary guarantee, and the Council of The League unanimously allotted the Mosul vilayet to Irak. The Turkish delegates, who at first recognised the decisive authority of the League, then declared that they would not be bound by its decisions. So the matter rested at the end of the year, with Irak in occupation of the disputed up to the temporary frontier, which was known as The Brussels Line. After at first breathing nothing but armed resistance to acceptance of the award, the Turks afterwards assumed a more conciliatory note, and, alarmed, it may be, by the threat of Italian aggression, accepted the frontier line demarcated by the League.

France and the Frontier—If we touch for a few sentences on the position of France on the frontiers of India, it is not because they have any present day significance, but in order to complete this brief survey of the waning and waning of external influences on Indian frontier policy. It is difficult to find any sound policy behind the efforts of France to obtain a co-ling

This controversy lasted long. It resulted in a typically British compromise which specially arose from the changed conditions in which we found ourselves in 1922, when our troops were in occupation of Waziristan as a result of the operations forced upon us for the suppression of the tribal outbreak which the Afghans started up in support of their invasion of India in 1919. The ensuing policy has been aptly described as the "half-forward" policy. It is in truth a repetition of the Sandeman policy, adapted to local conditions. There has been no withdrawal in the ordinary sense of the term, but the limit of the North Waziristan occupation was temporarily fixed at Ramrak, not at Ladha. A network of consequential roads was pushed forward. Its elaboration continues. In South Waziristan, Wana has been re-occupied, partly in response to a pressing invitation from the Wana Wazirs, because they wanted to share the benefits

which they saw British occupation to be bringing to their cousins northward of them. In February, 1933, control over tribal territory was pushed forward beyond Razmak towards the Afghan border because of a rebellion on the Afghan side and of the need to assist the King of Kabul by preventing excursions by hordes of Wazirs into His Majesty's disturbed territory. The work of control and of civilization is rapidly progressing in the whole territory. Of this particulars are given on 272 and following pages. One of its latest fruits is a request by the Afridi for roads in their country of Tirah, a beginning with construction has been made.

The main Indian rail-head, which for many years terminated at Jamrud, at the easterly entrance to the Khyber Pass, was in the autumn of 1925 extended to Landi Khana, at the opposite end of the Pass and within a mile of the frontier between India and Afghanistan.

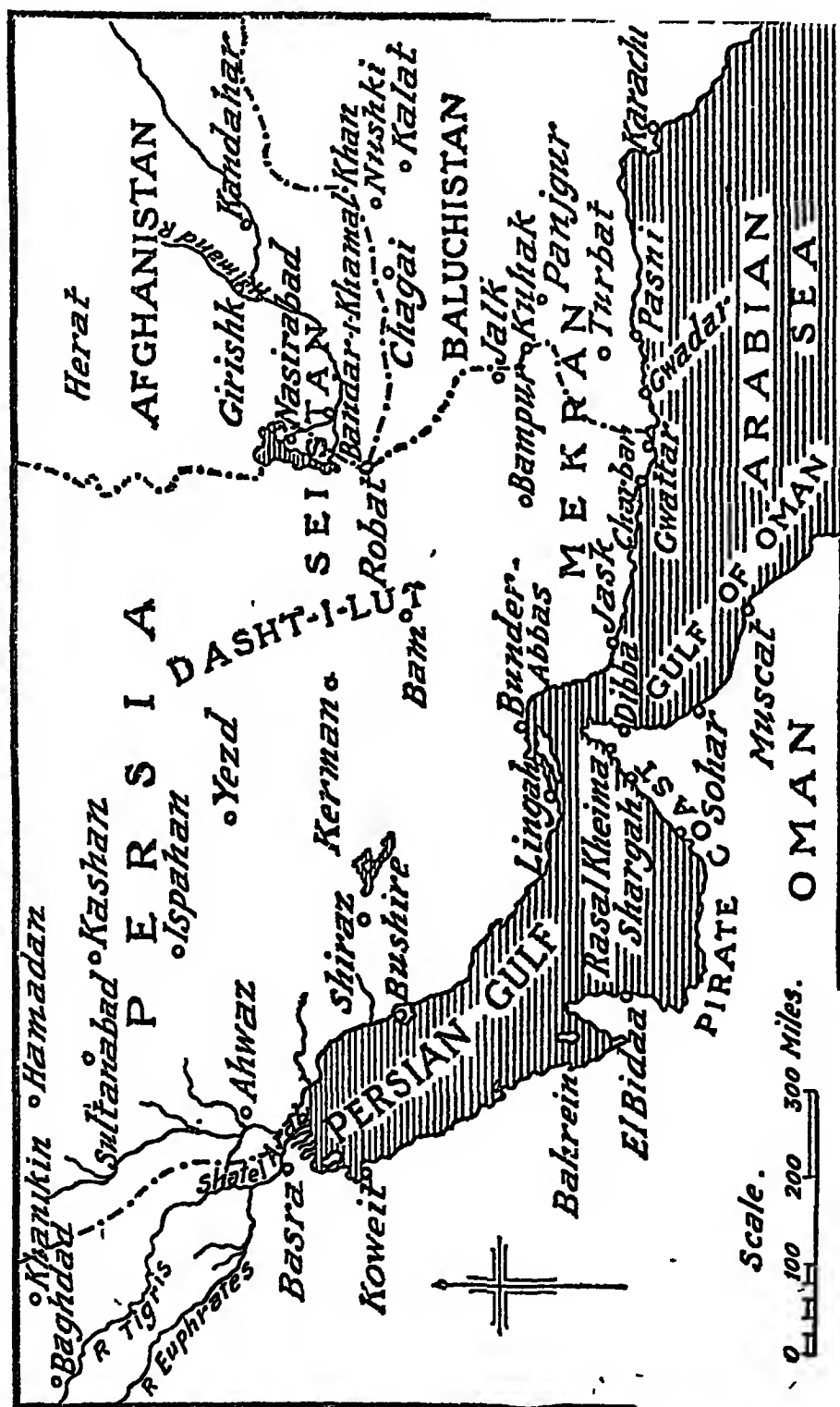
I.—THE PERSIAN GULF.

From what has gone before it will be seen that the keynote of this discussion of Indian frontier policy is that the external menace has largely disappeared. No part of the frontier is more powerfully influenced by this consideration than the Persian Gulf. Our first appearance in the Gulf was in connection with the long struggle for supremacy with the Portuguese, the French and the Dutch, who had established trading stations there. With the capture and destruction of the great entrepot which the Portuguese had established at Ormuz, the supercession of the land by the sea route, and the appearance of anarchy in the interior the importance of the Gulf declined. The Indian Government remained there primarily to preserve the peace. This work is quiet and efficiently performed. Piracy was stamped out, the Trucial Chiefs, who occupy the Pirate Coast, were gradually brought into close relations with the Government, the vessels of the Royal Navy kept watch and ward, and our consuls regulated the external affairs of the Arab rulers on the Arab coast. In return for these services Great Britain claimed no selfish advantages. The waters of the Gulf were kept free to the navigation of the ships of all nations, and though Great Britain could have made any territorial acquisitions she pleased she retained possession of only the tiny station of Bassid. Left to herself Great Britain desired no other policy, but for a quarter of a century the Gulf was involved in European affairs. France sought to acquire a coaling station at Jissa, near Muscat, and obstructed the efforts of the British Government to stamp out the slave trade and to check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping the tribes on our land frontier with weapons of precision and quantities of ammunition. All causes of difference were gradually removed by agreements following the Anglo-French Entente. Russia sent one of her finest cruisers to "show the flag" in the Gulf, and established consular posts where there were no interests of preserve. She was credited with the intention of occupying a warm water port, and in particular with casting covetous eyes on the most dreadful spot in the Gulf, Bunder Abbas. This menace declined

after the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement and disappeared with the collapse of Russian power following the Revolution. Then Turkey, either acting for herself, or as the *avant courier* of Germany, under whose domination she had passed, began to stir. She threatened the Sheikh of Bahrain by the armed occupation of the peninsula of Al-Katr, and moved troops to enforce her suzerainty over Kuwait, the best port in the Persian Gulf and a possible terminus of the Baghdad Railway. Further to consolidate her interests, or to stake out a claim, Germany sent the heavily subsidized ships of the Hamburg-America line to the Gulf, where they comported themselves as the instruments of Imperial policy rather than as inoffensive merchantmen. She also strove, through the agency of the firm of Winkhaus, to acquire a territorial footing on the island of Shargah. These events stirred the British Government to an unusual activity in the waters of the Gulf.

Counter Measures.

The first effective steps to counter these influences were taken during the vigorous viceroyalty of Lord Curzon, who visited the Gulf during his early travels and incorporated a masterly survey of its features in his monumental work on Persia. He appointed the ablest men he could find to the head of affairs, established several new consulates, and was instrumental in improving the sea communications with the Gulf ports. The British Government also took alarm. They were fortified in their stand against foreign intrigue by the opinion of a writer of unchallenged authority. The American Naval writer, the late Admiral Mahan, placed on record his view that "Concession in the Persian Gulf, whether by formal arrangement (with other Powers) or by neglect of the local commercial interests which now underlie political and military control, will impair Great Britain's naval position in the Indian East, her political position in India, her commercial interests in both, and the Imperial tie between herself and Australasia." The Imperial standpoint, endorsed by both Parties in the State, was set out by Lord Lansdowne in



words of great import—"We (i.e., His Majesty's Government) should regard the establishment of a naval base or of a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other Power as a very grave menace to British interests, which we should certainly resist with all the means at our disposal." The negative measures following these declarations were followed by a constructive policy when the oil fields in the Bakhtiari country, with a great refinery, were developed by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, in which the British Government has a large financial stake. But with the disappearance of these external forces on Gulf policy, as set out in the introduction to this section, the politics of the Persian Gulf receded in importance, until they are now more than they were before these external influences developed, a local question, mainly a question of policy. They are therefore set out more briefly and those who desire a complete narrative are referred to the Indian Year Book for 1923, pp 178-183. An interesting new feature in 1931 was the decision of the Persian Government to instal a Navy of their own in the Gulf. The fleet consisting of two sloops and four launches, all suitably armed, was built in Italy and duly arrived at its destination in 1932. It is at the outset officered by Italians. The immediate reason for the new fleet is that an increase in the Persian Customs tariff for revenue purposes led to extensive smuggling. The fleet is required to check it.

Maskat.

Maskat, which is reached in about forty-eight hours from Karachi, is outside the Persian Gulf proper. It lies three hundred miles south of Cape Musandim, which is the real entrance to the Gulf, but its natural strength and historical prestige combine to make it inseparable from the politics of the Gulf, with which it has always been intimately associated.

Formerly Maskat was part of a domain which embraced Zanzibar, and the Islands of Kishm and Larak, with Bunder Abbas on the Persian shore. Zanzibar was separated from it by agreement, and the Persians succeeded in establishing their authority over the possessions on the eastern shore.

The relations between Britain and Maskat have been intimate for a century and more. It was under British auspices that the separation between Zanzibar and Maskat was effected, the Sheikh accepted a British subsidy in return for the suppression of the slave trade and in 1892 sealed his dependence upon us by concluding a treaty pledging himself not to cede any part of his territory without our consent.

The Pirate Coast.

Turning Cape Musandim and entering the Gulf Proper, we pass the Pirate Coast, controlled by the six Trucial Chiefs. The ill-name of this territory has now ceased to have any meaning, but in the early days it had a very real relation to the actual conditions. The pirates were the boldest of their kind, and they did not hesitate to attack on occasion and not always without success, the Company's ships of war. Large expeditions were fitted out to break their power,

with such success that since 1820 no considerable punitive measures have been necessary. The Trucial Chiefs are bound to Great Britain by a series of engagements, beginning with 1809 and ending with the perpetual treaty of 1853 by which they bound themselves to avoid all hostilities at sea, and the subsequent treaty of 1873 by which they undertook to prohibit altogether the traffic in slaves. The relations of the Trucial Chiefs are controlled by the British Resident at Bushire, who visits the Pirate Coast every year on a tour of inspection.

The commercial importance of the Pirate Coast is increasing through the rise of Debal. Formerly Lingah was the entrepot for this trade, but the exactions of the Belgian Customs officials in the employ of Persia drove this traffic from Lingah to Debal. The Trucial Chiefs are—Debal, Abu Thabee, Shargah, Ajman, Um-al Gawain and Ras-el-Kheyma.

Bahrein.

North of the Pirate Coast lies the little Arcipelago which forms the chiefship of the Sheikh of Bahrein. Of this group of islands only those of Bahrein and Maharak are of any size, but their importance is out of all proportion to their extent. This is the great centre of the Gulf pearl fishery, which, in a good year, may be worth half a million pounds sterling. The anchorage is wretched, and at certain states of the tide ships have to lie four miles from the shore, which is not even approachable by boats, and passengers, mails and cargo have to be handed on the donkeys for which Bahrein is famous. But this notwithstanding the trade of the port is valued at over a million and a quarter sterling, and the customs revenue, which amounts to some eighty thousand pounds, makes the Sheikh the richest ruler in the Gulf.

In the neighbourhood of Bahrein is the vast burying ground which has hitherto baffled archaeologists. The generally accepted theory is that it is a relic of the Phœnicians, who are known to have traded in these waters.

The British Government recently announced that they proposed transferring the principal British Naval station in the Gulf from Hcnjam, on the Persian side of the water, to Bahrein.

Koweit.

In the north-west corner of the Gulf lies the port which has made more stir than any place of similar size in the world. The importance of Koweit lies solely in the fact that it is a possible Gulf terminus of the Baghdad Railway. This is no new discovery, for when the Euphrates Valley Railway was under discussion, General Chesney selected it under the alternative name of the Grane—so called from the resemblance of the formation of the Bay to a pair of horns—as the sea terminus of the line. Nowhere else would Koweit be called a good or a promising port. The Bay is 20 miles deep and 5 miles broad but so shallow that heavy expense would have to be incurred to render it suitable for modern ocean-going steamers. It is sheltered from all but the westerly winds, and the clean thriving town is peopled by some 20,000 inhabitants, chiefly dependent on the sea, for the manners of Koweit are such for their boldness and hardihood.

Muhammerah.

On the opposite side of the entrance to the Shatt-el-Arab lie the territories of Sheikh Khazal of Muhammerah. The town, favourably situated near the mouth of the Karun River, has grown in importance since the opening of the Karun River route to trade through the enterprise of Messrs. Lynch Brothers. This route provides the shortest passage to Ispahan and the central tableland, and already competes with the older route by way of Bushire and Shiraz. This importance has grown since the Anglo-Persian Oil Company established refineries at Muhammerah for the oil which they win in the rich fields which they have tapped near Ahwaz. Its importance will be still further accentuated, by the opening of the railway to Khorremabad by way of Dīrful which is now under construction.

Basra.

In a sense Basra and Turkish Arabistan can hardly be said to come within the scope of the frontiers of India, yet they are so indissolubly associated with the politics of the Gulf that they must be considered in relation thereto. Basra is the present sea terminus of the Baghdad Railway. It stands on the Shatt-el-Arab, sixty miles from its mouth, favourably situated to receive the whole water-borne trade of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The local traffic is valuable, for the richness of the date groves on either side of the Shatt-el-Arab is indescribable, there is a considerable entrepot traffic, whilst Basra is the port of entry for Baghdad and for the trade with Persia, which follows the caravan route via Kermanshah and Hamadan.

The political destinies of Basra are at present wrapped up with the destinies of the new Arab State which we have set up in Mesopotamia under King Faisal. When the war was over we found ourselves committed to immense, undefined and burdensome responsibilities in that land. The sound concepts which dictated the original expedition were dislocated in the foolish advance to Baghdad, then the great military enterprises necessitated by the fall of Kut-al-Amara carried our frontier north to Mosul and the mountains of Kurdistan, east to the Persian boundary, and west to the confines of Trans-Jordania. Amongst ardent Imperialists, there was undoubtedly the hope that this immense area would be in one way or another an integral part of the British Empire. The cold fit followed when the cost was measured, and the Arabs rose in a revolt which showed that any such domination could only be maintained by force of arms and that the cost would be prodigious. In these circumstances King Faisal was imported from the Hedjaz and installed on the throne under the aegis of Great Britain. Still we were committed to the support of the new kingdom, and that most dangerous condition arose—responsibility without any real power unless King Faisal was to be a mere puppet, immense expenditure and indefinite military commitments. In these circumstances there was an insistent demand for withdrawal from the land. British policy moved slowly towards

that end, but a definite step was taken in 1923. The Secretary of State for the Colonies announced this policy in a statement which is reproduced textually, for the purpose of reference. Addressing the House of Lords on May 3rd he said—

Your Lordships will remember that the Cabinet have been discussing this matter for some time and decisions have now been taken. Sir Percy Cox has accordingly been authorised by His Majesty's Government to make an announcement at Baghdad, the terms of which I propose to read out to Your Lordships. This announcement was drawn up in consultation with King Faisal and his Government, and has their cordial assent. It is being published at Baghdad to-day.

The announcement is as follows—

"It will be remembered that in the autumn of last year, after a lengthy exchange of views, it was decided between the Governments of His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty King Faisal that a Treaty of Alliance should be entered into between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. This Treaty, which was signed on the 10th October, 1922, and the term of which was to be twenty years (subject to periodical revision at the desire of either party) provided for the establishment of an independent Constitutional Government in Iraq enjoying a certain measure of advice and assistance from Great Britain of the nature and extent indicated in the text of the Treaty itself and of subsidiary Agreements which were to be made thereunder.

"Since then the Iraq Government has made great strides along the path of independence, and stable existence and has been able successfully to assume administrative responsibility and both parties being equally anxious that the commitments and responsibilities of His Majesty's Government in respect of Iraq should be terminated as soon as possible, it is considered that the period of the Treaty in its present form can conveniently be shortened. In order to obviate the inconvenience of introducing amendments into the body of a Treaty already signed, it has been decided to bring about the necessary modifications by means of a protocol which, like the Treaty itself, will be subject to ratification by the Constituent Assembly.

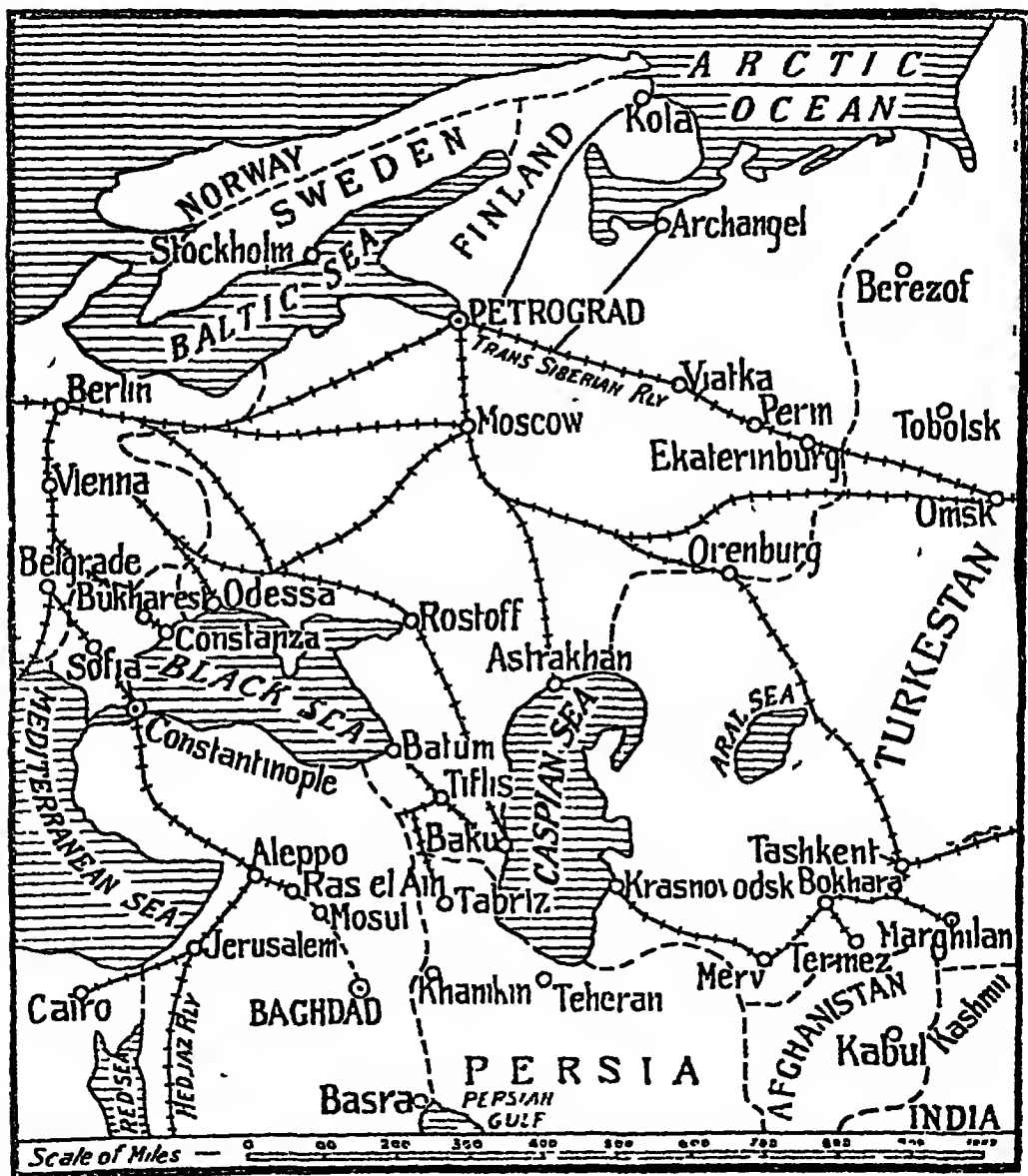
"Accordingly a protocol has now been signed by the parties in the following terms:—

It is understood between the High Contracting Parties that, notwithstanding the provisions of Article 18, the present Treaty is all terminate upon Iraq becoming member of the League of Nations and in any case not later than four years from the ratification of peace with Turkey. Nothing in this protocol shall prevent a fresh agreement from being concluded with a view to regulate the subsequent relations between the High Contracting Parties, and negotiations for that object shall be entered into between them before the expiration of the above period."

It will be noticed that under this protocol the Treaty in its present form was to terminate on the entry of Iraq into the League of Nations or in four years, whichever might be earlier.



Railway Position in the Middle East.



It is important to remember that there is a considerable difference between the vilayet of Basra and the other portions of King Faisal's State. Basra has for long been in the closest commercial contact with India, and is in many respects a commercial appendage of Bombay. Its people have not much in common with those of the North. They took no part in the Arab rising which followed the war, and they ask nothing better than to remain in close touch with India and through India with the British Government. If we are correct in the supposition that Basra is destined to be the great port of the Middle East, then its future under an Arab State, with no experience of administration in such conditions, is one of the greatest interests, which can hardly be regarded as settled by the policy underlying the declaration which is set out above.

The Persian Shore.

The Persian shore presents fewer points of permanent interest. The importance of Bushire is administrative rather than commercial. It is the headquarters of Persian authority, the residence of the British Resident, and the centre of many foreign consuls. It is also the main entrepot for the trade of Shiraz, and competes for that of Isfahan. But the anchorage is wretched and dangerous, the road to Shiraz passes over the notorious kotals which preclude the idea of rail connection, and if ever a railway to the central tableland is opened, the commercial value of Bushire will dwindle to insignificance. Further south lies Lingah, reputed to be the prettiest port on the Persian coast,

but its trade is being diverted to Debal on the Pirate Coast. In the narrow channel which forms the entrance to the Gulf from the Arabian Sea is Bunder Abbas. Here we are at the key of the Gulf. Bunder Abbas is of some importance as the outlet for the trade of Kerman and Yezd. It is of still more importance as a possible naval base. To the west of the town between the Island of Kishm and the mainland, lie the Clarence Straits which narrow until they are less than three miles in width, and yet contain abundance of water. Here, according to sound naval opinion, there is the possibility of creating a naval base which would command the Gulf. The great obstacle is the climate, which is one of the worst in the world. On the opposite shore, under the shadow of Cape Musandim, lies another sheltered deep-water anchorage, Elphinstone's Inlet, where the climate conditions are equally vile. But between these two points there is the possibility of controlling the Gulf just as Gibraltar controls the Mediterranean. For many years Bunder Abbas loomed large in public discussions as the possible warm water port for which Russia was seeking. There is a British Naval station at Henjam, a small island close to Kism, where the station was established under agreement with the Persian authorities. Its evacuation by Great Britain in favour of Bahrain has lately been decided upon. On the Mekran coast, there is the cable station of Jask, and the possible port of Chamber. An interesting development, in the Gulf in the past two or three years has been the institution of a Persian Navy.

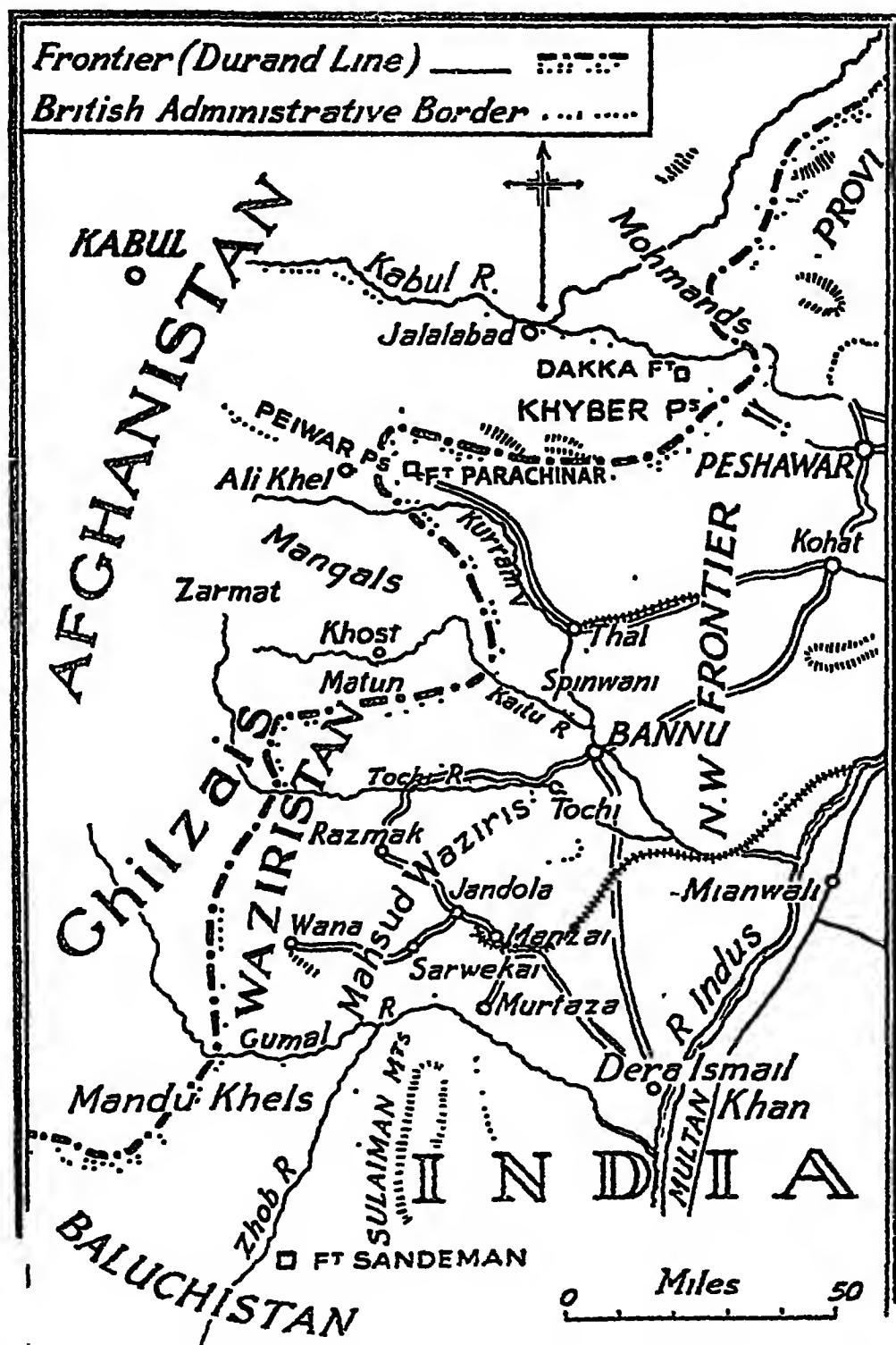
II—SEISTAN.

The concentration of public attention on the Persian Gulf was allowed to obscure the frontier importance of Seistan. Yet it was for many years a serious preoccupation with the Government of India. Seistan lies midway north and south between the point where the frontiers of Russia, Persia and Afghanistan meet at Sulaiman and that where the frontiers of Persia and of our Indian Empire meet on the open plain at Gwattar. It marches on its eastern border with Afghanistan and with Baluchistan, it commands the valley of the Helmand, and with it the road from Herat to Kandahar, and its immense resources as a wheat-producing region have been only partly developed under Persian misrule. It offers to an aggressive rival, an admirable strategic base for future military operations. It is also midway athwart the track of the shortest line which could be built to connect the Trans-Caspian Railway with the Indian Ocean, and if and when the line from Isfahar to Meshed were built, the temptation to extend it through Seistan would be strong. Whilst the gaze of the British was concentrated on the North-West Frontier, and so possible lines of advance through Kandahar to Quetta, and through Kabul to Peshawar, there can be little doubt that Russian attention was directed to a more leisurely movement through Seistan, if the day came when she moved her empire against India.

Whether with this purpose or not, Russian activity was particularly active in Seistan in the early years of the century. Having Russia for a neighbour, her agents moved into Seistan and through the agency of the Belgian Customs of India, "political relations" and an irri-

gating plague cordon, sought to establish influence, and to stifle the British trade which was gradually being built up by way of Nushki. These efforts died down before the presence of the McMahon mission, which, in pursuance of Treaty rights, was demarcating the boundary between Persia and Afghanistan, with special reference to the distribution of the waters of the Helmand. They finally ceased with the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement. Since then the international importance of Seistan has waned.

The natural conditions which give to Seistan this strategic importance persist. Meantime, British influence is being consolidated through the Seistan trade route. The distance from Quetta to the Seistan border at Killa Robot is 465 miles, most of it dead level, and it has now been provided with fortified posts, dak bungalows, wells, and all facilities for caravan traffic. The railway was pushed out from Spezand, on the Bolan Railway, to Nushki, so as to provide a better starting point for the caravans than Quetta. This line was extended to Duzdap, 54 miles on the Persian side of the Indo-Persian Frontier during the war as a military measure, but the traffic after the re-establishment of peace supported only two trains a week. There then arose trouble owing to Persian insistence on the collection of Customs duties on rations taken across their frontier for the railway staff. This led to the stoppage of train running on the Persian side of the Frontier. Negotiations have now for years dragged on to bring about a reasonable settlement in regard to the situation.



III—PERSIA.

From causes which only need to be very briefly set out, the Persian question as affecting Indian frontier policy has receded until it is of no account. Reference is made in the introduction to this section to the fact that the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement left us a bitter legacy in Persia. That Agreement divided Persia into two zones of influence, and the Persians bitterly resented this apparent division of their kingdom between the two Powers, though no such end was in view. German agents, working cleverly on this feeling, established an influence which was not suspected, and when the war broke out they were able to raise the tribes in opposition to Great Britain, in the South, and after the fall of Kut-al-Amara when a Turkish Division penetrated Western Persia, they exercised a strong influence in Teheran. With the defeat of Turkey and the Central Powers this influence disappeared, but at that time there was no authority in Persia besides that of the British Government, which had strong forces in the North-West and controlled the southern provinces through a force organised under British officers and called The South Persian Rifles. It was one of the first tasks of the British Government to regularise this position, and for this purpose an agreement was reached with the then Persian Government, the main features of which were—

To respect Persian integrity;

To supply experts for Persian administration.

To supply officers and equipment for a Persian force for the maintenance of order.

To provide a loan for these purposes:

To co-operate with the Persian Government in railway construction and other forms of transport

Both Governments agreed to the appointment of a joint committee to examine and revise the Customs tariff.

The second agreement defined the terms and conditions on which the loan was to be made to Persia. The loan was for £2,000,000 at 7 per cent redeemable in 20 years. It was secured on the revenues and Customs' receipts assigned for the repayment of the 1911 loan and should these be insufficient the Persian Government was to make good the necessary sums from other sources.

The Present Position.—We have given the main points in the Anglo-Persian agreement, because few documents have been more misunderstood. Those who desire to study it in greater detail will find it set out in the Indian Year Book for 1921, page 138 et seq. It has been explained that most Persians construed it into a guarantee of protection against all external enemies. When the British troops in the north-west retired before the Bolsheviks, the Persians had no use for the Agreement and it soon became a dead instrument. It was finally rejected and the advisers who were to have assisted Persia under it withdrew.

A remark frequently heard amongst soldiers and politicians in India after the War was that

Great Britain must take an active hand in Persia because she could not be a passive witness to chaos in that country. The view always taken in the Indian Year Book was that the internal affairs of Persia were her own concern, if she preferred chaos to order that was her own lookout, but left alone she would hammer out some form of Government. That position has been justified. The Sirdar Sipah, or commander-in-chief, a rough but energetic soldier, gradually took charge of Persian affairs and established a thinly-veiled military dictatorship which made the Government feared and respected throughout the country for the first time since the assassination of Shah Nasr-ed-din. A body of capable Americans under Dr. Millsbaugh restored order to the chaotic finances. These two forces operating in unison gave Persia the best government she had known for a generation. But the Sirdar Sipah chafed under the irregularities of his position, with a Shah spending his time in Europe and wasting the resources of the country. He moved to have his position regularised by the deposition of the absentee Shah and his own ascent of the throne. At first he was defeated by the opposition of the Mollahs, but in 1925 prevailed, and the Shah was formally deposed and the Sirdar Sipah chosen monarch in his place. The change was made without disturbance, and Persia entered on a period of peace and consolidation which has removed it from the disturbing forces in the post-war world. Since then considerable progress has been made with the reform of the administration, and many projects are afoot for the improvement of communications, which is the greatest need of the land, such as an air service to Teheran and railway construction. The least reassuring episode was the departure of the American financial mission, which had done admirable work in the restoration of the finances. When their contract expired Dr. Millsbaugh and his colleagues were offered a renewal of it on terms which they did not regard as satisfactory, especially in regard to the powers they were to exercise. They therefore withdrew from the country, and have been replaced by other foreign advisers. The general situation was gravely disturbed in 1932 by the sudden termination by the Persian Government of the Anglo-Persian Oil Co's concession, a matter affecting one of the biggest industrial undertakings in the world and millions sterling of capital. The intervention of the British Government led to the reference of the trouble to the League of Nations and thus paved the way for negotiations between the Company and the Persian Government. While these were being settled some progress was also made with general negotiations between the British and Persian Governments for an agreement covering all outstanding points of difficulty between them.

Sir R. H. Clive, K.C.M.G., is British Minister at Teheran.

H. B. M.'s Consul-General and Agent of the Government of India in Khorasan—Lt-Col O. K. Daly, C.I.E.

IV.—THE PRESENT FRONTIER PROBLEM

There yet remains a small part of British India where the King's writ does not run. Under what is called the Durand Agreement with the Amir of Afghanistan, the boundary between India and Afghanistan was settled, and it was delimited in 1903 except for a small section which was delimited after the Afghan War in 1919. But the Government of India have never occupied up to the border. Between the administered territory and the Durand line there lies a belt of territory of varying width extending from the Gomal Pass in the south, to Kashmir in the north; this is generically known as the Tribal Territory. Its future is the keynote of the interminable discussions of frontier policy for nearly half a century.

This is a country of deep valleys and secluded glens, which nature has fenced in with almost inaccessible mountains. It is peopled with wild tribes of mysterious origin, in whom Afghan, Tartar, Turkoman, Persian Indian, Arab and Jewish intermingle. They had lived their own lives for centuries, with little intercourse even amongst themselves, and as Sir Valentine Chetwode truly said "the only bond that ever could unite them in common action was the bond of Islam." It is impossible to understand the Frontier problem unless two facts are steadily borne in mind. The strongest sentiment amongst these strange people is the desire to be left alone. They value their independence much more than their lives. The other factor is that the country does not suffice even in good years to maintain the population. They must find the means of subsistence outside, either in trade, by service in the Indian Army or in the Khassadars, or else in the outlet which hill-men all the world over have utilised from time immemorial, the raiding of the wealthier and, more peaceful population of the Plains.

Frontier Policy.

The policy of the Government of India toward the Independent Territory has ebbed and flowed in a remarkable degree. It has fluctuated between the Forward School, which would occupy the frontier up to the confines of Afghanistan, and the school of Masterly Inactivity, which would leave the tribesmen entirely to their own resources, punishing them only when they raided British territory. Behind both the policies lay the menace of a Russian invasion, and that coloured our frontier policy until the Anglo-Russian Agreement. This induced what was called Hit and Retire tactics. In the half century which ended in 1897 there were nearly a score of punitive expeditions, each one of which left behind a legacy of distrust, and which brought no permanent improvement in its train. The fruit of the suspicion thus engendered was seen in 1897. Then the whole Frontier, from the Malakand to the Gomal, was ablaze. The extent of this rising and the magnitude of the military measures which were taken to meet it compelled a consideration of the whole position. The broad outlines of the new policy were laid down in a despatch from the Secre-

tary of State for India, which prescribed for the Government the "limitation of your interference with the tribes, so as to avoid the extension of administrative control over tribal territory." It fell to Lord Curzon to give effect to this policy. The main foundations of his action were to exercise over the tribes the political influence requisite to secure our imperial interests, to pay them subsidies for the performance of specific duties, but to respect their tribal independence and leave them, as far as possible, free to govern themselves according to their own traditions and to follow their own inherited habits of life without let or hindrance.

New Province.

As a first step Lord Curzon took the control of the tribes under the direct supervision of the Government of India. Up to this point they had been in charge of the Government of the Punjab, a province whose head is busied with many other concerns. Lord Curzon created in 1901 the North-West Frontier Province, and placed it in charge of a Chief Commissioner, with an intimate frontier experience, directly subordinate to the Government of India. This was a revival of a scheme prepared by Lord Lytton in 1877, and often considered afterwards, but which had slipped for lack of driving power. Next, Lord Curzon withdrew the regular troops so far as possible from the advanced posts, and placed these fortalices in charge of tribal levies, officered by a handful of British officers. The most successful of these was the Khyber Rifles, which steadfastly kept the peace of that historic Pass until 1919. At the same time the regular troops were cantoned in places whence they could quickly move to any danger point, and these bases were connected with the Indian railway system. In pursuance of this policy frontier railways were run out to Dargal, and a narrow-gauge line, since converted to the broad-gauge, was constructed from Kushal-girh to Kohat, at the entrance of the Kohat Pass, and to Thal in the midst of the Kurrum Valley. These railways were completed by lines to Tonk and Bannu. By this means the striking power of the regular forces was greatly increased. Nor was the policy of economic development neglected. The railways gave a powerful stimulus to trade and the Lower Swat Canal converted fractious tribesmen into successful agriculturists. This policy of economic development is receiving a great development through the completion of the Upper Swat Canal (q v Irrigation). Now it is completed there are other works awaiting attention. For many years this policy was completely justified by results.

A New Policy.

It saved us from serious complications for nearly twenty years, although the position could never be said to be entirely satisfactory, particularly in Waziristan, populated by the most reckless raiders on the "who" border-line, with a hot hole into Afghanistan when pressed from the British side. It endured through the Great War and did not break

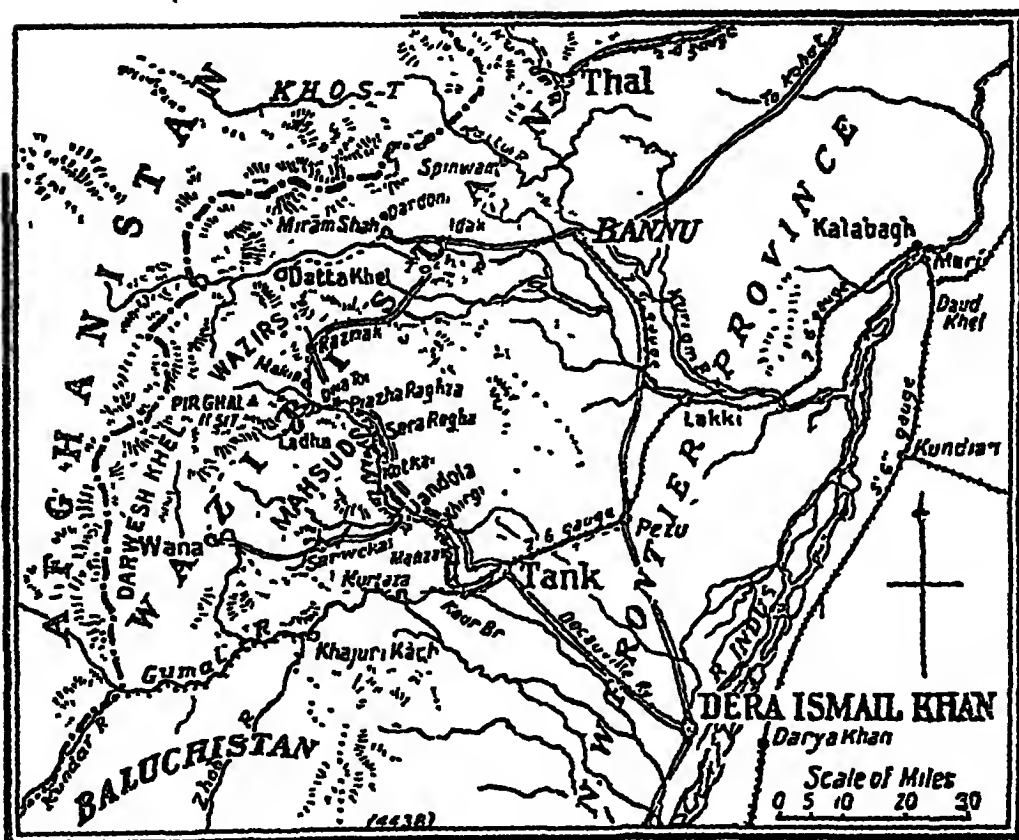
down until the Amir of Afghanistan sought refuge from his internal troubles in a Jihad against India. In this insane enterprise the Afghans placed less reliance in their regular troops, which have never offered more than a contemptible resistance to the British forces than in the armed tribesmen. In this they were justified, for the Indian Military authorities failed to give timely support to the advanced militia posts, some of these posts were ordered to withdraw, the militia collapsed and the most serious fighting was with the tribesmen. The tribal levies collapsed with almost universal swiftness. The Southern Waziristan militia broke and there was serious trouble throughout the Zhob district. The Afridis, our most serious enemies in 1897, and the most powerful of the tribes on the North-West Frontier, remained fairly quiet throughout the actual hostilities with Afghanistan, but later it was necessary to take measures against a leading malcontent and destroy his fort at Chora. But the Mahsuds and the Waziris broke into open hostilities. Their country lies within the belt bounded by the Durand Line and the Afghan frontier on the west, and by the districts of Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan on the east. Amongst them the Afghan emissaries were particularly active and as they could put in the field some 30,000 warriors, 75 per cent armed with modern weapons of precision, they constituted formidable adversaries. They refused to make peace even when the Afghans craved in. They rejected our terms and active measures were taken against them. The fighting was the most severe in the history of the Frontier. The Mahsuds fought with great tenacity. Their shooting was amazingly good; their tactics were admirable, for amongst their ranks were many men trained either in the militia or in the Indian Army; and more than once they came within measurable distance of considerable success. They were assisted by the fact that the best trained troops in the Indian Army were still overseas and younger soldiers were opposed to them. But their very tenacity and bravery were their own undoing; their losses were the heaviest in the long history of the Borderland and when the Mahsuds made their complete submission in September 1921 they were more severely chastened than at any time during their career.

A New Chapter.—As the result of the Afghan War of 1919, Indian frontier policy was again thrown into the melting pot. There was much vague discussion of the position in the course of the months which followed the Afghan War and the troubles in Waziristan which succeeded it, but this discussion did not really come to a head until February-March 1922. The Budget then presented to the country revealed a serious financial position. It showed that despite serious increases in taxation, the country had suffered a series of deficits, which had been financed out of borrowings. Further heavy taxation was proposed in this Budget, but even then the equilibrium which the financial authorities regarded as of paramount importance was not attained. When the accounts were examined, it was seen that the heaviest charges on the exchequer were those under Military Expenses, and that there was an indefinitely large, and seemingly unend-

ing expenditure on Waziristan. This forced the Military, and allied with it the Frontier, expenditure to the front. In actual practice the discussion was really focussed on Waziristan. In essentials it was the aged controversy—shall we deal with this part of the Frontier on what is known as the Sandeman system, namely, by occupying commanding posts within the country itself, dominating the tribesmen but interfering little in their own affairs; or shall we revert to what was known as the close border system, as modified by Lord Curzon, of withdrawing our regular troops to strategic positions outside the tribal area, leaving the tribesmen, organised into militia, to keep the passes open, and punishing the tribesmen by expeditions when their raiding propensities become unbearable.

The Curzon Policy.—The Curzon policy, adopted in 1899, to clear up the aftermath or the serious and unsatisfactory Frontier situation in 1897, was a compromise between the "occupation" and the "close border" policies. It was based on the withdrawal of the regular troops so far as possible to cantonments in rear whilst the frontier posts, such as those in the Tochi at Wana and in the Khyber and Kurram were held by militia, recruited from amongst the tribesmen themselves. The cantonments for regular troops were linked so far as possible with the Indian railway system, so as to permit of rapid reinforcement. But it must be remembered that like all Frontier students, Lord Curzon did not regard this as the final policy. He wrote in the Memorandum formulating his ideas: "It is of course inevitable that in the passage of time the whole Waziri country up to the Durand line will come more and more under our control. No policy in the world can resist or greatly retard that consummation. My desire is to bring it about by gradual degrees and above all without the constant aid and presence of British troops." The Curzon-policy, though it was not pursued with the steadfastness he would have followed if he had remained in control, gave us moderate—or rather it should be said bearable—frontier conditions until the Afghan War. It then broke down, because the tribal militia, on which it was based, could not, when left without the support of regular troops in the day of need, withstand the wave of fanaticism and other conditions set up by the Afghan invasion of 1919. The Khyber militia faded away; the Waziri militia either mutinied, as at Wana, or deserted. The pillar of the Curzon system fell.

The Policy.—The policy first adumbrated to meet these changed conditions was outlined by Lord Chelmsford, the then Viceroy, in a speech which he addressed to the Indian Legislature. He said it had been decided to retain commanding posts in Waziristan; to open up the country by roads; to extend the main Indian railway system from its then terminus, Jamrud, through the Khyber to the frontier of Afghanistan, and to take over the duties of the militia by regular troops. That immediate policy was soon modified so far as the policing of these frontier lines by regular troops was concerned. Such duties are immensely unpopular in the regular army, which is not organised and equipped for work of this character. Irregulars have always existed on



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the frontier, and as they had disappeared with the Militia, it was necessary to recreate them. The new form of irregular was what have been called Khassadars and Scouts. The Khassadar is an extremely irregular. He has no British officers and no uniform, except a distinguishing kind of *pagri*. In contradistinction to the old Militia, he finds his own rifle. As one informed observer remarked, the beauty of the system is that so long as the Khassadars, under their own headmen, secure the immunity of the caravans and perform their other police duties, they draw their pay and no questions

are asked. If they desert in the day of trouble, they lose their pay but the Government loses no rifles, nor does it risk mutiny or the loss of British and Indian officers. But the application of this policy produced an acute controversy. It was one thing to say that commanding posts in Waziristan should be retained, it was another to decide what these posts should be. We must therefore consider the special problem of Waziristan. The Scouts are a mobile, mounted, irregular force not territorially recruited, officered by British officers.

V.—WAZIRISTAN.

We can now approach the real frontier question of the day, the future of Waziristan. What follows is drawn from an admirable article contributed some years ago to "The Journal of the United Service Institution of India," written by Lt.-Col G. M. Routh, D.S.O.

Geographically Waziristan is a rough parallelogram averaging 60 miles from East to West and 160 from North to South. The western half consists of the Sulaiman Range gradually rising up to the ridge from five to ten thousand feet high, which forms the watershed between the Indus and the Helmund Rivers and corresponds with the Durand Line separating India from Afghanistan. This is the western boundary. On the east is the Indus. North is the watershed of the Kurram River running East and West about 80 miles north of Bannu separating Waziristan from the Kohat District. South is a zigzag political boundary from the Durand Line running between Wana and Fort Sandeman in Baluchistan with a turn southwards to the Indus.

The western half is a rugged and inhospitable medley of ridges and ravines straggled and confined in hopeless disarray. The more inhabited portions lie well up the slope at heights of four to six thousand feet. Here are our outposts of Wana and Ladha some 15 and 20 miles respectively from the Durand Line, in the centre of the grazing district, the latter within five miles of important villages of Kaniguram and Makin.

The submontane tracts from the hills to the Indus vary from the highly cultivated and irrigated land round Bannu to the sand desert in the Marwat above Peshawar.

Where irrigation or river water is obtainable cultivation is attempted under conditions which can hardly be encouraging. Other tracts like that between Peshawar and Tank, usually pastoral, can only hope for an occasional crop after a lucky rainfall.

Inhabitants—The inhabitants, unable to support existence on their meagre soil, make up the margin by armed robbery of their richer and more peaceful neighbours. The name originates according to tradition from one Wazir, two of whose grandsons were the actual founders of the race. Of the four main tribes Darweshkhal, Mahsuds, Dawars and Batanni, only the first two are true Wazirs. Their villages are separate though dotted about more or less indiscriminately, and inter-marriage is the exception—in fact all traditionally are in open strife, a circumstance which, until some bright political comet like the Afghan War of 1919 joined them together, as materially aided our dealings with them.

Unlike other parts of India, however, these wild people acknowledge little allegiance to maliks or headmen. No one except perhaps the Mulla Powindah till his death in 1913 could speak of any portion of them as his following.

Policy—The policy of the British was at first one of non-interference with the tribes. Even now only part of the country is administered. Gradually it was found that more and more supervision became necessary to control raiding and this was attempted by expeditions to portions of the country with Regulars, followed by building posts and brick towers to be held by Militia. These posts were at first placed at the points where raiders usually debouched. The Political Officers, at first supported by Regulars, built up from 1904 onwards a force of some 3,000 Militia with British Officers at their disposal, who were backed up by the garrisons at Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. In addition certain allowances were made to the tribes for good behaviour, prevention of raids and surrender of offenders when required, also for tribal escorts as necessary. Gradually, as occasion required, posts were occupied. Wana was occupied in 1895 at the request of the Wana Wazirs. Similarly the Tochi in 1896. In the comprehensive expedition of 1895-96 when this policy was put into effect, the British arms were shown in every remote valley in the vain hope of taming the Mahsuds. It was hoped the various posts would prove a pacifying influence and a rallying ground for Government supporters. From 1904 to 1919 they were held by Militia. Roads and communications were improved and tribal allowances augmented by sales of produce to the troops on a liberal scale.

A Programme—Lt.-Col. Routh then outlined a possible policy for Waziristan. We give it textually, because we believe that when it was written it reflected how military opinion in India was developing—

"To the unprejudiced mind it appears more practical to grasp the nettle firmly and dominate the inhabited tracts. Why should not the road now being made to Ladha be continued, 36 miles north to the Tochi road at Datta Khel and 29 miles south to Wana? Why should we not occupy the healthier portions of Waziristan rather than the foothills or Cis-Indus zones? The Razmak district round Makin 6,000 feet up is both healthy and fertile. The same applies to the Shawal valley lying behind Pir Gul, the national peak near Ladha rising to a height of 11,556 feet above the sea. The Wana plain, 5,000 feet up, 30 miles by 15, could with railways support an army corps; there is no doubt that

a forward railway policy will help to solve the problem. A line has been surveyed from Tank to Draband and thence up the valley to Fort Sandeman, so connecting with the Zhob and perhaps later to Wana. The Gumal Tangi from Murtaza to Khajuri Kaoh is the apparently obvious route, but would be prohibitively expensive in construction and require much tunnelling. Beyond Khajuri Kaoh *via* Tanai and Bogha Kot to Wana, some 23 miles, offers no difficulty. The old policy of the raiders working westwards and our retributive expeditions stretching their very temporary tentacles eastwards seems to suggest better lateral communications. The broad gange at Kohat might without undue cost be extended to Thal and thence to Idak *via* Spinwam. From here till further extension proved desirable, a motor road through Razmak, Makin and Dwatoi to link up with that now surveyed to Ladha sounds possible to the looker on. Eventually such communications, road, rail, or both, could continue to Wana, Fort Sandeman and Quetta *via* Hindn Bagh, a strategic line offering great defensive possibilities substituting Razmak, which resembles Ootacamund, and healthy uplands for the deadly fever spots now occupied. The very fact of employing the tribesmen on these works with good pay and good engineers tends to pacify the country as well as providing healthy accessible hill stations in place of the proverbially comfortless cantonments which now exist in this part of the Frontier."

A Compromise—A full statement of the policy finally adopted by Government in view of the situation left upon their hands after the Mahsud rebellion was made by the Foreign Secretary, Sir (then Mr.) Denys Bray, in the course of a Budget discussion in the Legislative Assembly on 5th March 1923. He outlined neither a Forward policy nor a Close Border policy. Both these terms had, in fact, ceased to be appropriate. Circumstances had so changed that neither the one plan nor the other remained within the bounds of reasonable argument.

The Foreign Secretary explained that the ingredients of the Frontier problem at the present day are essentially three, namely, the Frontier districts, the neighbouring friendly State of Afghanistan, and the so-called Independent Territory, this last being the belt of unsettled mountain country which lies between the borders of British India and India. He proceeded specially to show that this belt is, in fact, within India "... It is boundary pillars that mark off Waziristan from Afghanistan, it is boundary pillars that include Waziristan in India. We are apt to call Waziristan independent territory; and it is only from the point of view of our British districts that these tribes are trans-frontier tribes. From the point of view of India, from the international point of view that is, they are cis-frontier tribesmen of India. If Waziristan and her tribes are India's scourge, they are also India's responsibility—and India's alone. That is an international fact that we must never forget."

Sir Denys next referred to the triumph of the Sandeman policy in Baluchistan. He pointed out that some people long ago believed that the same policy would prove effective in Waziristan. "But what was a practical proposition 20 or 30 years ago is not necessarily

so now. The task is infinitely more difficult to-day, chiefly because the tribesmen are infinitely better armed, their arms having increased at least tenfold during the last 20 years." Dealing with the Close Border prescription he showed that if one erected a Chinese wall of barbed-wire fence along the plain some distance below the hills, "all the time the problem in front of us would be going from bad to worse, with the inevitable increase of arms in the trans-border and with that inevitable increase in the economic stringency in this mountainous tract, which would make the tribesmen more and more desperate, more and more thrown back on barbarism... A rigid Close Border policy is really a policy of negation, and nothing more... We might gain for our districts a momentary respite from raids but we would be leaving behind a legacy of infinitely worse trouble for their descendants."

The settled policy of Government in Waziristan, Sir Denys showed, was the control of that country through a road system, of which about 140 miles would lie in Waziristan itself and one hundred miles along the border of Derajat, and the maintenance of some 4,600 Khassadars and of some 5,000 irregulars, while at Razmak, 7,000 feet high and overlooking northern Waziristan, there would be an advanced base occupied by a strong garrison of regular troops. Razmak he showed to be further from the Durand Line than the old-established posts in the Tochi. In the geographical sense, therefore, the policy was, in one signal respect, a backward policy. None the less, it was a forward policy in a very real sense, for it was a policy of constructive progress and was a big step forward on the long and laborious road towards the pacification, through civilization, of the most backward and inaccessible, and therefore the most truculent and aggressive tribes on the border. "Come what may civilization must be made to penetrate these inaccessible mountains or we must admit that there is no solution to the Waziristan problem, and we must fold our hands while it grows inevitably worse."

The policy thus initiated has proceeded with results according with the highest reasonable expectations and exceeding the most sanguine hopes of most people concerned in its formulation.

The roads are policed by the Khassadars, who have, in the main, proved faithful to their trust. The open hostility of the Waziri tribesmen to the presence of troops and other agents of Government in their midst, which at the outset they showed by shooting up individuals and small bodies of troops on every opportunity, has faded away, and the people have shown an understanding of the rule of law, and, under the control exercised, a readiness to conform to it. In various small but significant ways, methods of civilization have caught the imagination of the people and won their approval. Thus, the safety of the roads has encouraged, and is buttressed by a considerable development of motor-bus traffic. The roads, as the Link's Highway, are officially held to be sacred—that is no shooting up or other part of personal or tribal feuds is permitted upon them. This permits villagers to proceed to and from the plains towns in safety. Under the influence of their women, the tribesmen app'ed

greatly excited and sent down bands to sit near the border and watch for an opportunity to join in. The Upper Tochi's Wazirs simultaneously took to arms and shortly afterwards the Mahsud Wazirs, about Ladha, did the same. At this stage, the development of the Air arm in India proved of incalculable value. Aeroplanes patrolled the whole country and were frequently employed by the political authorities to take preventive and punitive action by bombing. The road system, meanwhile, enabled troops to be moved at will to positions of advantage for dealing with whatever serious tribal aggression appeared likely.

In the result, the Mohmands, after being bombed, several times, found discretion, the better part of valour and made no descent in force. The Afridis twice endeavoured to raid Peshawar in force but by combined air and land action were both times driven back to their hills with no achievement to report. The Orakzais of southern Tirah threatened to descend by the Ubian Pass upon Kohat and their western clans attacked a post in the Upper Kurram and endeavoured to attack Parachinar. Helped by the machinations of Congress agents, they succeeded in drawing two or three clans of Afghan tribesmen across the border into the fray. Combined air and ground action crushed these efforts. The Tochi Wazirs heavily attacked Datta Khel, but were speedily brought to order by force. The Mahsuds were similarly repulsed and punished when they assaulted Scarrogha, in the valley of the Tak-Zam.

All outbreaks of revolt were suppressed in the same manner and the establishment of new fortified posts on the Peshawar plain, immediately opposite the main valleys leading out of Tirah, and the construction of roads for their service, now indicate the application of the new frontier policy in that region. The Afridis long refused to assent to these, but being thereby deprived of access to their normal winter grazing grounds on the Khajuri and Aha Khul plain, and prevented from visiting Peshawar, their marketing centre, they came in an accepted peace under the new conditions before the opening of the winter of 1931-32. The Afridis have later asked for roads into Tirah and are getting them.

It will be seen that the events of the summer of 1930 put the policy to a severe test, and that its successful operation in the emergency was specially assisted by the Royal Air Force. The resultant position appears, then, to be that the control of the tribes, where the policy has already been expressed in road building and in the establishment of suitable garrisons, is effective, that the political and military ground organization with which the policy is supported brings about the introduction of the ameliorative influence of civilization, and that the rapidity and success with which the Royal Air Force can operate over the hills, tends to diminish the amount of ground force necessary. On the other hand, the two descents of the Afridis upon the plain and their return to their homes without great loss, despite all that the Royal Air Force and large bodies of troops could do, indicate the capacity for mischief which lies in the hands of the Tirah

tribes, and must remain there so long as the policy is not extended over their highlands.

Mohmand Outbreak in 1931—Disturbances in the Mohmand country during the summer of 1933 both illustrated the operation of the modern Frontier policy and the need to keep it a live policy if it is to be of any use at all. The Mohmands may for the purposes of present description be divided into two categories namely, the Upper Mohmands, who live in the highlands of the Mohmand country, and the Lower Mohmands, whose country stretches from the lower altitudes of the same hills down to the Peshawar Plain. Through the country of the Upper Mohmands passes the Durand line but the Afghan Government have never agreed to its delimitation in part of this region and consequently its place has long been taken over a considerable portion of the length of the Frontier by what is described as the Presumptive Frontier. The exact position of this latter has never been settled between the two governments and it is consequently sometimes difficult to say whether people from particular villages belong to one side or to the other of it.

In 1932, during the revolutionary Red Shirt campaign, in connection with the Indian National Congress, in the Peshawar Plain, the Upper Mohmands decided to join in the disturbances and raids in the administered territory immediately northward of Peshawar. The Lower Mohmands are described as the Assured Tribes. The meaning of the description is that the British Indian authorities assure them protection against the attacks of the Upper Mohmands and they, on the other hand, are bound by promises of good behaviour. The Assured Tribes in 1932 interfered with the programme of the Upper Mohmands for raiding the plain and the Upper Mohmands in 1933, when spring and early summer once more facilitated their methods of campaigning, commenced retaliatory raids upon the Hailmal and other Assured clans. The attacked clans appealed to the political authorities for help and that help they were obliged to give.

About the same time as this trouble was germinating, there appeared in Bajaur, a country immediately to the north of that in which the events just described developed, a Pretender to the Afghan throne. He was accompanied by two companions and started a campaign in Bajaur for a revolution or such other trouble as might be possible in Afghanistan. This compelled the British Indian authorities to take measures in fulfilment of their obligations of good neighbourliness to Afghanistan.

Road construction from the Peshawar-Shabkadr road northwards through Ghahna into the Hailmal country and towards the passes which lead from that country into the upper extremities of the Bajaur Valley was undertaken and two brigades of troops, with other details, were sent forward up to assist in dealing with the Upper Mohmands. At the same time, aeroplanes bombarded the village in Kottal in Upper Bajaur, which had given shelter to the Pretender, further aerial demonstrations were made and the Bajauris were given ultimatum demanding the surrender of the Pretender to a given date.

means into which it is not well closely to enter; he beat down opposition until none dared lift a hand against him. Aided by a British subsidy of twelve lakhs of rupees a year increased to eighteen by the Durand Agreement of 1893, and subsequently to over 20 lakhs, he established a strong standing army and set up arsenals under foreign supervision to furnish it with arms and ammunition. Step by step his position was regularised. The Anglo-Russian Boundary Commission, which nearly precipitated war over the Panjdeh episode in 1885,—determined the northern boundaries. The Pamirs Agreement delimited the borders amid those snowy heights. The Durand Agreement settled the border on the British side, except for a small section to the west of the Khyber, which remained a fruitful source of trouble between Afghanistan and ourselves until 1919, when the Afghan claims and action upon the undemarcated section led to war. That section was finally surveyed and the frontier determined shortly after the conclusion of peace with Afghanistan. Finally the McMahon award closed the old feud with Persia over the distribution of the waters of the Helmand in Seistan. It was estimated by competent authorities that about the time of Abdurrahman's death, Afghanistan was in a position to place in the field, in the event of war, one hundred thousand well-armed regular and irregular troops, together with two hundred thousand tribal levies, and to leave fifty thousand regulars and irregulars and a hundred thousand levies to maintain order in Kabul and the provinces. But if Afghanistan were made strong, it was not made friendly. Abdurrahman Khan distrusted British policy up to the day of his death. All that can be said is that he distrusted it less than he distrusted Russia, and if the occasion had arisen for him to make a choice, he would have opposed a Russian advance with all the force at his disposal. He closed his country absolutely against all foreigners, except those who were necessary for the supervision of his arsenals and factories. He refused to accept a British Resident, on the ground that he could not protect him, and British affairs were entrusted to an Indian agent who was in a most equivocal position. At the same time he repeatedly pressed for the right to pass by the Government of India and to establish his own representative at the Court of St. James.

Afghanistan and the War.—These relations were markedly improved during the reign of His Majesty the Amir Habibullah Khan. It used to be one of the trite sayings of the Frontier that the system which Abdurrahman Khan had built up would perish with him, for none was capable of maintaining it. Habibullah Khan more than maintained it. He visited India soon after his accession and acquired a vivid knowledge of the power and resources of the Empire. He strengthened and consolidated his authority in Afghanistan itself. At the outset of the war he made a declaration of his complete neutrality. It is believed—a considerable reticence is preserved over our relations with Afghanistan—that he warned the Government of India that he might be forced into many equivocal acts,

they must trust him; certainly his reception of Turkish, Austrian and German "missions" at Kabul, at a time when British representatives were severely excluded, was open to gross misconstruction. But a fuller knowledge induced the belief that the Amir was in a position of no little difficulty. He had to compromise with the fanatical and anti-British elements amongst his own people, inflamed by the Turkish preaching of a jihad, or holy Islamic war. But he committed no act of hostility, as soon as it was safe to do so he turned the members of these missions out of the kingdom. At the end of the war his policy was completely justified; he had kept Afghanistan out of the war, he had adhered to the winning side; his authority in the kingdom and in Central Asia was at its zenith.

Murder of the Amir.—It is believed that if he had lived Habibullah Khan would have used this authority for a progressive policy in Afghanistan, by opening up communications and extending his engagements with India. He was courted by the representatives of Persia and the Central Asian States as the possible rallying centre of a Central Asian Islamic confederation. At this moment he was assassinated on the 20th February 1919. The circumstances surrounding his murder have never been fully explained, but there is strong ground for the belief that it was promoted by the reactionaries who had harassed him all his reign. These realised that with his vindication by the war their time of reckoning had come; they anticipated it by snubbing one of his aides to murder him in his sleep. His brother, Nasrullah Khan, the nominee of the fanatical element, was proclaimed Amir at Jelalabad in his stead, but public opinion in Afghanistan revolted at the idea of the brother seizing power over the corpse of the murdered man. His sons, Hayat and Amanullah, were not disposed to waive their heritages. Amanullah was at Kabul, controlling the treasury and the arsenal and supported by the Army. Nasrullah found it impossible to make head against him and withdrew. The new Amir, Amanullah, at once communicated his accession to the Government of India and proclaimed his desire to adhere to the traditional policy of friendship. But his difficulties at once commenced; he had to deal with the war party in Afghanistan; he was confronted with the dissatisfaction arising from the manner in which the murderers of Habibullah had been dealt with; the fanatical element was exasperated by the imprisonment of Nasrullah; and the Army was so incensed that it had to be removed from Kabul and given occupation to divert its thoughts. A further element of complexity was introduced by the political situation in India. The agitation against the Rowlatt Act was at its height. The disturbances in the Punjab and Gujarat had taken place. Afghan agents in India, of whom the most prominent was Ghulam Hyder Khan, the Afghan postmaster at Peshawar, flooded Afghanistan with exaggerated accounts of the Indian unrest. The result of all this was to convince the Amir that the real solution of his difficulties was to unite all the disaffected elements in a war with India. On the 23rd April he was set in motion and simultaneous

commenced to flow from Kabul and open intrigue was started with the Frontier tribes on whom the Afghans placed their chief reliance.

Speedy Defeat—The war caught the Army in India in the throes of demobilisation and with a large proportion of the seasoned troops on service abroad. Nevertheless the regular Afghan Army was rapidly dealt with. Strong British forces moved up the Khyber and seized Dacca Jellalabad was reportedly bombarded from the air and also Kabul. Nothing but a shortage of mechanical transport prevented the British forces from seizing Jellalabad. In ten days the Afghans were severely defeated. On the 14th May they asked for an Armistice. With the usual Afghan spirit of bargaining they tried to water down the conditions of the armistice, but as they were met with an uncompromising emphasis of the situation they dispatched representatives to a conference at Ray in India on the 26th July. On the 8th August the Treaty of Peace was signed which is set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp. 124-127.

Post-War Relations—It will be seen that the London Treaty of the war was paved for a fresh start and six months afterwards. During the winter of 1920 there were prolonged negotiations between Afghan and British officials under Sir Percy Loch. These were private, but it is known that a complete agreement was reached. It was a complete interchange of Notes which dealt with a number of points of difference. It was agreed that a British Mission should proceed to Kabul to arrange a definite treaty of peace. The mission entered the Border in January 1921 and entered Kabul where a peace treaty was signed.

The main points of the Treaty are set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp. 197, 198-199.

Afghanistan after the War—Since the war the relations between Afghanistan and Great Britain have been good and improving. The war had a beneficial effect in 1923 when a murder case from the tribal territory on the Indian side of the Frontier committed raids in India, murdering Indian people and kidnapping Indian women and then took refuge in Afghanistan. In course of time this gang was broken up. Heavily the King of Afghanistan was helped to settle his own borders which have made him glad of British help. The policy of the Government was to strengthen the resources of the country and to bring it into closer relation with modern methods of civilisation. But Afghanistan is still a backward country and no country is more backward, especially violent was the reaction to a secular form of civilisation. The direct result was a terrible rebellion of Mangal and Ismail in the Northern Provinces and serious trouble in the capital. The British Government was at first reluctant to get involved in the situation, but the situation was so serious that the British Government was finally united to support the King of Afghanistan with the aid of the Government of India. The situation was appreciated, but the British Government was appreciated.

the whole business gave a serious set-back to the reforms initiated by His Majesty; he had to withdraw almost the whole of his administrative code and to revert to the Mahomedan Law which was previously in force.

Bolshevik Penetration—Taking a long view, a much more serious development of the policies of Afghanistan, at the period to which the foregoing notes apply was the penetration of the Bolsheviks. These astute propagandists have converted the former Trans-Caspian States of Tsarist Russia into Soviet Republics, where the rule of the Bolsheviks is much more drastic and disruptive than was that of what was called the despotism of the Romanoffs. The object of this policy is gradually to sweep into the Soviet system the outlying provinces of Persia, of China and of Afghanistan. In Persia this policy was foiled by the vigour of the Sipar Salah, Reza Khan, since declared Shah. In Chinese Turkestan it is pursued with qualified success. In Afghanistan it also made certain progress. The first step of the Bolsheviks was to extend the Soviet Republics of Tajikistan, Uzbek and Turkmanistan so as to absorb all Northern Afghanistan. This was later, apparently, abandoned for the moment for a more gentle penetration. Large subsidies, mostly delivered in kind, were given to Afghanistan. Telegraph lines were erected all over the country, roads were constructed, large quantities of arms and ammunition were supplied, whilst an air force with Russian pilots and mechanics was created and was largely developed. In return the Bolsheviks received important trading facilities. The whole purpose of this policy was ultimately to make it possible to attack Great Britain in India through an absorbed Afghanistan.

It is very doubtful if the Amir and his advisers were deceived by these practices, and whether they did not pursue the simple plan of taking all they could get without the slightest intention of handing themselves over to the Bolsheviks. But it is easier to let the Bolshevik in than to get him out, friends of the Afghans were asking themselves whether the Amir was not nourishing vipers in his bosom. Towards the end of 1925 and in the early part of 1926 there was a rude awakening. The Northern Frontier of the country has always been unsettled because of the shifting courses of the Oxus. In December Bolshevik forces captured with violence the Afghan post of Dargabad, killing one soldier. These events aroused great indignation at Kabul and were denounced by the Amir *coram publico*. There is no little evidence to show that though the form of government has changed in Russia the aims of Russian policy are the same. It used to be said that the test of Russian good faith under the Anglo-Russian Agreement would be the attitude of Petrograd towards the extension of the Orenberg-Tashkent railway to Termez. That line has been constructed by the Bolsheviks. The Afghans have had their eyes opened.

Russo-Afghan Treaty—Outwardly the relations between the two states are friendly. In December 1926 the Afghan papers published the text of a new treaty concluded with Soviet Russia, which was signed on August 31st, but

it provided that it should in no way interfere with the secret treaty signed in Moscow on February 28th, 1921. The principal clauses of this treaty, as disclosed in the Afghan papers, are as follows —

Clause 1—In the event of war or hostile action between one of the contracting parties and a third power or powers the other contracting party will observe neutrality in respect of the first contracting party.

Clause 2—Both the contracting parties agree to abstain from mutual aggression, the one against the other. Within their own dominions also they will do nothing which may cause political or military harm to the other party. The contracting parties particularly agree not to make alliances or political and military agreements with any one or more other powers against each other. Each will also abstain from joining any boycott or financial or economic blockade organized against the other party. Besides this in case the attitude of a third power or powers is hostile towards one of the contracting parties, the other contracting party will not help such hostile policy, and, further, will prohibit the execution of such policy and hostile actions and measures within its dominions.

Clause 3—The high contracting parties acknowledge one another's Government as rightful and independent. They agree to abstain from all sorts of armed or unarmed interference in one another's internal affairs. They will decidedly neither join nor help any one or more other powers which interfere in or against one of the contracting Government. None of the contracting parties will permit in its dominions the formation or existence of societies and the activities of individuals whose object is to gather armed force with a view to injuring the other's independence, or otherwise such activities will be checked. Similarly, neither of the contracting parties will allow armed forces, arms, ammunition, or other war material, meant to be used against the other contracting party to pass through its dominions.

Clause 6—This treaty will take effect from the date of its ratification, which should take place within three months of its signature. It will be valid for three years. After this period it will remain in force for another year, provided neither of the parties has given notice six months before the date of its expiry that it would cease after that time.

On March 23rd there was also signed in Berlin a treaty between Germany and Afghanistan which amounted to no more than the establishment of diplomatic relations.

A British Minister is established in Kabul as well as the representatives of other European States. The representatives of Afghanistan are established in India and in London, and at some of the European capitals. The various subsidiary agreements under the Treaty have been carried into effect.

The King's Tour—In the closing months of 1927 His Majesty King Amanulla, accompanied by the Queen and a staff of officials, commenced

a long tour to India and Europe. It is understood that this was one of the cherished ambitions of his father, King Habibullah, who was assassinated in 1919. King Amanulla, when he set out, was warmly welcomed in India and received a great popular greeting in Bombay both from his co-religionists and from members of other communities, who forgot the invasion of India in 1919. He then took ship to Europe. He was the guest of His Majesty King George V in London, and visited the principal European capitals. He made a State visit to Turkey, and returned to Afghanistan by way of Soviet Russia and Persia. A series of treaties with the governments of the countries visited was announced and the King returned to Kabul in the late summer of 1928, the tour having been unclouded by untoward incident. Afghanistan was peaceful during his long absence.

Reforming Zeal—King Amanulla returned to his realm as full of reforming zeal. He was much impressed by the political and social institutions of the western lands he visited, and in particular by the dramatic forcefulness with which Mustapha Kemal Pasha had driven Turkey along the path of "reform," or perhaps it would be more correct to say westernisation. In this he was encouraged by the Queen, who was desirous of seeing the women of Afghanistan enjoy some of the freedom and opportunity won by and for the women of the West. An edict was issued, changing the whole structure of Afghan society. New codes and taxes were imposed. It was proposed that women should emerge from their seclusion and doff the veil; the co-education of boys and girls was prescribed; in September Government officials were forbidden to practise polygamy; in October European dress was ordered for the people of Kabul. At the same time, the pay of the regular troops fell into arrear.

With every appreciation of the spirit and direction of these changes, friends of His Majesty advised the King to moderate the pace. They reminded him that in 1924 far less drastic changes had brought serious trouble in their train. In May of that year the "Lame Mullah" raised the standard of rebellion amongst the Güzal and Mangal clansmen of Khost. The Mullahs were openly active against the King and His Majesty was equally frank in his hostility to them. Possibly also well-wishers suggested that what was possible in Turkey, after centuries of close contact with the West, and where the ground had been prepared by missionary effort and a long struggle for the emancipation of women, might be less easy in Afghanistan, where there had been no contact with the western world.

A change of Kings—Events moved rapidly in 1929. A notorious north Afghan *buland*, Bacha-i-Saqqa, raised the standard of revolt and inflicted severe losses on the Afghan Regular troops, discontented as they were by arrears of pay. Day by day the Afghan representatives in various parts of the world received messages asserting that the rebels had been destroyed, and a rapid series of pronouncements declared the withdrawal of all the reforms and the establishment of a Council of Provincial Representatives. Communications with the

outer world were broken King Amanullah and his family fled from Kabul to Kandahar, and then from Kandahar via Quetta to Bombay where they took ship to Europe. King Amanullah on his arrival at Rome entered into possession of the Afghan Legation, where he remained. Bacha-i-Sagqao deposed himself King of Afghanistan, and for a few months held his position in Kabul. Without money, administrative experience or a disciplined following his throne was a thorny one and he was harassed by constant attacks. The Royal Air Force in India meanwhile went to the rescue of the British Nationals beleaguered in and around Kabul and in a series of brilliant sorties they did all without the slightest hitch. The most formidable of the new king's adventures were won by General Nadir Khan, a scion of the old ruling house, with a wide knowledge of the land. Heavy fighting took place. Bacha-i-Sagqao Nadir Khan almost gave up his chances as finally lost. But a band of warriors from the British side of the border effected a prospect of loot, joined Nadir Khan and finally seized Kabul in his name and Bacha-i-Sagqao thus became victor and fled to the mountains, at the wish of the Afghans, Bacha-i-Sagqao was executed with other rebels and within the year closed Nadir Khan came to all seeming in firm possession of the kingdom. He despatched members of his court to the principal Afghan Legations in India. A Shiwarai rising near the exit of the Khyber Pass took place in February 1933 and was suppressed with unexpected success. There followed a serious rebellion in Balauchistan, Bacha-i-Sagqao's country, which was promptly quelled. And thereafter Bacha-i-Sagqao ruled without challenge. He was friendly to the reorganisation of his country and was truly neutral during the various stages of the revolution, but he gave support to Afghanistan to help her attain internal peace when she had attained it. This promise was fulfilled by the

provision of an interest free loan of £200,000 to King Nadir and by the supply of rifles and ammunition to him. He gave evidence of his friendliness towards Britain and India. He co-operated effectively to prevent tribes on his side of the Frontier joining those on the British side against the Government of India in response to the Congress agitation in the summer of 1930. The trade routes were re-opened and the new King again took up Amanullah's mantle of reform but in a statesmanlike manner which carried the Mullah's along with him.

Murder of Nadir Shah—This ordered march of progress was tragically interrupted by the murder of His Majesty Nadir Shah on the afternoon of 8 November 1933. His Majesty was attending a football tournament prize giving, when a young man among the gathering stepped forward and fired several revolver shots into him at close range, killing him instantly. It later appeared that the assassin committed the crime in revenge for the execution of a prominent Afghan who had been caught deeply involved in treasonable activities after he had been mercifully treated for earlier behaviour of the same kind. The assassin's father was stated to have been this man's servant. The murder was not followed by general or widespread disorder. The members of Nadir Shah's family and his prominent officers of State stood loyally by his heir, his son, Mohammed Zahir. The latter was duly placed on his father's throne and his accession was in due course acknowledged and confirmed throughout the kingdom in the traditional manner. The new king started his reign with a high reputation for courage and steadiness. He early issued assurances to his people that he would continue the policy of his father in affairs of State. No untoward events have occurred in the months that have since past.

British Representative—Lt-Col Fraser Tytler, CIE

VII.—TIBET.

British policy in Tibet is really another phase in the long-drawn-out duel between Great Britain and Russia in Central Asia. The object was to establish communication with the interior, were not, of course, inspired by the aggressive spirit. When in 1774 Warren Hastings sent Lord Bogie on a mission to the Dalai Lama of Lhasa, the spiritual equal of the Dalai Lama of Lhasa, to establish friendly relations with a Power which was growing so trouble on the frontier, and to pave the way to a good understanding between the two countries. After the departure from India the British Government sent an Englishman to visit the Dalai Lama and the British Expedition of 1843, the first British Expedition. In 1853, the British Government sent Col. Macaulay, of the Indian Army, on a further attempt to establish friendly relations with the Tibetans, but this attempt was frustrated by the opposition of the British Government to the

Tibet was recognised, and to whose view until the war with Japan, British statesmen were inclined to pay excessive deference. But the position on the Tibetan frontier continued to be most unsatisfactory. The Tibetans were aggressive and obstructive, and with a view to putting an end to an intolerable situation, a Convention was negotiated between Great Britain and China in 1890. This laid down the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet, it admitted a British protectorate over Sikkim, and paved the way for arrangements for the conduct of trade across the Sikkim-Tibet frontier. These supplementary arrangements provided for the opening of a trade mart at Yatung, on the Tibetan side of the frontier, to which British subjects should have the right of free access, and where there should be no restrictions on trade. The agreement proved useless in practice, because the Tibetans refused to recognise it, and despite their established suzerainty, the Chinese Government were unable to secure respect for it.

Russian Intervention.

This was the position when in 1899 Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, endeavoured to get into direct touch with the Tibetan authorities. Three letters which he addressed to the Dalai Lama were returned unopened, at a time when the Dalai Lama was in direct intercourse with the Tsar of Russia. His emissary was a Siberian Dorjjeff, who had established a remarkable ascendancy in the counsels of the Dalai Lama. After a few years' residence at Lhasa Dorjjeff went to Russia on a confidential mission in 1899. At the end of 1900 he returned to Russia at the head of a Tibetan mission of which the head was officially described in Russia as "the senior Tsanba Khomba attached to the Dalai Lama of Tibet." This mission arrived at Odessa in October 1900, and was received in audience by the Tsar at Livadia. Dorjjeff returned to Lhasa to report progress, and in 1901 was at St Petersburg with a Tibetan mission, where as bearers of an autograph letter from the Dalai Lama they were received by the Tsar at Peterhoff. They were escorted home through Central Asia by a Russian force to which several Intelligence Officers were attached. At the time it was rumoured that Dorjjeff had, on behalf of the Dalai Lama, concluded a treaty with Russia, which virtually placed Tibet under the protectorate of Russia. This rumour was afterwards officially contradicted by the Russian Government.

The Expedition of 1904.

In view of these conditions the Government of India, treating the idea of Chinese suzerainty over Tibet as a constitutional fiction, proposed in 1903, to despatch a mission, with an armed escort, to Lhasa to discuss the outstanding questions with the Tibetan authorities on the spot. To this the Home Government could not assent, but agreed, in conjunction with the Chinese Government, to a joint meeting at Khamba Jong, on the Tibetan side of the frontier. Sir Francis Younghusband was the British representative, but after months of delay it was ascertained that the Tibetans had no intention of committing themselves. It was therefore agreed that the mission, with a strong escort, should move to Gyantse. On the way the Tibetans developed marked hostility, and there was fighting at Tuna, and several sharp encounters in and around Gyantse. It was therefore decided that the mission should advance to Lhasa, and on August 3rd, 1904, Lhasa was reached. There Sir Francis Younghusband negotiated a convention by which the Tibetans agreed to respect the Chinese Convention of 1890, to open trade marts at Gyantse, Gartok and Yatung; to pay an indemnity of £500,000 (seventy-five lakhs of rupees); the British to remain in occupation of the Chumbi Valley until this indemnity was paid off at the rate of a lakh of rupees a year. In a separate instrument the Tibetans agreed that the British Trade Agent at Gyantse should have the right to proceed to Lhasa to discuss commercial questions, if necessary.

Home Government intervenes

For reasons which were not apparent at the time, but which have since been made clearer,

the Home Government were unable to accept the full terms of this agreement. The indemnity was reduced from seventy-five lakhs of rupees to twenty-five lakhs, to be paid off in three years, and the occupation of the Chumbi Valley was reduced to that period. The right to despatch the British Trade Agent to Lhasa was withdrawn. Two years later (June 1906) a Convention was concluded between Great Britain and China regulating the position in Tibet. Under this Convention Great Britain agreed neither to annex Tibetan territory, nor to interfere in the internal administration of Tibet. China undertook not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet. Great Britain was empowered to lay down telegraph lines to connect the trade stations with India, and it was provided that the provisions of the Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893, remained in force. The Chinese Government paid the indemnity in three years and the Chumbi Valley was evacuated. The only direct result of the Mission was the opening of the three trade marts and the establishment of a British Trade Agent at Gyantse.

Chinese Action.

The sequel to the Anglo-Russian Agreement was dramatic, although it ought not to have been unexpected. On the approach of the Younghusband Mission the Dalai Lama fled to Urga, the sacred city of the Buddhists in Mongolia. He left the internal government of Tibet in confusion, and one of Sir Francis Younghusband's great difficulties was to find Tibetan officials who would undertake the responsibility of signing the Treaty. Now the suzerainty of China over Tibet had been explicitly reaffirmed. It was asserted that she would be held responsible for the foreign relations of Tibet. In the past this suzerainty having been a "constitutional action," it was inevitable that China should take steps to see that she had the power to make her well respected at Lhasa. To this end she proceeded to convert Tibet from a vassal state into a province of China. In 1908 Chao Erh-feng, Acting Viceroy in the neighbouring province of Szechuen, was appointed Resident in Tibet. He proceeded gradually to establish his authority, marching through eastern Tibet and treating the people with great severity. Meantime the Dalai Lama, finding his presence at Urga, the seat of another Buddhist Pontiff, irksome, had taken refuge in Si-ning. Thence he proceeded to Peking where he arrived in 1908, was received by the Court, and despatched to resume his duties at Lhasa. Moving by leisurely stages, he arrived there at Christmas, 1909. But it was soon apparent that the ideas of the Dalai Lama and of the Chinese Government had little in common. The Dalai Lama expected to resume the temporal and spiritual despotism which he had exercised prior to 1904. The Chinese intended to deprive him of all temporal power and preserve him as a spiritual pope. The Tibetans had already been exasperated by the presence of the Chinese soldiery. The report that a strong Chinese force was moving on Lhasa so alarmed the Dalai Lama that he fled from Lhasa, and by the irony of fate sought a refuge in India. He

was chased to the frontier by Chinese troops, China: and Mr Long Chen Shatra, Prime Minister to the Dalai Lama, threshed out these issues. Whilst no official pronouncement has

Later Stages

The British Government acting on the representations of the Government of India made strong protest to China against this action. They pointed out that Great Britain, while disclaiming any desire to interfere with the internal administration of Tibet, could not be indifferent to disturbances in the peace of a country which was a neighbour on intimate terms with other neighbouring States on our frontier, such as Nepal, and pressed the Chinese Government to maintain the position of the Chinese Government that no more troops had been sent to Tibet, and that it was necessary for the preservation of peace that China had no intention of converting Tibet into a province, but that being a province for the good conduct of Tibet, China was in a position to see that her wishes were carried out by the Tibetans. Finally, the Chinese Government stated that the Dalai Lama was such a weak, feeble person that they had been compelled to depose him. Here the Chinese Government have failed, but for the revolution in China. This revolution broke out in 1911, and one of the first victims was the Dalai Lama. Cut off from all support from China, surrounded by a hostile and infuriated Chinese army, the Chinese troops in Tibet were compelled to flee, they surrendered, and the Chinese army passed through China, but through the way of Darjeeling and Calcutta. The Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa and in 1913, the Government of India, Lord Curzon, Lord Morley, and the Government of the British Government all agreed to these changes. He said the Government of the President of the Chinese Government that Tibet came within the sphere of Chinese internal administration, and that Tibet was to be regarded as on an equal footing with other provinces of China, and that there was a very vigorous protest from the British Government. The Chinese Government had only accepted the principle that China had no right of active intervention in the internal administration of Tibet, and agreed to the constitution of a conference to discuss the relations of the three countries. The Conference met in Simla when Sir Henry McMahon, former Secretary to the Government of India, Sir J. A. Clerk, representative

China: and Mr Long Chen Shatra, Prime Minister to the Dalai Lama, threshed out these issues. Whilst no official pronouncement has been made on the subject, it is understood that a Convention was initiated in June which recognised the complete autonomy of Tibet proper, with the right of China to maintain a resident at Lhasa with a snitable guard. A semi-autonomous zone was to be constituted in Eastern Tibet, in which the Chinese position was to be relatively much stronger. But this Convention, it is understood, has not been ratified by the Chinese Government, owing to the difficulty of defining Outer and Inner Tibet, and in 1918 Tibet took the offensive and threw off the last vestiges of Chinese suzerainty. When the Chinese province of Szechuan went over to the South, the Central Government at Peking was unable to finance the frontier forces or to withstand the Tibetan advance, which was directed from Lhasa and appeared to be ably managed. After the Tibetan army had occupied some towns on the confines of the Szechuan marshes, hostilities were suspended and an armistice was concluded.

From what has gone before, it will be seen that the importance which formerly attached to the political condition of Tibet was much less a local than an external question, and was influenced by our relations with Russia and China rather than with our relations with Tibet. Russia having relapsed into a state of considerable confusion, and China having relapsed into a state of absolute confusion, these external forces temporarily at any rate disappeared, and Tibet no longer loomed on the Indian political horizon. The veil was drawn afresh over Lhasa, and affairs in that country pursued an isolated course, with this considerable difference. The Dalai Lama was now on terms of the greatest cordiality with the Government of India. In 1920 he requested that a British officer should be sent to discuss with him the position in Central Asia brought about by the Revolution in Russia and the collapse of Government in China, and Mr. Bell, C.B.E., 1087 Political Officer in Sikkim, was deputed for this purpose. In 1922 telephonic communication between Lhasa and India was established. The Chinese have lately to increase their hold on Tibet but without persuading the Tibetans to accept closer association.

British Trade Agent, Gyantse and Yatung —
Captain P C Hawley.

VIII.—THE NORTH-EASTERN FRONTIER.

The Government of the north-west frontier has been able to discharge its responsibilities and duties towards the British Empire through the agency of its efficient Indian State troops—four regiments of infantry and two Mountain Batteries, composed mainly of the Rapput Dogras, who make excellent fighting material. One of the most important trade routes with Tibet passes through Kashmir—that through Ladak. The Gurkha State stands in special relation with the British Government. It is for all practical purposes independent, and the British Government exercises no influence on the internal administration. The government

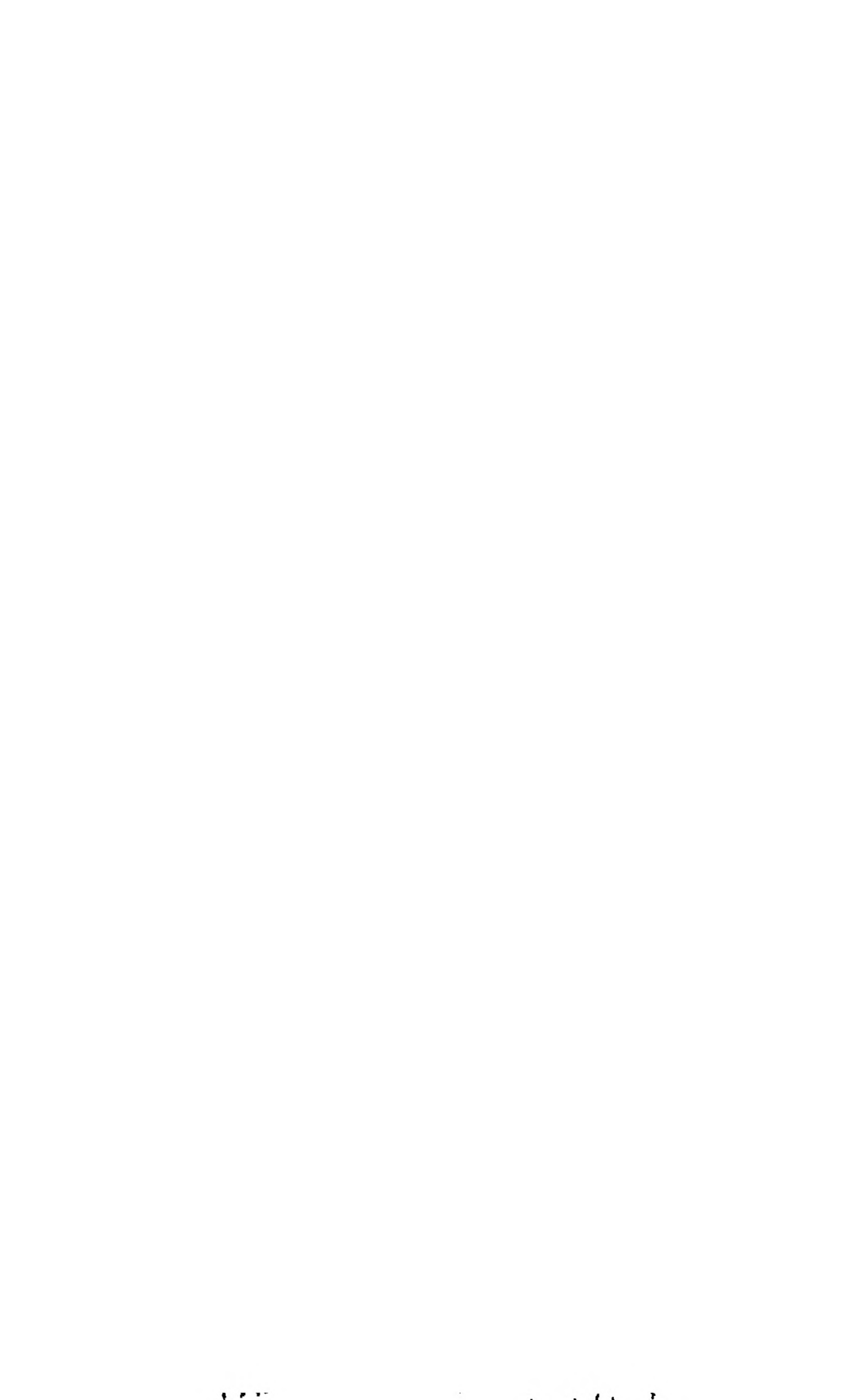
(q.r.) It is almost the only important native State in India with frontier responsibilities and it worthily discharges them through the agency of its efficient Indian State troops—four regiments of infantry and two Mountain Batteries, composed mainly of the Rajput Dogras, who make excellent fighting material. One of the most important trade routes with Tibet pass through Kashmir—that through Ladakh. Then we come to the long narrow strip of Nepal. This Gurkha State stands in special relation with the British Government. It is for all practical purposes independent, and the British Government at Simla exercises no influence on its internal administration. The Government

machine in Nepal is also peculiar. The Maharaj (Dhraj) who comes from the Sesodia Rajput clan, the bluest blood in India, takes no part in the administration. All power vests in the Prime Minister, who occupies a place equivalent to that of the Mayors of the Palace, or the Shoguns of Japan. The present Prime Minister Mr. Chandra Shamsher, has visited England and has given conspicuous evidence of his attachment to the British Government. Nepal is the main Indian outpost against Tibet or against Chinese aggression through Tibet. The friction between the Chinese and the Nepalese used to be frequent, and in the eighteenth century the Chinese marched an army to the confines of Khatmandu—one of the most remarkable military achievements in the history of Asia. Under the firm rule of the present Prime Minister Nepal has been largely free from internal disturbances, and has been raised to a strong bulwark of India. Nepal is the recruiting ground for the Gurkha Infantry, who form such a splendid part of the fighting arm of the Indian Empire. Beyond Nepal are the smaller States of Bhutan and Sikkim, whose rulers are Mongolian by extraction and Buddhists by religion. In view of Chinese aggressions in Tibet, the Government of India in 1910 strengthened their relations with Bhutan by increasing their subsidy from fifty thousand to a lakh of rupees a year, and taking a guarantee that Bhutan would be guided by them in its foreign relations. Afterwards China was officially notified that Great Britain would protect the rights and interests of these States. At the request of the Nepalese Government a British railway expert was deputed to visit the country and advise on the best means of improving communications with India. As the result of his report the Nepalese Government have decided to construct a light railway from Bheichakhori to Raxaul. Great success has attended the orders passed by the Nepalese Government abolishing slavery.

Assam and Burma

We then come to the Assam border tribes—the Dasas the Miris, the Abors and the Mishmis. Excepting the Abors none of these tribes has recently given trouble. The murder of Mr. Williamson and Dr. Gregorson by the Minyong Abors in 1911 made necessary an expedition to the Dihang valley of the Abor country on the N. E. frontier. A force of 2,500 and about 400 military police was employed from October

1911 to April 1912 in subduing the tribe. After two or three small actions the murderers were delivered up. The cost of the expedition was Rs. 21,60,000. At the same time friendly missions were sent to the Mishmi and Miri countries. Close contact with these forest-clad and leech-infested hills has not encouraged any desire to establish more intimate relations with them. The area occupied by the Nagas runs northwards from Manipur. The Nagas are a Tibeto-Burman people, devoted to the practice of head hunting, which is still vigorously prosecuted by the independent tribes. The Chin Hills is a tract of mountainous country to the south of Manipur. The corner of India from the Assam boundary to the northern boundary of the Shan States is for the most part included in the Myitkina and Bhamo districts of Burma. Over the greater part of this area, a labyrinth of hills in the north, no direct administrative control is at present exercised. It is peopled by the Shans and the Kachins. Civilisation is said to be progressing and steps have been taken to prevent encroachments from the Chinese side. Negotiations between Britain and China on this subject are proceeding. There is a considerable trade with China through Bhamo. On the Eastern frontier of Burma are the Shan States, with an area of fifty thousand square miles and a population of 1,300,000. These States are still administered by the Sawbwas or hereditary chiefs, subject to the guidance of Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents. The Northern Shan Railway to Lashio, opened in 1903, was meant to be a stage in the construction of a direct railway link with China, but this idea has been put aside, for it is seen that there can never be a trade which would justify the heavy expenditure. The Southern Shan States are being developed by railway connection. The five Karen States lie on the frontier south of the Shan States. South of Karen the frontier runs between Nam and the Tenasserim Division of Burma. The relations between the Indian Government and the progressive kingdom of Siam are excellent. A notable humanitarian development of recent years is the success of the measures to abolish slavery in the Hukawng Valley. In this remote place in the north-east of Burma a mild system of slavery existed, but in response to the initiative and pressure of British officers they were all freed by April 1920.



Railways to India.

The prospect of linking Europe and Asia by a railway running eastwards through Asia Minor has fascinated men's minds for generations. The plans suggested have, owing to the British connection with India, always lain in the direction of lines approaching India. More than 50 years ago a Select Committee of the House of Commons sat for two years to consider the question of a Euphrates Valley railway. The Shah of Persia applied to the British Foreign Office for the investment of British capital in Persian railway construction many years before the end of the nineteenth century. A proposal was put forward in 1865 for a line of 1,000 miles from Cairo and Port Said to Koweit, at the head of the Persian Gulf. While these projects were in the air, German enterprise stepped in and made a small beginning by constructing the Anatolian railway system. Its lines start from Scutari on the southern shore of the Bosphorus, opposite Constantinople, and serve the extreme western end of Asia Minor. And upon this foundation was based the Turkish concession to Germans to build the Baghdad Railway.

Meanwhile, Russia was pushing her railways from various directions into the Central Asian territory running along the northern frontiers of Persia and Afghanistan to the borders of Chinese Turkestan. The construction of a Trans-Persian railway, connecting India, across Persia with the Russian lines between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea came to the forefront after the conclusion of the historic Anglo-Russian agreement regarding Persia.

The Germans pushed forward their Baghdad railway project with a calculating shrewdness arising from their estimate of the value it would possess in their grand aim to overthrow the British Empire. The outbreak of the great war and the success of the Germans in invading Turkey into it saw the final stages of the construction of the railway pressed forward with passionate energy. Thus, before the overthrow of the Turks and Germans in Asia Minor and of the Germans in France the railway was completed and in use from Scutari across Anatolia, over the Taurus Mountains to Aleppo and thence eastward across the Euphrates to a point between Nisibin and Mosul. The Germans had also by that time constructed a line to Baghdad at the eastern end of the route, northwards from Baghdad to a point a considerable distance beyond Samara.

The war compelled the British to undertake considerable railway development northward from Basra, the port at the mouth of the Shat-el-Arab, the broad stream in which the Tigris and Euphrates after their junction, flow into the head of the Persian Gulf. The system consists of a metre-gauge line from Basra to Nasiriah, on the Euphrates, thence northwards to Baghdad the line passing a considerable distance westward to Kut-el-Amara, of historic fame. From Baghdad the line runs eastward approximately to the foot of the pass through which the Persian road crosses the frontier of that country. A line branches off in the neighbourhood of Kifri in the direction

of Mosul. A line also runs westward from Baghdad to Fajla, on the Euphrates. When the Turkish Nationalists gained control of Anatolia any question of the completion of the Baghdad line became indefinitely delayed.

The Trans-Persian line to join the Russian Caucasian system and the Indian railways first assumed proportions of practical importance in the winter of 1911. Both the Russian and the Indian railway systems were by then well developed up to the point likely to be the terminus of a Trans-Persian line. The Russian system reached Julfa, on the Russo-Persian frontier in the Caucasus. During the war this line was carried thence southward into the region east and south-east of Lake Urumia. The Indian railway system, on the borderland of India and Persia, was similarly much extended and improved during the war. A new agreement which was negotiated between England and Persia specially provided for British assistance in the development of Persian natural resources and particularly for the extension and improvement of Persian roads suitable for motor traffic, but the agreement came to naught.

There remains the possibility of linking the Russian and Indian railway system by way of Afghanistan. The suggestion has often been made in recent years that the Russian line from Merv to Herat, on the northern frontier of Afghanistan, should be linked to the Indian line which proceeds from Quetta to the Afghan border on Chaman. The distance between the railway heads is about 250 miles. But there have always for strategic reasons been strong military objections to the railway across Afghanistan and after the death of the late Amir Habibullah the Afghan Government firmly opposed any suggestion for carrying the Indian or Russian railway system within their borders. What the present Afghan Government think about the matter was not shown up to the time this article was written, but the strange situation in Central Asia and beyond the Indian North West Frontier does not suggest the early removal of the strategic difficulties. The completion of a broad-gauge line extending the Indian railway system through the Khyber Pass to Landi Khana, at its western extremity, opens a prospect of further possible rail connections with Afghanistan.

Britain's special interests in regard to Persian communications have hitherto principally been associated with lines running inland from the Persian Gulf, to supersede the old mule routes. Special importance has for many years been attached to the provision of a railway from Mohammerah, at the opening of the Karun Valley, where the Karun River runs into the Shat-el-Arab, just below Basra, northwards into the rich highland country of Western Persia, where the valuable West Persian oil wells also lie. Britain has long maintained special relations with the Karun Valley and has a large trade there.

The great sepoy army of India originated in the small establishments of guards, known as peons, enrolled for the protection of the factories of the East India Company, but sepoys were first enlisted and disciplined by the French, who appeared in India in 1665. Before this detachments of soldiers were sent from England to Bombay, and as early as 1665 the first fortified position was occupied by the East India Company at Armagon, near Masulipatam. Madras was acquired in 1640, but in 1654 the garrison of Fort St George consisted of only ten men. In 1661 Bombay was occupied by 400 soldiers, and in 1668 the number was only 285 of whom 93 were English and the rest French, Portuguese and Indians.

After the declaration of war with France in 1744 the forces were considerably increased, but this did not prevent the French capturing Madras in 1746. Following the French example, the English raised considerable sepoy forces and largely increased the military establishments. In 1748 Major Stringer Lawrence landed at Fort St David to command the forces of the Company. The English foothold in India was then precarious and the French under Duplex were contemplating fresh attacks. It became necessary for the English Company to form a larger military establishment. The new commandant at once set about the organisation and discipline of his small force, and the garrison was given a company formation. This was the beginning of the regular Indian Army of which Lawrence subsequently became Commander-in-Chief. In Madras the European companies were developed into the Madras Fusiliers; similar companies in Bengal and Bombay became the 1st Bengal and 1st Bombay Fusiliers. The native infantry were similarly organised by Lawrence and Olive. By degrees Royal Regiments were sent to India, the first being the 39th Foot, which arrived in 1754.

Struggle with the French.—From this time for a century or more the army in India was engaged in constant war. After a prolonged war with the French, whom Duplex had by 1750 raised to the position of the leading power in India, the efforts of Stringer Lawrence, Clive, and Eyre Coote completed the downfall of their rivals, and the power of England was established by the battle of Plassey in Bengal, and at Wandewash in Southern India, where the French were finally defeated in 1761. A number of independent States, owing nominal allegiance to the Emperor at Delhi, had risen on the decline of the Mughal Empire, some ruled by Mahratta Princes and others by Musalman adventurers such as Hyder Ali of Mysore. A prolonged struggle ensued with the latter and his son and successor Tipu Sultan, which ended only with the defeat and death of Tipu and the capture of Seringapatam in 1799.

Reorganisation of 1796.—In 1796 the Indian armies, which had been organised on the Presidency system, were reorganised. The European troops were 13,000 strong and

the Indians numbered some 67,000, the infantry being generally formed into 75 regiments of two battalions each. In Bengal, regiments were formed by linking existing battalions of ten companies each with large establishments of English officers. The Madras and Bombay armies were at the same time reorganised on similar lines, and cavalry and artillery companies were raised.

In 1798, the Marquis Wellesley arrived as Governor-General, firmly imbued with the necessity of destroying the last vestiges of French influence. In pursuance of this policy he reduced Mysore, where Tipu was intriguing with the French, and then turned his attention to the Mahratta States, in which Sindhia had established power over the Mughal Emperor at Delhi by means of a large regular army officered by Europeans under the French adventurer Perron. In campaigns against Sindhia in Hindustan by a British Army under General Lake, and in the Deccan against that prince and the Raja of Berar by an army under General Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, the power of these Chiefs was broken in the battles of Laswari and Assaya. French influence was finally destroyed, and the Mughal Emperor was released from the domination of the Mahrattas. Subsequently Holkar also was reduced, and British power established on a firm footing.

Mutiny at Vellore.—The Indian Army had been from time to time subject to incidents of mutiny which were the precursors of the great cataclysm of 1857. The most serious of these outbreaks occurred at the fort of Vellore in 1806 when the native troops suddenly broke out and killed the majority of the European officers and soldiers quartered in the fort, while the striped flag of the Sultan of Mysore, whose sons were confined there, was raised upon the ramparts. The mutiny was suppressed by Colonel Gillespie, who galloped over from Arcot at the head of the 19th Light Dragoons, blew in the gate of the fort, and destroyed the mutineers. This retribution put a stop to any further outbreaks in the army.

Overseas Expeditions.—Several important overseas expeditions were undertaken in the early part of the nineteenth century. Bourbon was taken from the French - Ceylon and the Spice Islands were wrested from the Dutch, and Java was conquered in 1811 by a force largely composed of Bengal troops which had volunteered for this service.

In 1814, the Nepal War took place in which the brave Gillespie, who had distinguished himself in Java, was killed when leading the assault on the fort of Kalunga. The Gurkhas were overcome in this war after offering a stout resistance.

In 1817, hostilities again broke out with the Mahrattas, who rose against the British during the progress of operations against the Pindaris. Practically the whole army took the field and all India was turned into a vast camp. The

Mahratta Chiefs of Poona Nagpur, and Indore rose in succession, and were beaten, respectively, at Kirkee, Sitabaldi, and Melnapur. This was the last war in Southern India. The tide of war rolled to the north never to return. In the Punjab, to which our frontier now extended, our army came into touch with the great military community of the Sikhs.

In 1824, the armies were reorganised, the double-battalion regiments being separated, and the battalions numbered according to the dates they were raised. The Bengal Army was organised in three brigades of horse artillery, five battalions of foot artillery, two regiments of European and 68 of Indian Infantry, 5 regiments of regular and 8 of irregular cavalry. The Madras and Bombay armies were constituted on similar lines, though of lesser strength.

First Afghan War and Sikh Wars—In 1839, a British Army advanced into Afghanistan and occupied Cabul. There followed the murder of the British Envoys and the disastrous retreat in which the army perished. This disaster was in some measure retrieved by subsequent operations, but it had far-reaching effects on British prestige. The people of the Punjab had witnessed these unfortunate operations, they had seen the lost legions which never returned, and although they saw also the avenging armies they no longer regarded them with their former awe. Sikh aggression led to hostilities in 1845-46, when a large portion of the Bengal Army took the field under Sir Hugh Gough. The Sikhs were defeated after stubborn fights at Mudki and Ferozeshahr, the opening battles, but did not surrender until they had been overthrown at the battles of Allwal and Sohraon. Two years later an outbreak at Multan caused the Second Sikh War when, after an indecisive action at Chillianwala, our brave enemies were finally overcome at Gujrat, and the Punjab was annexed. Other campaigns of this period were the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier, and the Second Burmese War, the first having taken place in 1824.

The conquest of the Punjab extended over the frontier to the country inhabited by those turbulent tribes which have given so much trouble during the past sixty years while they have furnished many soldiers to our army. To keep order on this border the Punjab Frontier Force was established, and was constantly engaged in small expeditions which, while they involved little bloodshed, kept the force employed and involved much arduous work.

The Indian Mutiny—On the eve of the mutiny in 1857 there were in the Bengal Army 21,000 British and 137,000 Indian troops, in the Madras Army 8,000 British and 49,000 Indian troops and in Bombay 9,000 British and 45,000 Indian troops. The proportion of Indian to British was therefore too large for safety. The causes of the mutiny were many and various. Among these were the annexation policy of Lord Dalhousie, especially that of Oudh from which the greater part of the Bengal Army was drawn, interference with the privileges of the sepoy with respect to certain allowances, and lack of power on the part of commanding officers either to punish or reward. The final spark which fired the revolt was the introduction of a new cartridge. The muskets of those days were supplied with a cartridge

in which the powder was enclosed in a paper cover, which had to be bitten off to expose the powder to ignition. In 1857 a new cartridge was introduced with paper of a glazed texture which it was currently reported was greased with the fat of swine and oxen, and therefore unclean alike for Muhammadans and Hindus. This was interpreted as an attempt to destroy the caste and the religion of the sepoys. Skillful agitators exploited this grievance, which was not without foundation, and added reports that flour was mixed with bone-dust and sugar refined with the blood of oxen.

Disaffection culminated in mutiny at Barrackpore and in an outbreak at Barrackpore where sepoy Mangai Pandey attacked a European officer. The next most serious manifestation was the refusal of men of the 3rd Bengal Cavalry at Meerut to take the obnoxious cartridge. These men were tried and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment, their fetters being riveted on parade on the 9th May. Next day the troops in Meerut rose, and, aided by the mob, burned the houses of the Europeans and murdered many. The troops then went off to Delhi. Unfortunately there was in Meerut no senior officer capable of dealing with the situation. The European troops in the place remained inactive, and the mutineers were allowed to depart unmolested to spread the flames of rebellion.

Delhi is the historic capital of India. On its time worn walls brood the prestige of a thousand years of Empire. It contained a great magazine of ammunition. Yet Delhi was held only by a few Indian battalions, who joined the mutineers. The Europeans who did not succeed in escaping were massacred and the Delhi Emperor was proclaimed supreme in India. The capital constituted a nucleus to which the troops who mutinied in many places flocked to the standard of the Mughal. An army was assembled for the recovery of Delhi but the city was not captured until the middle of September. In the meantime mutiny had spread. The massacres of Cawnpore and Jhansi took place, and Lucknow was besieged until its relief on the 27th September. The rebellion spread throughout Central India and the territory that now forms the Central Provinces, which were not recovered until Sir Hugh Rose's operations in 1858 ended in the defeat of the Rani of Jhansi.

Minor Campaigns—During the period until 1879, when the Second Afghan War began, there were many minor campaigns including the China War of 1860 the Amoy Campaign, and the Abyssinian War. Then followed the Afghan War in which the leading figure was Lord Roberts. There were expeditions to Egypt and China, and Frontier Campaigns of which the most important was the Tirah Campaign of 1897. There were also the prolonged operations which led up to or ensued upon the annexation of Burma, several campaigns in Africa, and the expeditions to Lhasa. But until 1914, since the Afghan War, the army of India, except that portion of the British garrison which was sent to South Africa in 1899, had little severe fighting, although engaged in many arduous enterprises.

Reorganisation after the Mutiny—In 1857 the East India Company ceased to exist

and their army was taken over by the Crown. At this time the army was organized into three armies, viz. Bengal, Bombay and Madras, the total strength being 65,000 British and 140,000 Indian troops.

Several minor re-organizations took place during the following years, such as the linking of three Regiments together and the raising of Class Regiments and Companies. In 1895 the next large reorganization took place. This was the abolition of the three Armies and the introduction of the command system. Four Commands were formed, viz. Punjab, Bengal, Madras and Bombay.

Lord Kitchener's Scheme—This system lasted until 1904 when under Lord Kitchener's re-organization the Madras Command was abolished and the Army divided into three Commands—the Northern, Eastern and Western, corresponding to the Punjab, Bombay and Bengal Commands.

In 1907, Lord Kitchener considered that consequent on the delegation of administrative powers to Divisional Commanders, retention of such powers by Lieutenant-Generals of Commands led to delay in the despatch of business. The Command system was therefore abolished and India was divided into two Armies—the Northern and Southern—each under a General Officer who was responsible for the command, inspection and training of the troops but was given no administrative responsibilities.

Early in the War both Army Commanders took the field and were not replaced until 1916 and 1917 when both had practically the same functions as their predecessors. It was now realised that administration was being unduly centralised at Army Headquarters and the machinery was becoming clogged with unnecessary details. To secure efficiency at A. H. Q., therefore, a certain measure of decentralisation was carried out in 1918. With the alteration of the designation "Army" to "Command" at this time, a considerable increase was made in the administrative staffs of the two Commands and the General Officers Commanding were given powers to deal with all administrative questions other than those dealing with matters of policy, new principles or war.

The commands were increased to four in 1920, each under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief.

Present System of Administration.

The essential features of the Army, as constructed on its present basis, will be found in "The Army in India and its Evolution," a publication issued in 1924 with the authority of the Government of India.

The Secretary of State, as one of His Majesty's Ministers, has a special responsibility and authority in regard to the military administration in India.

The Secretary of State's principal adviser on Indian military affairs is the Secretary in the Military Department of the India Office. The post is filled by a senior officer of the Indian Army with recent Indian experience. The appointment is at present held by Lieutenant-General Sir John F. S. D. Coleridge, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., who was formerly Commander of the Peshawar District from October 1930 to May 1932. The Military Secretary

is assisted by one first grade staff officer, selected from the Indian Army. In order that he may keep in touch with the current Indian affairs, the Military Secretary is expected to visit India during the tenure of his office. In addition, by a practice which has obtained for many years, a retired Indian Army officer of high rank has a seat upon the Secretary of State's Council.

The superintendence, direction and control of the civil and military government of India are vested in the Governor-General in Council, who is required to pay due obedience to all such orders as he may receive from the Secretary of State. The Viceroy's Executive Council exercise in respect of Army administration the same authority and functions as they exercise in respect of other departments of the Government, in the first phase of the representative institutions conferred upon India by the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms Scheme, Army expenditure and the direction of military policy have been excluded from the control of the Indian Legislature.

The Commander-in-Chief.—The next authority in the chain of administrative arrangements is His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief, who by custom is also the Army Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. The appointment is held by His Excellency Field-Marshal Sir Philip W. Chetwode, Bart., G.C.B., G.O.S.I., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., British Service, who succeeded Field-Marshal Sir William Birdwood. He is also a member of the Council of State. All the work connected with the administration of the Army, the formulation and execution of the military policy of the Government of India, the responsibility for maintaining every branch of the Army, combatant and non-combatant, in a state of efficiency, and the supreme direction of any military operations based upon India are centred in one authority,—the Commander-in-Chief and Army Member. In addition, he administers the Royal Indian Navy and the Royal Air Force in India. The Commander-in-Chief is assisted in the executive side of his administration by 4 Principal Staff Officers, viz., the Chief of the General Staff, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster-General and the Master-General of Ordnance.

The Army Department.—The Department is administered by a Secretary who, like other Secretaries in the civil departments, is a Secretary to the Government of India as a whole, possessing the constitutional right of access to the Viceroy, he is also for the purposes of Sub-section 4, Section 26 of the Regimental Debts Act, 1893 (56 Viet. C. 5) and the Regulations made thereunder Secretary to the Government of India in the Military Department, and for purposes of the Royal Indian Navy, Secretary to the Government of India in the Navy Department. He also exercises the powers vested in the Army Council by the Geneva Convention Act, 1911, so far as that Act applies to India under the Order in Council No. 1551 of 1916. He is assisted by a Deputy Secretary (who is also Secretary of the Indian Soldiers' Board), an Under-Secretary, a Director of Military Lands and Cantonments, a Director, Recruiting and Forms, and one Assistant Secretary (who is also Joint Secretary of the Indian Soldiers' Bd).

Plan Showing Chain of Command.

THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF.

(His Excellency Field-Marshal Sir Philip W. Chetwode, Bart., G.C.B., G.C.S.I., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit Ser)

General Officer
Commanding-in-Chief,
Western Command
(Lt-Genl Sir Torquhil G Matheson,
K.C.B., O.M.G., Brit Ser)

General Officer
Commanding-in-Chief,
Northern Command
(Genl Sir Kenneth Wigram,
K.C.B., C.S.I., O.B.E., D.S.O., I.A., A.D.C.)

- | | | |
|--|-------------------|--|
| <p>— Commander, District — (1st class)
(Maj-Genl H Karslake, C.B., O.M.G., D.S.O., Brit Ser)</p> | Baluchistan | <p>— Commander, 4th (Quetta) Infantry Brigade.
(Brigr C N F Broad, D.S.O., Brit Ser)</p> <p>— Commander, 5th (Quetta) Infantry Brigade
(Brigr A J H Chope, D.S.O., I.A.)</p> |
| <p>— Commander, Zhob (Independent) Brigade Area.
(Brigr J. O McKenna, D.S.O., I.A.)</p> | | — |
| <p>— Commander, Sind (Independent) Brigade Area
(Maj-Genl C Kirkpatrick, C.B., O.B.E., I.A.)</p> | | — |
| <p>— Commander, District — (2nd class)
(Maj-Genl D E Robertson, C.B., D.S.O., I.A.)</p> | Waziristan | <p>— Commander, Razmak Brigade
(Brigr. J. S Marshall, D.S.O., O.B.E., I.A.)</p> <p>— Commander, Bannu Brigade
(Brigr F. H Maynard, M.C., I.A.)</p> <p>— Commander, Wana Brigade
(Brigr T Milne, D.S.O., I.A.)</p> |
| <p>— Commander, Lahore District — (1st class)
(Maj-Genl A W H M Moens, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., I.A.)</p> | | <p>Commander, 2nd (Sialkot) Cavalry Brigade
(Brigr F Gwatkin, D.S.O., M.C., I.A.)</p> <p>Commander, Ferozepur Brigade Area
(Brigr H M Burrows, I.A.)</p> <p>Commander, Jullunder Brigade Area
(Brigr A G C Hutchinson, C.B., O.B.E., I.A.)</p> <p>Commander, Lahore Brigade Area
(Brigr J C Gretton, I.A.)</p> <p>Commander, Ambala Brigade Area
(Brigr. E G Hall, C.I.E., I.A.)</p> |
| <p>— Commander, District — (1st class)
(Maj-Genl R C Wilson, C.B., D.S.O., M.C., I.A.)</p> | Rawalpindi | <p>— Commander, 1st (Abbottabad) Infantry Brigade
(Brigr H L Haughton, C.I.E., C.B.E.)</p> <p>— Commander, 2nd (Rawalpindi) Infantry Brigade
(Brigr A L Ransome, D.S.O., M.C., Brit Ser)</p> <p>— Commander, 3rd (Jhelum) Infantry Brigade
(Brigr. C W. Frizell, D.S.O., M.C., Brit Ser)</p> |
| <p>— Commander, Kohat District — (2nd class)
(Maj-Genl D I Shuttleworth, C.B., C.B.F., D.S.O., I.A.)</p> | | <p>— Commander, Kohat Brigade
(Brigr H L Scott, C.B., D.S.O., M.C., I.A., A.D.C.)</p> |
| <p>— Commander, District — (1st class)
(Maj-Genl S F Muspratt, C.B., C.S.I., C.I.F., D.S.O., I.A.)</p> | Peshawar District | <p>— Commander, 1st (Risalpur) Cavalry Brigade
(Brigr. D K McLeod, D.S.O., I.A.)</p> <p>— Commander, Landiotala Brigade
(Brigr A. L M McEwen, I.A.)</p> <p>— Commander Peshawar Brigade
(Brigr. C J. E. Auchincloss, C.B., D.S.O., O.B.E., I.A.)</p> <p>— Commander Nowshera Infantry Brigade
(Brigr Hon. H F I. Alexander, D.S.O., M.C., Brit Ser).</p> |

Quarter-Master General's Branch.

Q M G—Lt.-Genl. Sir W Edmund Ironside, KCB, CMG, DSO, Brit Ser.

D Q M G—Maj.-Genl E F Orton, CB, IA
D S & T—Maj.-Genl L M Steward, CB, OBE, IA

This Branch is concerned with the specification, provision, inspection, maintenance and issue of supplies, i.e., foodstuffs, forage, fuel, etc., and is responsible for the following Services—Transportation, Movements, Quartering, Supply and Transport, Military Farms, Remounts, Veterinary, Garrison and Regimental Institutes. Also for the purchase of grains and of minor supplies not provided in bulk by the authority responsible for production and provision.

Master General of the Ordnance Branch

M G O—Lt.-Genl Sir Henry E ap R Pryce, KCB, CMG, DSO, IA

D M G O—Brigr (Local Maj.-Genl) W R Paul, OBE, Brit Ser

This Branch controls the ordnance and clothing factories and is concerned with the provision, inspection, maintenance and issue of equipment and ordnance stores, clothing, and necessaries and conducts all matter relating to contracts in respect of food-stuffs, &c., and supply in bulk of general stores and materials. The Master-General is also responsible for the design, inspection, and supply of guns, carriages, tanks, smallarms, machine guns, ammunition, chemical warfare appliances, etc. He also deals with questions regarding patents, royalties and inventions.

There are other branches of Army Headquarters administered by officers who are not classified as Principal Staff Officers, but are not directly subordinate to any of the four Principal Staff Officers.

These are—

(1) MILITARY SECRETARY'S BRANCH

Mily Secy—Maj.-Genl W L O Twiss, OBE, CBE, MCO, IA

The Military Secretary deals with the appointment, promotion and retirement of officers holding the King's Commission, of officers of the Indian Land Forces, the selection of officers for staff appointments, and the appointment of officers to the Army in India Reserve of Officers. He is also the Secretary of the Selection Board.

(2) ENGINEER-IN-CHIEF'S BRANCH

E-in-C—Maj.-Genl G H Addison, CB, OBE, DSO, Brit Ser

The Engineer-in-Chief is the head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India. He is responsible for Engineer operations and Engineer Services during war and peace, the preparedness for war of the Engineering services. The supply of Engineer stores during war and peace. The construction and maintenance of all military works and the constructional efficiency, accuracy and economy of all projects and designs.

In addition to the above, the Army Headquarters staff includes certain technical advisers, i.e., the Major-General, Cavalry, the Major-General, Royal Artillery, and the Adviser and Secretary, Board of Examiners.

The duties of the Inspector of the Army Educational Corps, India and the Inspector of Physical Training are carried out by the Commandants of Army School of Education, India, Belgaum and Army School of Physical Training, Ambala, respectively.

Regular British Forces in India.

The British cavalry and British infantry units of the army in India are units of the British service. No individual British service unit is located permanently in India. Units of the British Army are detailed for a tour of foreign service, of which the major part is as a rule spent in India. In the case of British infantry battalions the system is that one battalion of a regiment is normally on home service while the other is overseas. In the case of British cavalry the same arrangement cannot be applied, as one unit only comprises the regiment.

In Great Britain, in peace-time, units are maintained at an establishment smaller than that required for war. In India, the peace establishments exceed the war establishments in view of the fact that reserves of British personnel do not exist, and reinforcements must be obtained from Great Britain.

British Cavalry—There are 5 British cavalry regiments in India. The establishment of a British cavalry regiment is 27 officers and 567 other ranks.

British Infantry—The present number of British infantry battalions in India is 45, each with an establishment of 28 officers and 865 other ranks.

In 1921, an important change was made in the composition of a British infantry battalion in India by the inclusion of a proportion of Indian combatant ranks. Battalions had always maintained a quota of Indian followers, but up to 1921 the combatant personnel was entirely British. In 1921, on the abolition of the Machine Gun Corps, eight machine guns were included in the equipment of a British infantry battalion. This number was increased to twelve in 1927. In 1929, a change of organisation was introduced, and the battalion now comprises—**Headquarters Wing**—1 Machine Gun Company and 3 Rifle Companies. Each Rifle Company has 4 Lewis guns. The Machine Gun Company (now called Support Company) is organised into—Headquarters and 3 Platoons (all on pick) each of 2 Sections of 2 Vickers guns each. The peace establishment of Indian combatant personnel is fixed at one Indian officer and 42 Indian other ranks. The Support Company platoon, as it is called, is transferred *en bloc* to another British battalion when the battalion to which it was originally attached proceeds on relief out of India.

Royal Artillery—Indians are employed as drivers and artificers in the Royal Horse Artillery and in field and medium batteries, as drivers, gunners and artificers in mountain batteries, and as gunners in heavy batteries.

The peace organisation of the artillery at the present day is as follows:

Royal Horse Artillery—Comprises four independent batteries. Each battery is armed with six 13-pounder guns.

Secretary, P. W. D., to the Agent to the Governor-General in Baluchistan. Both at Army Headquarters and in Commands there are Staff Officers, R. E., and Technical Officers. At the headquarters of each district there is a Commander, Royal Engineers, assisted in certain districts by A. C. S. R. E. Officers of the Barrack Department are also employed as District Stores Officers. Garrison Engineers are in charge of brigade areas and military stations, their charges being divided into sub-divisions under Sub-divisional Officers. The sub-divisions are Buildings and Roads, Electrical and Mechanical, and Furniture and Stores. There are sub-overseers for Buildings and Roads and the Barrack Department subordinates in charge of Furniture and Stores are assisted by store-keepers.

Royal Air Force in India.

The Royal Air Force in India is controlled by the Commander-in-Chief in India as part of the defence services of the Indian Empire. The Air Force budget is incorporated in the Military Estimates. The Commander of the Air Force, the Air Officer Commanding in India, is an Air Marshal whose rank corresponds to that of a Lieut.-General in the Army. The appointment is now held by Air Marshal Sir John M. Steel, K. C. B., K. C. E., O. M. C.

The headquarters of the Air Force is closely associated with Army Headquarters and is located with the latter at the seat of the Government of India. The Air Officer Commanding has a headquarters staff constituted in six branches, namely, air staff, personnel, technical, stores, medical and chief engineer. The system of staff organisation is similar to the staff system obtaining in the Army. Broadly speaking, the duties assigned to the divisions mentioned are those which are performed by the General Staff Branch, the Adjutant-General's and Military Secretary's branches, the Quartermaster-General's Branch, the Medical Directorate and the Engineer in Chief's branch respectively, of Army Headquarters.

Subordinate formations—The formations subordinate to the Royal Air Force Headquarters are—

- (i) **GROUP COMMAND**, comprising 2 Wing Stations of two squadrons each, on a station basis
- (ii) **Wing Command** comprising 2 squadrons not on a station basis
- (iii) **Station Commands.**
- (iv) **The Aircraft Depot.**
- (v) **The Aircraft Park.**
- (vi) **Heavy Transport Flight.**
- (vii) **R. A. F. Hill Depot, Lower Tops.**

Group Command—The Group Command is known as No. 1 (Indian) Group Headquarters, and is located at Peshawar. The Group Commander is a Group Captain, corresponding in rank to a Colonel in the Army. His staff is organised on the same system as that of the Headquarters of the R. A. F. in India. The establishment of the Group consists of 7 officers and 21 airmen.

The subordinate units to No. 1 (Indian) Group Headquarters are as follows.—

- No. 1 Wing Station, R. A. F., Kohat.
- No. 2 Wing Station, R. A. F., Risalpur.

Army Co-operation Squadron at Peshawar.

Wing Command.—There is one Wing Command only, namely 3 (Indian) Wing, R. A. 1, located at Quetta. The Wing Commander is an officer with Air Force rank corresponding to a Lieutenant-Colonel in the Army.

He is equipped with a staff organised on approximately the same system as the Headquarters of a Group. The Wing Establishment consists of 5 officers and 18 airmen.

Wing Station Commands.—There are 2 Wing station commands in India, one located at Peshawar and the other at Risalpur. Each station consists of two squadrons on a reduced squadron basis with one administrative head, i.e., Station Headquarters under the command of a Wing Commander. The strength of the Station Headquarters is 8 officers and 112 airmen, while that of the two squadrons totals 24 officers and 106 airmen. The wing Station at Risalpur also administers the Parachute Section.

The Squadrons.—Of the 8 squadrons 7 are extended along the North West Frontier from Quetta to Risalpur, and one is stationed at Ambala.

The squadron is the primary air force unit, and it consists, normally, of a Headquarters and three flights of aeroplanes. A flight can be detached temporarily but not permanently from its squadron as repair facilities, workshops and stores cannot economically be organised on anything less than a squadron basis. The squadrons headquarters comprises the officers and other ranks required for the command and administration of the squadron as a whole; it includes the workshops and repair units, the armouries and equipment stores of the squadrons.

The number of aeroplanes in a squadron varies with the type of aeroplane with which the squadron is equipped; but speaking generally squadrons on a peace basis have twelve aeroplanes, i.e., four in each of three flights. This does not however apply to the twin engined bombing squadrons.

Of the 8 squadrons 4 are equipped with Bristol Fighters and four with Wapitis and they are allotted for distant reconnaissance and bombing duties, of the other four, which are allotted for Army Co-operation duties, two squadrons are equipped with Bristol Fighters and two with Wapiti aircraft.

Squadron Establishment—The establishment of officers in a squadron consists of seven officers in the Headquarters, and fifteen officers allotted to flying duties. This allows a reserve of one officer for each of the operative flights.

The establishment of other ranks is 123 airmen.

The Aircraft Depot.—The Aircraft Depot may be conveniently described as the wholesale store and provision department of the Royal Air Force. Technical stores are received from the United Kingdom, and in the first instance, held by this unit. It is also the main workshop and repair shop of the Force, where all engine repairs, mechanical transport repairs, and aircraft repairs of any magnitude are carried out. The Depot is located at Ditch Road, Karachi.

The Aircraft Park—Relatively to the Aircraft Depot, the Aircraft Park may be described as a central retail establishment, intermediate between the squadrons and the Aircraft Depot. It receives stores from the depot and distributes them to the squadron. The Stocks held in the Park are, however, usually limited to items necessary at short notice for operations, and the quantities held are kept as low as distance from the depot and local conditions will admit. In war, an Aircraft Park is intended to be a mobile formation, though the aircraft Park in India cannot be made mobile under ordinary conditions. In peace, the Aircraft Park is located at Lahore. New aeroplanes received from the United Kingdom are erected there, but no major repairs are undertaken. In addition to the above functions, practically the whole of the motor transport bodies required for R. A. F. vehicles are built or repaired at Aircraft Park. The Heavy Transport flight is administered by this unit.

Composition of Establishment—The personnel of the Royal Air Force in India consists of officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and men in the ranks of the R. A. F. of the United Kingdom, and Indian artificers, Mechanical Transport drivers and followers of the Indian Technical and Followers Corps, R. A. F. in India. The officers are employed on administration, flying and technical duties but all with the exception of officers of the store and medical branches are required to be capable of flying an aeroplane. A proportion of armmen are also trained and employed as pilots for a period of five years, after which period, they revert to their technical trades. Apart from these armmen all warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and aircraftmen are employed solely on technical duties. The only other flying personnel who are not officers or armmen pilots are air gunners and a certain percentage of wireless operators.

The warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and aircraftmen are employed at all units. The personnel of the Indian Technical and Followers Corps are employed as follows.—

- (a) Technical Section .. Aircraft Depot (artificers) .. Aircraft Park.
- (b) M T Drivers Section .. All Units.
- (c) Followers Section .. All Units.

The total establishment of the Royal Air Force in India is as follows.—

Officers	..	260
Armen	..	1,887
Indian Officers, other ranks and followers	..	945
Civilians	..	530

The Royal Air Force Medical Services—In India, as in the United Kingdom, the Air Force has a medical service of its own. Flying is carried out under conditions which differ widely from those on the ground. With the growth of aeronautics therefore, it was found necessary to create a separate department of medical science whose functions, broadly stated are to study the effect of flying upon the human constitution both mental and physical, to study also the effects of different forms of illness and physical disabili-

ty upon flying efficiency and to apply in practical form the results ascertained. The essential object in view is to save life by ensuring, so far as possible that those who fly are physically and psychologically fit to do so. The present establishment of the Royal Air Force Medical Service in India consists of 11 officers and 27 armmen. The Medical Administration is controlled by the Principal Medical Officer of the rank of Group Captain, on the staff of the Air Officer Commanding the R. A. F. in India.

Indian Air Force—This force came into existence on 8th October 1932, the date on which the first batch of six Indian cadets, after receiving training at Cranwell, obtained commission as Pilot Officers. These officers will form the first unit of the Indian Air Force. The training of cadets for the Indian Air Force cannot at present be undertaken in India, and arrangements have been made to continue their training at Cranwell.

Regular Indian Forces.

Indian Cavalry—The present number of Indian cavalry regiments is 21.

The peace establishment of an Indian cavalry regiment comprises.

- 14 British officers
- 19 Indian officers.
- 492 Indian non-commissioned officers and men.

Indian Infantry—The establishment of the Indian Infantry is constituted as follows.

	Battalions
19 Infantry Regiments consisting of ..	98
3 Regiments of Sappers and Miners ..	7
10 Gurkha regiments consisting of ..	20
52	125

The normal strength of an active battalion is—

	British Officers	Indian Officers	Indian other ranks
Infantry ..	12	20	703
Gurkhas	13	22	898

The strength of an infantry training battalion depends upon the number of battalions forming the regiment. The average is as follows—

British Officers 10, Indian Officers 15, and Indian other ranks 780

In 1932 it was decided that the Pioneer organization was no longer absolutely necessary as the duties on which Pioneers were employed e.g., road-making etc., were now generally performed by labour. The whole organization has therefore been disbanded, and the opportunity has been taken to make a much needed addition to the various Engineer units (Sappers and Miners).

Reserves for the various units of the Indian Army have to be sufficient to provide for an actual shortage on mobilisation as well as for the maintenance of the mobilised unit at full strength for the first 8 months after mobilisation.

Reserve—The conditions of the reserve, are as follows—

The Indian Army Reserve consists of private soldiers or their equivalent. It is comprised of class 'O' reservists for Indian Cavalry

Artillery Sappers and Miners, Signals and Infantry and class 1 for Gurkha Rifles. The new class 'C' reserve was introduced for Indian Cavalry, Artillery, Sappers and Miners and Signals with effect from 1st October 1932 and for Indian Infantry with effect from 1st May 1932. There still remain a number of classes 'A' and 'B' reservists which count against the authorised establishment of the reserve but those will be gradually eliminated.

Training for Indian Cavalry, Infantry and Gurkha Rifles reservists is carried out biennially.

Reserve pay at certain specified rates is admissible from the date of transfer to, or enrolment in, the reserve. When called up for service or training, reservists receive pay and allowances, in lieu of reserve pay, at regular rates according to their arm of the service.

The establishment of reservists is fixed at present as follows:—

Cavalry	2,040
Artillery	2,325
Engineers	2,840
Indian Signal Corps	625
Infantry	22,120
Gurkhas	2,000
Railway Nucleus Reserve	654
Supplementary Reserve	240
Total	33,260

The Indian Signal Corps—The Corps is organised on the same lines as a Sapper and Miner Corps, with a headquarters for recruiting and training personnel, and detached field units for the various army formations. The head of the corps is the Signal Officer-in-Chief in the General Staff Branch at Army Headquarters. He acts as a technical adviser on questions connected with signals, and is also responsible for the technical inspection of all signal units. A chief signal officer with similar functions is attached to the headquarters of each Army Command. The British portion of the Corps has now been amalgamated with the Royal Corps of Signals.

The Signal Training Centre, India, is located at Jubbulpore, and is commanded by a Lieut.-Colonel, assisted by a staff, British and Indian, organised on very much the same lines as the headquarters of a Corps of Sappers and Miners.

The establishments of the Royal Tank Corps formations are shown below:—

The various types of field units and the arm-belt maintained are:—

Corps Signals Headquarters including Line and Wireless Company	2
Cavalry Brigade Signal Troops	4
Divisional Signals	4
District Signals	3
Experimental Wireless Section	1
Zhob Signal Section	

In addition, there is an Army Signal School which carries out the training of regimental signalling instructors.

The formation of the District signals units was effected in 1928 with the transfer of Communications on the North-West Frontier to the Posts and Telegraphs Department. This transfer of communications also made feasible the raising of the 'A' and 'C' troops of Cavalry Brigade Signals to include a Wireless Section each the formation of two Corps Signal Headquarters. The District Signals are located at Peshawar, Waziristan and Kohat.

Royal Tank Corps—Six armoured car companies arrived in India in 1921. Two more companies arrived in 1925. Two Group Headquarters were sanctioned in 1925. They were located as follows—the Northern Group at Rawalpindi, this Group Headquarters commanded companies in the Northern and Eastern Commands. The Southern Group at Poona. This Group Headquarters commanded companies in the Southern and Western Commands.

These have been abolished and their duties are carried out by the Commander, R. Tank Corps, Northern Command, so far as that command is concerned and by the Commandant, R. T. C. School, Ahmednagar, in respect of the other three commands. There is a school at Ahmednagar for the training of R. T. C. personnel and the conduct of experiments.

Organisations—3 Light Tank Companies. Each company consists of Headquarters and 3 Sections and is armed with 25 Carden Lloyd Light Tanks, 4 for Company Headquarters and 7 per section.

5 Armoured Car Companies. Each company consists of Headquarters and 3 Sections and is armed with 16 armoured cars, 1 for Company Headquarters and 5 per section. The armoured cars at present in India are of various types.

	British Officers.	British other ranks.	Followers.	Motor cars.	Motor cycles.	Armoured cars.	Lorries.
Tank Corps School	5	48	10	1	2	0	0
Armoured Car Company	12	145	32	2	6	16	10

Medical Services—The military medical services in India are composed of the following categories of personnel and subordinate organisations:—

(a) Officers and other ranks of the Royal Army Medical Corps serving in India.

(b) Officers of the Indian Medical Service in military employment.

(c) The Indian Medical Department, consisting of medical officers, (i) as assistant surgeons and (ii) sub-assistant surgeons.

(d) Queen Alexandra's Imperial Military Nursing Service.

(e) The Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India.

(f) The Army Dental Corps.

(g) The Indian Military Nursing Service.

(h) The Indian Hospital Corps

Of these categories, the officers and men of the Royal Army Medical Corps and the Army Dental Corps, the assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Queen Alexandra's Imperial Military Nursing Service and the Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India are primarily concerned with the medical care of British troops, while the officers of the Indian Medical Service, the sub-assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Indian Military Nursing Service are concerned, primarily, with the medical care of Indian troops. The Indian Hospital Corps serves both organisations.

Civilians of miscellaneous classes employed by the Army in Waziristan are given medical treatment in military hospitals, and arrangements have been made with the Headquarters of the Indian Red Cross Society for the medical treatment and care of cases amongst Indian soldiers and followers of the Indian Army for chronic diseases, such as tuberculosis, leprosy and diabetes.

Indian Army Service Corps—The Indian Army Service Corps is the counterpart of the Royal Army Service Corps of the British Army. It has developed from the Commissariat Department of an earlier period, and its immediate predecessor was the Supply and Transport Corps, by which name the service was known up to 1923. The Indian Army Service Corps which is under the control of the Quartermaster-General, is constituted in three main branches, namely (a) Supply, (b) Animal Transport, and (c) Mechanical Transport. The latter is constituted upon a special basis, which is, generically, a sub-division of the Royal Army Service Corps organisation.

The strength of the establishment is shown by categories in the following table—

SUPPLY.

Officers with King's commissions	128
Indian officers	68
British other ranks	280
Civilians	547
Followers	1,401

Total .. 2,424

ANIMAL TRANSPORT.

Officers with King's commissions.	48
Indian officers	129
British other ranks	39
Civilians	97
Indian other ranks	9,845
Followers	1,403

Total .. 11,561

There are also 1,576 driver reservists.

The total number of mules and camels maintained under the present organisation, including the depots and the detachment in Kashmir, are 13,258 and 3,916 respectively. There are also 401 ponies and 12 bullocks. Wheeled and pack transport are combined. The company on the lower establishment represent the pre-war "cadre," other companies being maintained in peace-time at full war establishment.

MECHANICAL TRANSPORT.

Officers with King's commissions.	59
Indian officers	63
British other ranks	165
Indian other ranks	2,835
Indian civilians	183
Followers	1,344

Total .. 4,679

There are also 3,035 reservists.

The mechanical transport establishment consists of the following:—

(a) Field units—

11 M. T. Companies, consisting of 11 headquarters, 32 service sections (higher establishment), and 8 service sections (lower establishment)

5 M. T. Companies for motor ambulance convoys consisting of 5 headquarters, 1 section (higher establishment) and 11 sections (lower establishment).

2 M. T. Companies (Mobile Repair Units) consisting of 2 headquarters and 4 sections.

(b) Maintenance units—

5 Heavy Repair shops.

Central M. T. Stores Depot

Vehicle Reserve Depot.

Chaklala Headquarters.

Experimental Section.

Apart from units and vehicles employed in the conveyance of military stores, the mechanical transport service also provides motor ambulance convoys for hospitals and field medical units, and vehicles for other miscellaneous purposes. The total establishment now consists of 2,068 vehicles with 109 motor cycles.

The mechanical transport was taken over by the Indian Army Service Corps in 1927. At present the officers of the service are mainly drawn from the Royal Army Service Corps since at present there are no facilities in India for training officers in every branch of mechanical transport duties. The establishment of officers includes, however, a certain number of King's commissioned officers belonging to the Indian Army. The British subordinates of the service are drawn entirely from the Royal Army Service Corps.

The Ordnance Services which are under the M G O may be broadly described as the agency whose duty it is to supply the army with munitions of war, such as small arms, guns, ammunition and other equipment of a technical military character, and also, under an arrangement introduced in recent years, with clothing and general stores other than engineering stores. A central disposal organisation is in operation under the control of the Master General of Ordnance to dispose of the Surplus Stores and waste materials of the various services of the Army and the Royal Air Force in India to the best advantage of the State.

Army Remount Department—The following are among the most important duties for the remount service.—The provision of animals for the Army in India. The enumeration throughout India of all animals available for transport in war. The animal mobilisation.

zation of all units, services and departments of the army. A general responsibility for the efficiency of all the animals of the army both in peace and war. The administration of the remount squadron formed in 1922 as a nucleus for expansion into three squadrons on mobilization. Breeding operations of a direct character.

The department is organised on lines corresponding to the remount service in the United Kingdom. Its composition is as follows: The Remount Directorate at Army Headquarters consisting of one Director and a Deputy Assistant Director. 4 Remount officers, one attached to each Command Headquarters, 6 Superintendents of Remount Depots, 5 District Remount officers of horse-breeding areas and the Ahmednagar Stud, 10 Assistant Remount officers and 8 Veterinary officers.

Veterinary Services in India—The Veterinary services are responsible for the veterinary care, in peace and war, of animals of British troops, Indian cavalry and artillery, I A S C units, the remount department (excluding horse-breeding operations), etc. The veterinary services include The establishment of Royal Army Veterinary Corps officers, serving on a tour of duty in India and those of the continuous service cadre. The establishment of warrant and non-commissioned officers, India Unattached List, and veterinary assistant surgeons of the Indian Army Veterinary Corps.

The organisation consists of 20 veterinary hospitals, Class I, 25 veterinary hospitals, Class II, 25 branch veterinary hospitals, 10 sick lines and 12 Indian Army Veterinary Corps Sections of personnel posted to veterinary hospitals during peace and forming a cadre for expansion on mobilisation to provide technical personnel for all veterinary units.

Military Farms Department—This department, which is under the control of the Quartermaster-General consists of two branches—

(i) The military grass farms, which provide fodder for the army.

(ii) The military dairy farms, for the provision of dairy produce for hospitals, troops and families.

Educational Services—The education of the army is under the control of the Army Educational Corps and of Indian officers borne supernumerary to the establishment of units of the Indian Army. The establishment is as follows including training schools:—

British officers	Indian officers.	B. O.	I. O.	Civilians.
61	50	104	64	446

Terms of service in the Indian army are as follows:—

Cavalry, 7 years' service in army and 8 years in the reserve.

Artillery, 7 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve for gunners and drivers (horse); drivers (mechanical transport) 6 years in army and 9 years in the reserve; and 4 years' service in army for Heavy Artillery personnel.

S. & M Corps, 7 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve.

Indian Signal Corps, 7 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve.

Infantry (except Gurkhas and trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry other than Orakzais),

7 years in army service and 8 years in the reserve.

Gurkhas and trans-frontier personnel of infantry, 4 years' service in army.

Indian combatant personnel of British infantry 6 years in army.

Indian Military establishments of the Indian Army Ordnance Corps, 4 years' service in the army.

Animal transport personnel of the Indian Army Service Corps, drivers of mechanical transport and all combatants of the Army Veterinary Corps, 6 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve.

All combatants in the Works Corps, 2 years' service in army.

Bandsmen, musicians, trumpeters, drummers, buglers, fliers and pipers, 10 years' service in army.

Except in the case of those enrolled in the Works and of those who are non-combatants, all school-masters, clerks, artificers, armourers engine drivers, farmers, carpenters, tailors and bootmakers, 10 years' service in army.

The period laid down for service in the army is the minimum and may be extended. Combatants may be enrolled direct into the Reserve, in which case there is no minimum period of service, but no one is allowed to serve in the reserve or in any class of the reserve for a longer period than is permitted by the regulations in force.

Frontier Militia and Levy Corps—These forces are "Civil" troops, i.e., they are administered and paid by the Civil authorities and not by the Army. They are, however, officered by Officers of the Regular Indian Army. These forces were raised for duty on the North-West Frontier and at present consist of the following:—Kurram Militia, Tochi Scouts, South Waziristan Scouts, Chitral Scouts, Gilgit Scouts, Zhob militia and the Mekran Levy Corps.

The Auxiliary Force.

After the war, the question of universal training for European British subjects came up for consideration, and it was decided that in India, as elsewhere in the Empire, the adoption of compulsory military service would be undesirable. It was recognised, however, that India needed some adequate auxiliary force, if only on a voluntary basis, that could be trained to a fairly definite standard of efficiency, and in the result, an Act to constitute an Auxiliary Force for service in India was passed in 1920. Under this Act membership is limited to European British subjects, and the liability of members for training and service is clearly defined. Military training is graduated according to age, the more extended training being carried out by the younger members, the older members being obliged to fire a military course only. It was laid down that military service should be purely local. As the form of service that would be most suitable varies largely according to localities, the local military authorities, acting in consultation with the advisory committee of the Auxiliary Force area, were given the power of adjusting the form of training to suit local conditions.

The Auxiliary Force comprises all branches of the service, cavalry, artillery, engineers, infantry—in which are included railway bat-

Indian State Forces on the 1st October 1931, amounted to—

	Authorized strength.	Actual strength
Artillery	1,618	1,595
Cavalry	9,366	8,644
Infantry	36,487	30,262
Camel Corps	466	462
Motor Machine Gun Sections	100	85
Sappers	1,307	1,075
Transport Corps	1,538	1,741
Grand total	50,880	44,084

Officers.

There are two main categories of officers in the Indian Army, those holding the King's Commission and those holding the Viceroy's Commission. The latter are all Indians, apart from the Gurkha officers of Gurkha battalions, and have a limited status and power of command, both of which are regulated by the Indian Army Act and the rules made thereunder. Within recent years several Indians have received King's Commissions, on entry into the Indian Army through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst and the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich.

King's Commissioned officers for the Indian Army are obtained from two main sources: from among the cadets who pass through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, and by the transfer to the Indian Army of officers belonging to British units. The former is the principal channel of recruitment, the latter being only resorted to when, owing to abnormal wastage or for some other special reason, requirements cannot be completed by means of cadets from Sandhurst. A third source is from among University candidates. When a cadet has qualified at Sandhurst and has received his commission, he becomes, in the first instance, an officer of the Unattached List, and is posted for a period of one year to a British battalion or regiment in India, where he receives a preliminary training in his military duties. At the end of the year, he is posted as a squadron or company officer to a regiment or battalion of the Indian Army. Administrative services and departments of the army draw their officers from combatant units, as it has hitherto been regarded as essential that every officer should, in the first instance, receive a thorough grounding in combatant duties, and acquire at first hand an intimate knowledge of the requirements of the combatant arms.

The promotion in rank of King's commissioned officers of the Indian Army is regulated by a time-scale up to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel but is subject also to certain professional examinations and tests being successfully passed. The rank of Lieutenant-Colonel is in normal course attained at 26 years' service; promotion beyond this rank is determined by selection.

Indian Officers.—One of the most momentous decisions of the Great War, so far as the Indian Army is concerned, was that which rendered Indians eligible to hold the King's commission in the army. King's commissions are obtainable by Indian gentlemen in three ways: (1) By qualifying as a cadet through the Royal Military College Sandhurst or the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. Examinations are held twice a year in India for the selection

of suitable candidates for admission. (2) By the selection of specially capable and deserving Indian officers or non-commissioned officers of Indian regiments promoted from the ranks or those appointed direct as jemadar. These receive their commissions after training at the Royal Military College or Academy as Cadets and qualifying in the usual way. (3) By the bestowal of honorary King's commissions on Indian officers who have rendered distinguished service, but whose age and lack of education preclude their being granted the full King's commission. The first two avenues of selection mentioned afford full opportunity to the Indian of satisfying a military ambition and of enjoying a military career on terms of absolute equality with the British officer, who, as a general rule, also enters the army by qualifying at Sandhurst or Woolwich. Until 1931, ten vacancies at Sandhurst and three at Woolwich were reserved annually for Indian cadets.

A further measure adopted by the Government was the establishment of the Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun, a Government institution for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for the King's commission in the army through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst or the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. The arrangements so far made enable a maximum of 70 boys to be in residence at the college at any one time, and the normal course of education is planned to occupy six years. In February 1923, it was decided that eight units of the Indian Army should be completely Indianized. The units selected for Indianization were 7th Light Cavalry, 16th Light Cavalry 2nd Bn., Madras Pioneers, 4/19th Hyderabad Regiment, 5th Royal Battalion, 5th Mahratta Light Infantry, 1/7th Rajput Regiment (Q V O L I), 1/14th Punjab Regiment, 2/1st Punjab Regiment.

In 1932 a considerable advance in the Indianization of the Army was made by the announcement that it was intended to Indianize a Division of all Arms and a Cavalry Brigade. In order to implement this decision, the following units have been marked for Indianization, 3rd Cavalry, 5/2nd Punjab Regiment, 5/6th Rajputana Rifles, 5/8th Punjab Regiment, 5/10th Baluch Regiment, 5/11th Sikh Regiment, 4/12th Frontier Force Regiment, and 6th Royal Battalion 13th Frontier Force Rifles, in addition to units of Indian Artillery, Engineers, etc., together with the usual complement of ancillary services, to make up a complete Division. The Indian Regiment of Artillery has been formed on the 13th January 1935 and the first unit of this new corps has been raised as a field artillery brigade. This brigade is designated "A" Field Brigade, Indian Artillery.

In order to train officers for the Indian Army, of the future the Indian Military Academy at Dehra Dun was opened in October 1932. It will provide officers for all arms cavalry, infantry, artillery and signals. The first batch of officers passing out of the Academy received their commissions on the 1st February 1935.

Training Institutions

The following institutions exist in India for the higher training of military personnel and for the education of instructors for units—
 Staff College, Quetta
 Senior Officers School, Belgau.

Sappers and Miners, and done their duty well in every campaign in which they have been engaged

During the war the Victoria Cross was awarded for conspicuous gallantry to 2 Indian officers, 4 non-commissioned officers and 6 other ranks of the Indian Army.

The Military Cross was awarded to 96 Indian Officers for distinguished service rendered during the Great War and to 3 Indian Officers for service in Waziristan.

A large number of Indian Officers and men were also granted Foreign decorations

Summary of India's Effort in the War—In a despatch by the Commander-in-Chief published in July, 1919, the whole operations of the Indian Army during the war are reviewed.

His Excellency gives in it the following figures showing the extent of India's contribution in terms of men. On the outbreak of war, the combatant strength of the Indian Army, including reservists, was 194,000 Indian ranks, enlistments during the war for all branches of the service amounted to 791,000, making a total combatant contribution of 985,000. Of this number, 552,000 were sent overseas. As regards non-combatants, the pre-war strength was 45,000, an additional 427,000 were enrolled during the war and 391,000 were sent overseas. The total contribution of Indian personnel has thus been 1,457,000, of whom 943,000 have served overseas. Casualties amounted to 106,594, which include 36,696 deaths from all causes. The number of animals sent overseas was 175,000.*

Effectives, 1934.

	Officers with King's Commissions.	British other ranks.	Indian Officers with Viceroy's Commissions.	Indian other ranks.	Clerks and other civilians.	Followers.	Indian reservists.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I. Combatant Services (includes Cavalry, Artillery Engineers, Pioneers, Infantry, Signal Service and Tank Corps) ..	3,999	54,340	3,175	1,21,794	(a)	19,320	33,260
II. Staff (inclusive of personnel of Administrative Services) ..	566	484	20	136	1,384	500	.
III. Training Establishments (inclusive of personnel of Departmental Corps) ..	108	135	11	87	64	490	..
IV. Educational Establishments ..	61	164	50	64	446	276	..
V. Indian Army Service Corps (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II) ..	405	730	277	13,411	1,284	5,679	4,611
VI. Indian Army Ordnance Corps (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II) ..	119	554	0	1,022	838	225	85
VII. Medical Services (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II) ..	861	802	623	3,424	..	4,706	5,300
VIII. Veterinary Services (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II) ..	44	4	112	555	46	90	77
IX. Remount Services (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II) ..	26	16	8	145	273	2,618	..
X. Miscellaneous Establishments (inclusive of Military Accounts Department) ..	314	125	140	585	5,424	2,020	163
XI. Auxiliary and Territorial Forces (Permanent Establishments) ..	120	243
Total ..	6,621	57,604	4,422	1,41,228	9,759	26,005	43,902

(a) Included in column 7.

* For a record of the services of the Indian Army in the War, see "The Indian Year Book" of 1920, p. 152, et seq.

Budget Expenditure on National Defence.

A part of the Defence expenditure on the Indian Budget is incurred in England, the nature of such expenditure being indicated in the detailed Tables of Army, Navy and Military Engineer Services expenditure. This expenditure is met by transfer of funds from India. From the 1st April 1920 to the 31st March 1927, the accounts were prepared on the basis of the rate of 2s per rupee for the conversion of English sterling transaction into rupees. From the 1st April 1927 the accounts are being prepared at the standard rate of 1s 6d. per rupee.

As a rule, the receipts collected by the various departments are not set off against expenditure as appropriations in aid, but are shown separately on the receipts side of the budget. This is especially the case with the receipts of the Military Departments, which amount to considerable sums.

The Provincial Governments incur no expenditure for Military purposes.

SUMMARY OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE (Gross)

Table 1

	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35.
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates.	Budget estimates as passed.
Rupees (000's omitted)			
Defence Services—Effective	41,68,38	40,65,04	41,45,52
Defence Services—Non-effective	8,59,34	8,62,78	8,62,70
Defence Reserve Fund	14,76	8,49	49,75
Total ..	50,97,48	49,67,21	49,58,47

NOTES—(1) This summary includes the cost of the Royal Air Force, which is included in the Army Estimates and also the expenditure on non-effective services, but does not include debt services.

(2) All Expenditure for Military purposes incurred in the United Kingdom by the Indian Government, as also all contributions to the Imperial Government for these purposes, are included in the above figures.

ANALYSIS OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE.

1. The following table gives the main items of Army Expenditure, (gross) shown for India and England separately:—

Table 2

	1932-33	1933-34.	1934-35.
	Closed Accounts.	Revised Estimates	Budget Estimates
INDIA.			
Rupees (000's omitted).			
A. <i>Standard Army:</i>			
(1) Effective Services:			
Fighting Services			14,04,27
Administrative services			6,21,09
Manufacturing establishments (including stores)			2,15,96
Army Headquarters, Staff of Commands, etc.			1,84,08
Purchase and sale of stores, equipment and animals			3,44,81
Special Services
Transportation, Conservancy, anti-malarial measures, hot weather establishments and miscellaneous			1,97,01
Total Effective Services ..			29,67,22
(2) Non-effective Services:			
Non-effective charges			3,65,26
B. <i>Auxiliary and Territorial Forces:</i>			
Effective			68,72
C. <i>Royal Air Force:</i>			
Effective			1,01,53
Non-effective			26
Total India:			
Effective	32,86,32	31,68,28	31,37,47
Non-effective	3,53,03	3,51,80	3,65,52
Total ..	35,89,35	35,14,92	35,02,99

Table 2—contd.

	1932-33	1933-34.	1934-35
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates.	Budget Estimates.
ENGLAND.	(Rupees	000's omitted)	
1. Standing Army.			
(1) Effective Services			
Fighting Services			8,08,30
Administrative Services			42,41
Manufacturing establishments (including stores)			23,74
Army Headquarters, Staff of Commands, etc			10,99
Purchase and sale of stores, equipment and animals			58 86
Special Services
Transportation, Conservancy, anti-malarial measures, hot weather establishments and miscellaneous			83,07
Total Effective Services			5,27,37
(2) Non-effective Services			4,84,01
B. Royal Air Force :			
Effective			80,12
Non-effective			4,20
Total : England	11,02,59	10,88,68	10,95,70
Total Army Expenditure .			
Effective	38,48,40	37,57,64	37,44,96
Non-effective	8,43,54	8,45,90	8 53,73
Grand Total	46,91,94	46,03,63	45,98,69

The amounts expended in England on effective services consist of such charges as payments to the War Office and Air Ministry in London in respect of British Forces serving in India, the transport to India of these forces, and payments on account of stores taken to India by British Forces, educational establishments in England for Indian Services, leave pay of Indian and British service Officers on the Indian Establishments, purchase of imported stores, etc. The expenditure on non-effective services consists of payments to the War Office in London for retired pay to British forces for services in India and to non-effective and retired officers of the Indian Service, and of various gratuities.

Although a sum of Rs 450 millions only has been allotted in the Budget for 1934-35 to meet the net expenditure on Military Services Rs 493.8 millions (including receipts) will be available for expenditure under the heading "Military Services" made up of Rs 352.6 millions for expenditure in India and Rs. 141.1 millions in England.

The gross working expenses of military establishments, such as bakeries, post and telegraph farms, army clothing factories, and stores, depots, arm, ordnance factories and mechanical transport workshops are included in the Budget.

The division of expenditure on the Indian Army is shown below—

	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42	1942-43	1943-44	1944-45	1945-46	1946-47	1947-48	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91	1991-92	1992-93	1993-94	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22	2022-23	2023-24	2024-25	2025-26	2026-27	2027-28	2028-29	2029-30	2030-31	2031-32	2032-33	2033-34	2034-35	2035-36	2036-37	2037-38	2038-39	2039-40	2040-41	2041-42	2042-43	2043-44	2044-45	2045-46	2046-47	2047-48	2048-49	2049-50	2050-51	2051-52	2052-53	2053-54	2054-55	2055-56	2056-57	2057-58	2058-59	2059-60	2060-61	2061-62	2062-63	2063-64	2064-65	2065-66	2066-67	2067-68	2068-69	2069-70	2070-71	2071-72	2072-73	2073-74	2074-75	2075-76	2076-77	2077-78	2078-79	2079-80	2080-81	2081-82	2082-83	2083-84	2084-85	2085-86	2086-87	2087-88	2088-89	2089-90	2090-91	2091-92	2092-93	2093-94	2094-95	2095-96	2096-97	2097-98	2098-99	2099-00	2100-01	2101-02	2102-03	2103-04	2104-05	2105-06	2106-07	2107-08	2108-09	2109-10	2110-11	2111-12	2112-13	2113-14	2114-15	2115-16	2116-17	2117-18	2118-19	2119-20	2120-21	2121-22	2122-23	2123-24	2124-25	2125-26	2126-27	2127-28	2128-29	2129-30	2130-31	2131-32	2132-33	2133-34	2134-35	2135-36	2136-37	2137-38	2138-39	2139-40	2140-41	2141-42	2142-43	2143-44	2144-45	2145-46	2146-47	2147-48	2148-49	2149-50	2150-51	2151-52	2152-53	2153-54	2154-55	2155-56	2156-57	2157-58	2158-59	2159-60	2160-61	2161-62	2162-63	2163-64	2164-65	2165-66	2166-67	2167-68	2168-69	2169-70	2170-71	2171-72	2172-73	2173-74	2174-75	2175-76	2176-77	2177-78	2178-79	2179-80	2180-81	2181-82	2182-83	2183-84	2184-85	2185-86	2186-87	2187-88	2188-89	2189-90	2190-91	2191-92	2192-93	2193-94	2194-95	2195-96	2196-97	2197-98	2198-99	2199-00	2200-01	2201-02	2202-03	2203-04	2204-05	2205-06	2206-07	2207-08	2208-09	2209-10	2210-11	2211-12	2212-13	2213-14	2214-15	2215-16	2216-17	2217-18	2218-19	2219-20	2220-21	2221-22	2222-23	2223-24	2224-25	2225-26	2226-27	2227-28	2228-29	2229-30	2230-31	2231-32	2232-33	2233-34	2234-35	2235-36	2236-37	2237-38	2238-39	2239-40	2240-41	2241-42	2242-43	2243-44	2244-45	2245-46	2246-47	2247-48	2248-49	2249-50	2250-51	2251-52	2252-53	2253-54	2254-55	2255-56	2256-57	2257-58	2258-59	2259-60	2260-61	2261-62	2262-63	2263-64	2264-65	2265-66	2266-67	2267-68	2268-69	2269-70	2270-71	2271-72	2272-73	2273-74	2274-75	2275-76	2276-77	2277-78	2278-79	2279-80	2280-81	2281-82	2282-83	2283-84	2284-85	2285-86	2286-87	2287-88	2288-89	2289-90	2290-91	2291-92	2292-93	2293-94	2294-95	2295-96	2296-97	2297-98	2298-99	2299-00	2300-01	2301-02	2302-03	2303-04	2304-05	2305-06	2306-07	2307-08	2308-09	2309-10	2310-11	2311-12	2312-13	2313-14	2314-15	2315-16	2316-17	2317-18	2318-19	2319-20	2320-21	2321-22	2322-23	2323-24	2324-25	2325-26	2326-27	2327-28	2328-29	2329-30	2330-31	2331-32	2332-33	2333-34	2334-35	2335-36	2336-37	2337-38	2338-39	2339-40	2340-41	2341-42	2342-43	2343-44	2344-45	2345-46	2346-47	2347-48	2348-49	2349-50	2350-51	2351-52	2352-53	2353-54	2354-55	2355-56	2356-57	2357-58	2358-59	2359-60	2360-61	2361-62	2362-63	2363-64	2364-65	2365-66	2366-67	2367-68	2368-69	2369-70	2370-71	2371-72	2372-73	2373-74	2374-75	2375-76	2376-77	2377-78	2378-79	2379-80	2380-81	2381-82	2382-83	2383-84	2384-85	2385-86	2386-87	2387-88	2388-89	2389-90	2390-91	2391-92	2392-93	2393-94	2394-95	2395-96	2396-97	2397-98	2398-99	2399-00	2400-01	2401-02	2402-03	2403-04	2404-05	2405-06	2406-07	2407-08	2408-09	2409-10	2410-11	2411-12	2412-13	2413-14	2414-15	2415-16	2416-17	2417-18	2418-19	2419-20	2420-21	2421-22	2422-23	2423-24	2424-25	2425-26	2426-27	2427-28	2428-29	2429-30	2430-31	2431-32	2432-33	2433-34	2434-35	2435-36	2436-37	2437-38	2438-39	2439-40	2440-41	2441-42	2442-43	2443-44	2444-45	2445-46	2446-47	2447-48	2448-49	2449-50	2450-51	2451-52	2452-53	2453-54	2454-55	2455-56	2456-57	2457-58	2458-59	2459-60	2460-61	2461-62	2462-63	2463-64	2464-65	2465-66	2466-67	2467-68	2468-69	2469-70	2470-71	2471-72	2472-73	2473-74	2474-75	2475-76	2476-77	2477-78	2478-79	2479-80	2480-81	2481-82	2482-83	2483-84	2484-85	2485-86	2486-87	2487-88	2488-89	2489-90	2490-91	2491-92	2492-93	2493-94	2494-95	2495-96	2496-97	2497-98	2498-99	2499-00	2500-01	2501-02	2502-03	2503-04	2504-05	2505-06	2506-07	2507-08	2508-09	2509-10	2510-11	2511-12	2512-13	2513-14	2514-15	2515-16	2516-17	2517-18	2518-19	2519-20	2520-21	2521-22	2522-23	2523-24	2524-25	2525-26	2526-27	2527-28	2528-29	2529-30	2530-31	2531-32	2532-33	2533-34	2534-35	2535-36	2536-37	2537-38	2538-39	2539-40	2540-41	2541-42	2542-43	2543-44	2544-45	2545-46	2546-47	2547-48	2548-49	2549-50	2550-51	2551-52	2552-53	2553-54	2554-55	2555-56	2556-57	2557-58	2558-59	2559-60	2560-61	2561-62	2562-63	2563-64	2564-65	2565-66	2566-67	2567-68	2568-69	2569-70	2570-71	2571-72	2572-73	2573-74	2574-75	2575-76	2576-77	2577-78	2578-79	2579-80	2580-81	2581-82	2582-83	2583-84	2584-85	2585-86	2586-87	2587-88	2588-89	2589-90	2590-91	2591-92	2592-93	2593-94	2594-95	2595-96	2596-97	2597-98	2598-99	2599-00	2600-01	2601-02	2602-03	2603-04	2604-05	2605-06	2606-07	2607-08	2608-09	2609-10	2610-11	2611-12	2612-13	2613-14	2614-15	2615-16	2616-17	2617-18	2618-19	2619-20	2620-21	2621-22	2622-23	2623-24	2624-25	2625-26	2626-27	2627-28	2628-29	2629-30	2630-31	2631-32	2632-33	2633-34	2634-35	2635-36	2636-37	2637-38	2638-39	2639-40	2640-41	2641-42	2642-43	2643-44	2644-45	2645-46	2646-47	2647-48	2648-49	2649-50	2650-51	2651-52	2652-53	2653-54	2654-55	2655-56	2656-57	2657-58	2658-59	2659-60	2660-61	2661-62	2662-63	2663-64	2664-65	2665-66	2666-67	2667-68	2668-69	2669-70	2670-71	2671-72	2672-73	2673-74	2674-75	2675-76	2676-77	2677-78	2678-79	2679-80	2680-81	2681-82	2682-83	2683-84	2684-85	2685-86	2686-87	2687-88	2688-89	2689-90	2690-91	2691-92	2692-93	2693-94	2694-95	2695-96	2696-97	2697-98	2698-99	2699-00	2700-01	2701-02	2702-03	2703-04	2704-05	2705-06	2706-07	2707-08	2708-09	2709-10	2710-11	2711-12	2712-13	2713-14	2714-15	2715-16	2716-17	2717-18	2718-19	2719-20	2720-21	2721-22	2722-23	2723-24	2724-25	2725-26	2726-27	2727-28	2728-29	2729-30	2730-31	2731-32	2732-33	2733-34	2734-35	2735-36	2736-37	2737-38	2738-39	2739-40	2740-41	2741-42	2742-43	2743-44	2744-45	2745-46	2746-47	2747-48	2748-49	2749-50	2750-51	2751-52	2752-53	2753-54	2754-55	2755-56	2756-57	2757-58	2758-59	2759-60	2760-61	2761-62	2762-63	2763-64	2764-65	2765-66	2766-67	2767-68	2768-69	2769-70	2770-71	2771-72	2772-73	2773-74	2774-75	2775-76	2776-77	2777-78	2778-79	2779-80	2780-81	2781-82	2782-83	2783-84	2784-85	2785-86	2786-87	2787-88	2788-89	2789-90	2790-91	2791-92	2792-93	2793-94	2794-95	2795-96	2796-97	2797-98	2798-99	2799-00	2800-01	2801-02	2802-03	2803-04	2804-05	2805-06	2806-07	2807-08	2808-09	2809-10	2810-11	2811-12	2812-13	2813-14	2814-15	2815-16	2816-17	2817-18	2818-19	2819-20	2820-21	2821-22	2822-23	2823-24	2824-25	2825-26	2826-27	2827-28	2828-29	2829-30	2830-31	2831-32	2832-33	2833-34	2834-35	2835-36	2836-37	2837-38	2838-39	2839-40	2840-41	2841-42	2842-43	2843-44	2844-45	2845-46	2846-47	2847-48	2848-49	2849-50	2850-51	2851-52	2852-53	2853-54	2854-55	2855-56	2856-57	2857-58	2858-59	2859-60	2860-61	2861-62	2862-63	2863-64	2864-65	2865-66	2866-67	2867-68	2868-69	2869-70	2870-71	2871-72	2872-73	2873-74	2874-75	2875-76	2876-77	2877-78	2878-79	2879-80	2880-81	2881-82	2882-83	2883-84	2884-85	2885-86	2886-87	2887-88	2888-89	2889-90	2890-91	2891-92	2892-93	2893-94	2894-95	2895-96	2896-97	2897-98	2898-99	2899-00	2900-01	2901-02	2902-03	2903-04	2904-05	2905-06	2906-07	2907-08	2908-09	2909-10	2910-11	2911-12	2912-13	2913-14	2914-15	2915-16	2916-17	2917-18	2918-19	2919-20	2920-21	2921-22	2922-23	2923-24	2924-25	2925-26	2926-27	2927-28	2928-29	2929-30	2930-31	2931-3
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The Strength of the Army.

BRITISH TROOPS

The following table gives the average strength of British troops, and the main facts regards their health for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1929 :—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids sent home	Average constantly sick
1910-14 average	69,440	39,389	303	488	2,094 57
1915-19	66,199	58,867	583	1,980	3,277 53
1920	57,332	61,429	385	2,314	3,488 08
1921	58,681	60,515	408	749	3,070 04
1922	60,166	37,836	284	714	1,902 32
1923	63,189	37,595	237	979	1,793 31
1924	58,614	38,569	246	879	1,857 95
1925	57,378	36,069	166	997	1,750 19
1926	56,798	36,893	171	910	1,758 60
1927	55,632	34,666	149	829	1,654 22
1928	56,327	33,034	166	556	1,635 99
1929	59,827	38,742	203	671	1,746 84

INDIAN TROOPS.

The average strength of Indian troops, including those on duty in China and Nepal and other stations outside India in 1928 was 131,190.

The following table gives below the actuals and ratios of sickness, deaths, and invaliding for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1929 :—

Period	Average strength.	Admissions	Deaths	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.	Ratio per 1,000 of strength.			
						Admissions.	Deaths	Invalids	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 (average)	130,261	71,213	573	699	2,662	544 6	4 39	5 4	20 7
1915-19 (average)	204,298	161,028	3,435	4,829	7,792	788 2	16 81	23 0	38 1
1920 ..	216,445	164,987	2,124	4,564	9,265	762 3	9 81	21 1	42 8
1921 ..	175,384	119,215	1,782	3,638	6,031	679 7	10 16	20 7	34 4
1922 ..	147,840	77,468	1,014	2,619	3,639	521 0	6 86	18 0	24 6
1923 ..	143,234	66,847	856	2,325	2,955	466 7	5 93	16 3	20 63
1924 ..	134,742	57,014	772	1,731	2,432	423 1	5 73	12 8	18 65
1925 ..	136,473	48,691	547	1,712	2,033	350 8	4 01	12 5	15 04
1926 ..	135,146	52,517	507	1,569	2,082	393 6	3 75	11 6	15 41
1927 ..	133,200	47,054	442	1,842	1,972	353 6	3 37	12 8	15 0
1928 ..	131,190	48,739	372	1,251	2,034	371 5	2 81	9 54	15 51
1929 ..	154,580	45,654	639	1,431	1,864	361 5	3 42	16 8

and heavy fire from both flanks, he opened fire and knocked out the enemy machine gun crew. Then switching his fire on the enemy bombers and riflemen in front of him, he silenced their fire. He kept his gun in action, and showed the greatest coolness in removing defects which had twice prevented the gun from firing. He did magnificent work during the remainder of the day and when a withdrawal was ordered assisted with covering fire until the enemy was close to him. He displayed throughout a very high standard of valour and devotion to duty.

Ressaldar Badlu Singh, 14th Lancers, attached 29th Lancers.—For most conspicuous bravery and self-sacrifice on the morning of the 23rd September 1918, when his squadron charged a strong enemy position on the west bank of the River Jordan, between the river and Kh. es Samariveh Village. On nearing the position Ressaldar Badlu Singh realised that the squadron was suffering casualties from a small hill on the left front occupied by machine guns and 200 infantry. Without the slightest hesitation he collected six other ranks and with the greatest dash and an entire disregard of danger charged and captured the position, thereby saving very heavy casualties to the squadron. He was mortally wounded on the very top of the hill when capturing one of the machine guns single-handed, but all the

machine guns and infantry had surrendered to him before he died. His valour and devotion were of the highest order.

Rifleman Gobard Singh Negi, 2nd Battalion, 39th Garhwal Rifles—For most conspicuous bravery on 10th March 1915 at Neuve Chapelle. During an attack on the German position he was one of a bayonet party with bombs who entered their main trench, and was the first man to go round each traverse, driving back the enemy until they were eventually forced to surrender. He was killed during this engagement.

Sepoy Ishaw Singh, 28th Punjabis.—For devotion and bravery "quite beyond all praise" in Waziristan on 10th April, 1921. He received a severe gunshot wound in the chest while serving a Lewis gun, and when all the havildars had been killed or disabled he struggled to his feet, called to his assistance two men, and charged and recovered the gun, restoring it to action. He refused medical attention, insisting first on pointing out where the other wounded were and on carrying water to them. While the medical man was attending to these wounded he shielded him with his body, and he submitted to medical attention himself only after he was exhausted through three hours' continual effort and by loss of blood.

THE EAST INDIES SQUADRON.

Since 1903 a squadron of the Royal Navy, known as the East Indies Squadron, has been maintained in Indian waters. It has naturally varied in strength from time to time. In 1903 the squadron consisted of one second class and three smaller cruisers and four sloops or gunboats. In 1906, it consisted of two second class and two third class cruisers, and remained at this strength until 1910 when one second class cruiser was withdrawn and two smaller vessels substituted, and three cruisers were lent from the Mediterranean to assist in the suppression of the arms traffic in the Gulf. By 1913 the position of the East Indies

squadron had considerably improved. The battleship *Swiftsure* had taken the place of the second class cruiser which had been flagship, and another, second class cruiser replaced the *Pereus*.

The present composition of the East Indies Squadron (Fourth Cruiser Squadron) is as follows:—

"*Norfolk*" (Flag), Cruiser, 9,850 tons.
 "Emerald," Cruiser, 7,550 tons. "Enterprise" Cruiser, 7,580 tons (temporarily replaced by "Columbn," Cruiser, 4,200 tons), Sloop. "Shurham," "Bideford," "Fowey," and "Lupin."

India contributes £100,000 a year towards naval expenditure and approximately £3,000 a year on account of Indian Transport Service performed by the Admiralty, and also maintains the Royal Indian Navy.

India's Naval Expenditure.

Since 1869 India has paid a contribution of varying amounts to the Imperial Government in consideration of services performed by the Royal Navy. Under existing arrangements which date from 1898-7 the subsidy of £100,000 a year is paid towards the upkeep of certain ships of the East India Squadron, which may not be employed beyond prescribed limits, except with the consent of the Government of India. India's total naval expenditure is well under half a million pounds.

The question of a new distribution of the burden of the cost of Imperial Naval defence was discussed at the Imperial Conference in London in October—November 1926. The matter appeared to be one on which the delegates could form no new decision without further consultations in their respective capitals and no resolution was passed.

The Royal Indian Navy consists of a Depot Ship, 4 Sloop, 2 Patrol vessels and 1 Sloop. A fifth sloop has just been completed in England and will replace one of the Patrol vessels.

ROYAL INDIAN NAVY.

The Royal Indian Navy (The Sea Service under the Government of India) traces its origin so far back as 1612 when the East India Company stationed at Surat found that it was necessary to provide themselves with armed vessels to protect their commerce and settlements from the Dutch or Portuguese and from the pirates which infested the Indian coasts. The first two ships, the *Dragon* and *Hoseander* (or *Oriander*), were de-patched from England in 1612 under a Captain Best, and since those days under slightly varying titles and of various strengths the Government in India have always maintained a sea service.

The periods and titles have been as follows:—

Hon E I Co.'s Marine	..	1612—1686
Bombay	"	.. 1686—1830
Indian Navy	"	.. 1830—1863
Bombay Marine 1863—1877
H. M. Indian Marine 1877—1892
Royal Indian Marine 1892.
Royal Indian Navy 1934.

India's Naval Force has always been most closely connected with Bombay, and in 1668 when the E India Co. took over Bombay, Captain Foulke of the Marine was appointed Deputy Governor. From then until 1877 the Marine was under the Government of Bombay, and although from that date all the Marine Establishments were amalgamated into an Imperial Marine under the Government of India, Bombay has continued to be the headquarters and the official residence of the Flag Officer Commanding.

War Service of India's Naval Forces.

1612—1717 Continuous wars against Dutch, Portuguese and Pirates for supremacy of West Coast of India. 1744 War with France, capture of Chandernagore, and French ship *Indienne*. In 1756 Capture of Castle of Gheria. 1774 *Mahratta* War, capture of Tannah. Latter part of the eighteenth century, war with French and Dutch, Capture of Pondicherry, Trincomalee, Jannapatam, Colombo, etc. 1801 Egyptian campaign under Sir Ralph Abercrombie. 1803 War with France. 1810 Taking of Mauritius and capture of French ship in Port Louis. Early part of the nineteenth century suppression of Jowasmi Pirates in the Persian Gulf. 1811 Conquest of Tara. 1813 Expedition against Sultan of Sumbra. 1817-18 *Mahratta* War, capture of Forts at Scindroog. 1819 Expedition to exterminate piracy in the Persian Gulf. 1820 Capture of Morcha. 1821 Expedition against the Beni-Joo-All Arabs. 1824-26 First *Burma* War. 1827 Blockade of Berbera and Somali Coast. 1835 Defeat of Beni Yas Pirates. 1835 Expedition to Afghanistan and capture of Kandahar. 1836 Capture of Aden. 1840-42 War in China. 1843 *Scinde* War. Battle of Mervar, capture of Hyderabad. 1845-46 *Moor* war in New Zealand. 1848-49 War in Punjab, siege of Multan. 1852 Second *Burma* War, Capture of Rangoon, Martaban, Bassein, Prome and Pegu. 1855 Persian War, capture of Bushlah, Muhammerah and

Ahwaz. 1856-57 War in China. 1857-59 The Indian Mutiny. 1859 Capture of the Island of Beyt. 1860 *China* War, Canton, Taku Forts, Fatsan and Pekin. 1871 Abyssinian War. 1882 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Third *Burma* War. 1889 Chin-Ishai Expedition. 1896 Suakin Expedition. 1897 Expedition to Imtirbe, Mombassa, E. Africa. 1899-1902 S. African War. 1900-01 Boxer Rebellion in China relief of Pekin. 1902-04 Somaliland Expedition, Suppression of Arms Traffic operations, Persian Gulf. 1912-14.

During the War 1914-1918 Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on many and various duties Royal Indian Marine Ships "DUFFERIN," "HARDINGE," "NORTHBROOK," "LAWRENCE," "DALHOUSIE" and "MINTO" had their guns mounted and served as Auxiliary Cruisers. Officers also served in the Royal Navy in the Grand Fleet, Mediterranean North Sea, North Red Sea and Caspian Sea Fleets.

In addition to transport duties in Indian Ports, Officers were sent to Marseilles, East Africa and Egypt for such duties, and on the entry of Turkey into the War were employed on duties towing and manning River Craft and Barges to and in Mesopotamia, and it was necessary to enlist a number of Temporary Officers, Warrant Officers and men to the numbers of approximately 240, 60 and 2,000 respectively for these and other duties.

When the War Office assumed full control of Operations in Mesopotamia a large number of Regular and Temporary Officers and men were seconded to the Royal Engineers and General Service respectively for duties in the Inland Water Transport which controlled all River Transport work in that country, and these officers held many important executive appointments in that unit.

The movements of all sea transports between India and the various theatres of War were controlled by Marine Officers.

Trawlers were built in the Bombay and Calcutta Dockyards and mine sweeping operations were carried out with these and launches off Bombay and elsewhere, the trawlers were also used for towing duties.

Retired Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on naval transport duties in England and France, and also in very responsible positions with the Inland Water Transport in France.

Service in the War 1914-18.—The Royal Indian Marine, though a small Service compared with the Army and Navy, played a very active and conspicuous part in the European War. These are set out in detail in the Indian Year Book for 1922 and earlier editions (q. v. p. 202 et seq.).

Reorganisation Schemes.—After the War the Government of India asked Admiral of the Fleet Lord Jellicoe, who was visiting India, to draw up a scheme for the reorganisation of the Service. His valuable suggestions were unfortunately too ambitious for Indian finances and could not be accepted.

Shortly afterwards the Esher Committee arrived in India to report on the Indian Army and although the R I M was not included in their terms of reference, they strongly recommended that the R. I. M. should be reorganised as a combatant service. The Government of India in 1920 obtained from the Admiralty the services of Rear-Admiral Mawby as Director, R I M., to draw up a scheme of reorganisation within limited lines. His scheme, however, was not adopted, and Admiral Mawby resigned his appointment.

The R I M then fell upon hard times, money was scarce, the report of the Inchcape Committee necessitated drastic retrenchments, and the working of the Montagu-Chelmsford reforms resulted in the Local Governments having to defray the cost of the work of R I M ships on their various stations, on lighthouse duties, transport work, carrying of officials, etc. The Local Governments were naturally inclined to think that if they had to pay they would like to have a say in the management, and that if the work could be done cheaper locally, they should arrange to carry out the duties themselves. Further, the Inchcape Committee recommended that the three large troopships should be scrapped and all trooping carried out under contract, which would have left the Marine with only the Survey Department and the Bombay Dockyard.

A Combatant Service—Happily for the Service, however, the Government of India in 1925 appointed a Departmental Committee under the Chairmanship of General Lord Rawlinson, in his capacity of Minister of Defence and Member of Council in charge of the Marine Portfolio, to submit a scheme for the reorganisation of the Service as a combatant force. This Committee recommended that the Service should be reorganised as a purely combatant Naval Service with the title of Royal Indian

Navy, with a strength in the first instance of 4 armed sloops, 2 patrol vessels, 4 min. surveying trawlers, 2 surveying ships and a depot ship, the Service in the first instance to be commanded by a Rear-Admiral on the active list in the Royal Navy. The scheme was accepted by the Indian and Home Governments, and the necessary Act to permit India to maintain a Navy was passed through both Houses of Parliament.

To effect this change in the title, it was necessary to draw up a new Indian Naval Discipline Act and this had to be passed through the Assembly and Council of State in India.

In February 1928, the Bill was introduced but failed to pass in the Assembly by a narrow margin of one vote. In February 1934, the Bill was re-introduced to the Assembly with certain minor amendments but in response to a plea for circulation, the Government circulated the Bill.

In August, the Bill was re-introduced and passed by the Assembly and Council of State. On 2nd October 1934 the Royal Indian Navy was inaugurated, the historic ceremony taking place in Bombay.

The Royal Indian Marine which had rendered sterling service to India and the Empire in peace and was then ceased to exist.

The Royal Indian Navy which has been evolved from the late Royal Indian Marine is one of the Empire's Naval Forces and is under the command of a Flag Officer of the Royal Navy. Its work in addition to training its personnel for war, e.g., minesweeping, gunnery, communications, etc., includes fishery protection in the Bay of Bengal and other Naval duties. A close liaison is maintained between the Royal Indian Navy and the East Indies Squadron.

Personnel, 1935.

HEADQUARTERS STAFF.

Flag Officer Commanding, Royal Indian Navy and P. S. T. O., East Indies

Naval Secretary

Flag Lieutenant

.. Rear-Admiral A E F Bedford, C.B.

.. Paymaster Commander M H. Elliott, M B.E., R.N.

.. Lieut H Morland, R I N.

Chief of the Staff and Captain Superintendent of Dockyard

Staff Officer (Operations)

Commander of the Dockyard

Squadron Gunnery Officer

Squadron Signal Officer

Engineer Manager of the Dockyard

1st Assistant to the Engineer Manager of the Dockyard

2nd Assistant to the Engineer Manager of the Dockyard

Naval Store Officer

Financial Adviser

Chief Superintendent

.. Captain A G Maundrell, R I N

.. Commander P. A. Mare, R I N

.. Commander A R Battray, R I N

.. Lieut. K Durston, R I N.

.. Lieut. M. H. St. L. Nott, R I N.

.. Engineer Captain W. W. Collins, R I N (on leave)

.. Engineer Commander W. Richardson, R I N (on leave)
.. Engineer Manager.

.. Engineer Lieut.-Comdr G W. Underdown, R I N

.. J. A. D. Hawes Esq. (Temp.)

.. The Hon'ble Tarrun Saha, B A (Oxon)

.. V. G. Roca, Esq

MARINE TRANSPORT STAFF

Divisional Sea Transport Officer, Bombay	Commander O. H. Boett, R.N.
Asst. Sea Transport Officer	Lieut.-Comdr. C. L. Turbett, R.N.
Sea Transport Officer, Karachi	Lieut.-Comdr. R. H. Caw, R.N.

CIVILIAN GAZETTED OFFICERS

Constructor	W. G. J. Langer, Esq.
Assistant Constructor	I. J. Underhay, Esq.
Electrical Engineer	N. T. Patterson, Esq.
Assistant Naval Store Officer	I. Heenan, Esq. (temp.)

OFFICERS

Captains	9	Engineer-Lieutenant-Commanders, Ensigns, and Engineer-Sub-Lieutenants	35
Commanders	15		
Lieutenant-Commanders, Lieutenants, and Sub-Lieutenants	44		
Engineer-Captain	1		
Engineer-Commanders	17		

WARRANT OFFICERS

Gunnery and Boatwain	16
Warrant Writers	8

PRIMA OFFICERS AND MEN.

Who are recruited, in the main, from the Bombay Presidency and the Punjab, in almost equal proportions.

SHIPS.

Sloop Minesweeping .. H. M. I. S. Olive ..	2,057 tons	1,700 Horse Power.
Sloop Cornwallis ..	1,200 "	2,500
Sloop Minesweeping Hindustan ..	1,100 "	2,000 S. H. P.
Sloop Minesweeping Lancelotti ..	1,225 "	1,900 Horse Power.
Surveying Vessel Investigator ..	1,574 "	11,776 "
Depot Ship Dalhousie ..	1,960 "	
Patrol Vessel Pithara ..	605 "	3,500 S. H. P.

In addition to the above there are 11 vessels composed of minesweeping and steam trawlers, service launches, target towing tugs, distributed at Bombay, Calcutta, and Karachi.

DOCKYARDS

There were two Royal Indian Marine Dockyards at Bombay and at Calcutta, the former being the more important. The one at Calcutta has been closed. There are 3 graving docks and a wet basin at Bombay, together with factories.

Medical Staff

Medical Officer, Major R. McKinlay, F.R.C.S.
 Officer in Medical Charge, of Dispensary,
 Captain J. B. D'Souza, M.B.E., I.M.D.

R.I.N. Warrant Officers

Officer-in-charge, Dockyard Police Force,
 Gunner P. O'Hara, R.I.N.
 Boatwain of the Dockyard, Boatwain A. H. Lovett, M.B.E., R.I.N.

Appointments.

In addition to the regular appointments in the ships of the Royal Indian Navy, and in H.M.I.N. Dockyard, the following appointments under the Government of India, Commerce Department, are held by the officers of the Royal Indian Navy —

BOMBAY.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Bombay District, Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department, Bombay District, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor, 2nd, 3rd and 4th Engineer and Ship Surveyors,

CALCUTTA

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Calcutta District, Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department, Calcutta District, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th Engineer and Ship Surveyors

MADRAS.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Madras District, and Engineer and Ship Surveyor

BURMA.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Rangoon District, Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department, Rangoon District, and Engineer and Ship Surveyor, Rangoon

KARACHI.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Karachi District

ADEN.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Aden District.

CHITTAGONG.

Nautical Surveyor and Engineer and Ship Surveyor.

PORT BLAIR.

Engineer and Harbour Master.

Agriculture.

As crops depend on the existence of plant, food and moisture in the soil, so the character of the agriculture of a country depends largely on its soil and climate. It is true that geographical situation, the character of the people and other considerations have their influence which is not inconsiderable, but the limitations imposed by the nature of the soil and above all by the climate tend to the establishing of a certain class of agriculture under a certain given set of conditions.

The climate of India, while varying to some extent in degree, in most respects is remarkably similar in character throughout the country. The main factors in common are the monsoon, the dry winter and early summer months, and the intense heat from March till June. These have the effect of dividing the year into two agricultural seasons, the *Kharif* or *Monsoon* and the *Rabi* or *Winter* Season, each bearing its own distinctive crops. Between early June and October abundant rains fall over the greater part of the continent while the winter months are generally dry, although North-Western India benefits from showers in December and January. The south of the Peninsula, and especially the Madras Presidency, however, is more truly tropical especially in the south, and depends mainly on the N.E. monsoon; here the two crop seasons can hardly be said to exist. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year, which is of considerable importance to agriculture, is none too favourable, but is not quite so bad as is often represented. The rainfall is greatest at what would otherwise be the hottest time of the year, viz., mid-summer, and when it is most needed. It should be remembered that in a hot country intermittent showers are practically valueless as evaporation is very rapid. Heavy rainfall concentrated in a limited period, though it has its drawbacks and demands a special system of agriculture, has many advantages in hot countries.

Soils—Four main soil types can be recognised in India, viz., (1) the Red soils derived from rocks of the *Archæan* system which characterise Madras, Mysore and the South-East of Bombay and extend through the East of Hyderabad and the Central Provinces to Orissa, Chota Nagpur and the South of Bengal. (2) The black cotton or *regur* soils which overlie the Deccan trap and cover the greater part of Bombay, Berar and the Western parts of the Central Provinces and Hyderabad with extensions into Central India and Bundelkhand. The Madras *regur* soils though less typical are also important. (3) The great alluvial plains, agriculturally the most important tract in India as well as the most extensive, mainly the Indo-Gangetic Plain embracing Sindh, northern Rajputana, most of the Punjab, the plains of the United Provinces, most of Bihar and Bengal and half of Assam. (4) The *terrace* soils which form a belt round the Peninsula and extend through East Bengal into Assam and Burma.

The great alluvial plains are characterised by ease of cultivation and rapid response to irrigation and manuring, broadly speaking there

are few soils in the world more suited to intensive agriculture so long as the water supply is assured. The other soils are less tractable and call for greater skill in management and are less adapted to small holdings, of these *terrace* soils are the most valuable.

Agricultural Capital and Equipment—India is a country of small holdings and the commonest type is that which can be cultivated with one pair of bullocks under local conditions. Large holdings are practically unknown, and are mainly confined to the planting industries. Farming is carried on with a minimum of capital, there being practically no outlay on fencing, and very little on buildings or implements. Many causes militate against the accumulation of capital and agricultural indebtedness is heavy and the interest on loans high. Great progress has been made by the co-operative credit movement during the last twenty years. There are now 105,262 Co-operative Credit Societies in India with 4,282,884 members and a working capital of nearly 96 crores of rupees. Some 90 per cent. of these Societies are concerned with the financing of agriculture. Not only have these societies brought cheaper credit to the cultivator but they have striven to inculcate the lesson that cheap credit is only valuable if applied to productive purposes and have encouraged thrift.

Equipment—Practically all cultivation is done by bullocks and the capacity of these as draught animals varies from district to district as well as depending on the cultivator's individual circumstances. The best types in common use are capable of handling what would be considered as light single-horse implements in Europe. In those tracts where irrigation is from wells, bullocks are also used for drawing water; they also drive the sugarcane crusher and tread out the grain at harvest, and they are still almost the sole means of transport in rural areas. His implements being few, a cultivator's bullocks form by far the most important item of his movable property.

Implements are made of wood although ploughs are usually tipped with iron points, and there is a great similarity in their shape and general design. Iron ploughs were being introduced in large numbers in the decade following the war, but the fall in the prices of agricultural commodities in recent years has lessened the demand for these implements. The levelling beam is used throughout the greater part of the country in preference to the harrow and roller, and throughout Northern India the plough and the levelling beam are the only implements possessed by the ordinary cultivator.

On black cotton soils the commonest implement is the *halla*, a simple stirring implement with a broad blade. Seed drills and drill hoes are in use in parts of Bombay, Madras and the Central Provinces, but throughout the greater part of the country the seed is either broadcast or ploughed in. Hand implements consist of various sizes of hoes, the best of which are the *halla* or *spade* with a blade set at an angle towards the labourer who does not use his feet in digging and the *chakra* or small hand hoe. Of harvesting machinery there is none; grain is separated by beating out with oxen or beating out by hand, and

winnowing by the agency of the wind, cultivators have come to recognize the efficiency of winnower and simple reapers and these, like iron ploughs, are likely to become popular when conditions improve. Even motor tractor ploughs are now estimated to number hundreds and a few steam ploughing sets are at work reclaiming land from deep-rooted grasses.

Cultivation—Cultivation at its best is distinctly good but in the greater part of the country there is plenty of room for improvement. As in any other country success in agriculture varies greatly with the character of the people depending largely as it does on thrift and industry. In most places considering the large population cultivation is none too good. Agriculture suffers through lack of organization and equipment. Two economic factors tend to keep down the standard of cultivation. Holdings are not only small but fragmented and the Indian laws of inheritance both perpetuate and intensify this evil. Very definite attempts are now being made in several provinces and states to amend matters and consolidate holdings but the process is necessarily slow. Secondly, cultivators rarely live on or near to their holdings but congregate in villages. The need for mutual protection is less than formerly and though tradition dies hard sub-villages are now springing up in many places.

For *Rabi* crops which demand a fine seed-bed preparatory tillage consists mainly of repeated treatments with the indigenous plough (or on black soils the *Nalhar*) which serves the purpose of plough, harrow and cultivator, combined with applications of the levelling beam. Crude as these implements are, they produce in Northern India a surface mulch and moist sub soil which is the aim of all dry-farming operations. For *Kharif* crops the preparation is much less thorough as it is essential to sow without delay. Interculture is usually inadequate. Manure is generally applied to more valuable crops like sugarcane, cotton, tobacco, etc. Seeding is either done broadcast or by drilling behind a wooden plough or drill. Thinning and spacing are not nearly so well done as they might be, and intercultivation is generally too superficial. Harvesting is done by sickle where the crops are cut whole, and there is little waste involved. At their best the ryot's methods are not ineffective but being uneconomical of both cattle and man-power, they are seldom carried out fully. The use of simple improved implements and of machines which lessen the strain on the bullocks, which the agricultural department is steadily fostering, is an important factor in raising the general standard of agriculture.

Irrigation—The concentration of the principal rainfall in less than a third of the year, which is not the sowing period of the *rabi* crops, places a very definite limit on the yield which can be obtained from the principal cereal crops. Some other crops, e.g., Sugarcane, can hardly be grown indeed without supplementary watering. With adequate irrigation the yield from the principal grain crops in Northern India is doubled even in areas where the monsoon is generous, whilst in the great canal colonies and in Sind barren desert has become fertile land. The Indian canal system is by far the

largest in the world. In 1932-33 the total length of the main and branch canals and distributaries amounted to some 75,000 miles irrigating an area of 23 million acres, and the value of crops irrigated from Government works was estimated at about 86 crores. It has been calculated that when works under construction are completed, and when the various new canals are developed fully, the irrigated area will probably reach 50 million acres. The protective effect of the canals in many areas is no less important than the enhanced yield. Protective irrigation works have made agriculture stable instead of precarious in many districts. The Indian canals are of two types—perennial and inundation—and the trend of irrigation practice is to replace the latter by the former wherever possible. The great perennial canals in the North of India draw their supply from snow-fed rivers; the inundation canals run only when the rivers rise with the melting of the snow in April-May and must close when supplies fall at the end of the monsoon. Other canals depend for their supply during the dry part of the year on water stored behind great dams thrown across suitable gorges and are in consequence less dependable than the larger snow-fed systems. Water rates are levied on the area of irrigated crops matured so that Government bears part of the risk of failure of crops. Different rates are charged for different crops and vary somewhat in different parts of India, rates are also lower when the water has to be lifted than when flow irrigation is given.

The Madras and Bombay presidencies possess some of the most spectacular irrigation schemes in the world. The Cauvery—Mettur irrigation system inaugurated in 1931 is considered to be the biggest in the British Empire and the largest single block masonry reservoir in the world, with a storage capacity of 93,500 million cubic feet. This project, together with the Kannabiahalli project in Mysore, is said to bring into productive use about 80 per cent of the flow of the Cauvery river besides serving as a great moderator of floods. The Wilson Dam at Bhandardara, impounding 272 feet of water, is far and away the highest dam in India, whilst the Sukkur Barrage in Sind across the Indus irrigates a desert whose area far exceeds that of any other scheme conceived by engineers.

Irrigation from Wells—About one quarter of the total irrigation of the country is got from lifting water from wells ranging in depth from a few feet to over fifty feet. Their numbers have greatly increased in recent years largely through Government advances for their construction. The recurring cost of this form of irrigation has, however, greatly increased owing to the high price of draught cattle and the increasing cost of their maintenance.

All agricultural departments are now giving increased attention to the better utilisation of underground water supplies, existing wells being improved by boring and tube wells of large capacity installed and equipped with pumping machinery. Efficient types of water lifts are rapidly replacing the old-fashioned *mohla*.

Tank irrigation is common in Central and Southern India. Large quantities of rain water are stored in lakes (or tanks) and distributed during the drier seasons of the year.

Often the indirect effect of the tank in maintaining the sub-soil water level is as important as the direct irrigation.

Manures—Although the number of cattle maintained in India is very high and indeed excessive, there is everywhere a shortage of farm-yard manure. This is partly due to the small use of bedding, for which straw can ill be spared, and to the keeping of cattle in the open, but mainly to the use of dung as the principal source of village fuel. Hence the supply of organic matter to Indian soils is deficient. Unfortunately the Indian cultivator does not possess the skill of the Chinaman in the making of composts and much valuable manurial material is wasted in every Indian village and to the detriment of sanitation. Green-manure crops are spreading slowly and the use of oil-cakes, especially castor-cake, for the more valuable crops like sugarcane and tobacco is increasing.

The general trend of the results of experiments carried on by the various agricultural departments is to show that a better supply of organic manures is everywhere important, nitrogen is the most common limiting factor for India as a whole, phosphatic manures are definitely advantageous in certain more limited tracts. Manuring for higher production is gradually spreading as the result of village demonstrations; at present prices of certain artificial fertilisers, notably ammonium sulphate and the newer types of soluble phosphatic manure are definitely profitable not only for tobacco, sugarcane and market garden crops but for some staple crops, but generally speaking the fall in the prices of agricultural produce has arrested progress in the use of purchased fertilisers.

Rice.—A reference to the crop statistics shows that rice is the most extensively grown crop in India, although it preponderates in the wetter parts of the country, viz., in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Burma and Madras. The crop requires for its proper maturing a moist climate with well assured rainfall. The cultivated varieties are numerous, differing greatly in quality and in suitability for various conditions of soil and climate, and the people possess an intimate acquaintance with those grown in their own localities. The better qualities are sown in seed beds and transplanted in the monsoon. Broadcast rice is grown generally in lowlying areas and is sown before the monsoon as it must make a good start before the floods arrive. Deep water rice grows quickly and to a great height and are generally able to keep pace with the rise in water level.

For transplanted rice the soil is generally prepared after the arrival of the monsoon and is worked in a puddle before the seedlings are transplanted. The land is laid out into small areas with raised partitions to regulate the distribution of the water supply. The seedlings are planted either singly or in small bunches containing from 4 to 6 plants each and are simply pushed into the mud at distances of 6 to 12 inches apart. Either by bunding to retain rainfall or by artificial irrigation, the details varying with locality, the rice fields are kept more or less under water until the crop shows signs of ripening. The best under improved varieties of rice distributed by the

agricultural departments is now well over 2 million acres. A scheme for the intensification of research on rice in all the principal rice-growing provinces of India has been launched out of funds provided by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research and the Empire Marketing Board.

Wheat.—Wheat is grown widely throughout Northern India as a winter crop, the United Provinces and the Punjab supplying about two-thirds of the total area, and probably three-quarters of the total output in India. The majority of the varieties grown belong to the species *Triticum vulgare*. Indian wheats are generally white, red and amber coloured and are mostly classed as soft from a commercial point of view. As seen in local markets Indian wheats frequently contain appreciable quantities of other grains and even of extraneous matter due to the method of threshing employed. Wheat for export is well-cleaned and there has been great improvement in this respect of recent years. Most of the Indian wheats are soft weak wheats but there are some well known Macaroni wheats amongst them. The largest wheat acreage of recent years was that of 1934-35, namely, 36.06 million acres, but the yield did not come up to the record harvest of 1930 which exceeded 10½ million tons. Recent crops have averaged 9½ million tons per annum which is only slightly, if any thing, above internal requirements. Exports of wheat amounted to 197,000 tons in 1930-31 but have since been nominal, Indian wheat having been quoted well above world parity. With the development of irrigation from the Lloyd Barrage Canal in Sind and in the newer Punjab Canal Colonies a further increase in wheat production is practically certain and although the internal consumption of wheat will increase with the growth of population, there is likely to be an exportable surplus in the not distant future. The crop is generally grown after a summer fallow and, except in irrigated tracts, depends largely on the conservation of the soil moisture from the previous monsoon. Rains in January and February are generally beneficial but an excess of rainfall in these months usually produces rust with a diminution of the yield. On irrigated land 2 to 4 waterings are generally given. The crop is generally harvested in March and April and the threshing and winnowing go on up till the end of May. The total area under improved varieties of wheat is now 5.3 million acres.

The Millets.—These constitute one of the most important groups of crops in the country supplying food for the poorer classes and fodder for the cattle. The varieties vary greatly in quality, height and suitability to various climatic and soil conditions. Perhaps the two best known varieties are Jowar (*Sorgum vulgare*) the great millet, and Bajra the Bahush millet (*Pennisetum typhoides*). Generally speaking the jowars require better land than the bajras and the distribution of the two crops follows the quality of the soil. Neither for jowar nor bajra is manure usually applied though jowar responds best to some to high manuring and cultivation is not so thorough as for wheat. The crop is generally sown in the beginning of the monsoon

Oilseeds—The crops classified under the heading are chiefly groundnuts, linseed, sesamum and the cruciferous oilseeds (rape, mustard, etc.) Although oilseeds are subject to great fluctuation in price and the crops themselves are more or less precarious by nature, they cover an immense area.

Groundnut, though of modern introduction, is already an important crop particularly in Madras, Bombay, Burma and Hyderabad. The area in 1933-34 was 8.23 million acres and, although in the current year it has dropped considerably it is still far above the pre-war acreage. The yield in 1933-34 was 3.33 million tons, of which 547,000 tons were exported as compared with a prewar average export of 212,000 tons.

Linseed requires a deep and moist soil and is grown chiefly in the Central Provinces, Bihar and Orissa and the United Provinces. The crop is grown for seed and not for fibre and the common varieties are of a much shorter habit of growth than those of Europe. The yield varies greatly from practically nothing up to 500 to 600 lbs. of seed per acre. It is grown largely for export. At the beginning of the century India supplied practically the whole of the world's demand for linseed, the area having gone as high as 5 million acres with a yield of 630,000 tons. In recent years foreign competition, mainly from the Argentine, has contracted the market for Indian linseed and with it the area under the crop. Exports dwindled to 72,000 tons in 1932-33 as compared with the prewar average of 379,000 tons. The preference granted to Indian linseed in the United Kingdom under the Ottawa Agreement, combined with two successive short harvests in the Argentine, have helped India to regain her pre-war position. In 1933-34 exports again reached 379,000 tons of which the United Kingdom took more than half.

Sesamum (Gingelly) is grown mostly in Peninsular India as an autumn or winter crop. About 10 per cent of the production is exported and the rest consumed locally.

The Cruciferous Oilseeds form an important group of crops in Northern India where they grow freely and attain a fair state of development. The area under rape and mustard, including an estimated figure for the area grown mixed with other crop is about 6½ to 7 million acres annually. Production in 1933-34 was estimated at 9,20,000 tons, of which 73,000 tons were exported as compared with 115,000 tons in 1932-33. Several species are grown and there are numerous local varieties. A large portion of the crop is crushed locally for domestic consumption.

Jute—Two varieties of the plant are cultivated as a crop, *Capsularis* and *Olitorius*. Jute growing is confined almost entirely to Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa. The crop requires a rich moist soil. Owing to river inundation this part of India receives a considerable alluvial deposit every year and the land is thus able to sustain this exhausting crop without manure. The crop is rather delicate when young, but once established requires no attention, and grows to a great height (10 to 11 feet). Before ripening the crop is cut and retted in water. After

about three weeks immersion the fibre is removed by washing and beating. The area in 1934-35 was estimated at 2,497,000 million acres as compared to 2,517,000 million in the previous year, production in 1934-35 was 7,964,000 bales as against just over 8 millions in 1933-34. The total weight of raw and manufactured jute exported during 1933-34 amounted to 1,420,000 tons. This is a distinct recovery over the exports of the two previous years. Although the present acreage is much less than some years ago a vigorous campaign is in progress to reduce it still further.

Tobacco is grown here and there all over the country chiefly, however, in Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Madras and Burma. Of two varieties cultivated *Nicotiana Tabacum* is by far the most common. Maximum crops are obtained on deep and moist alluvium soils and a high standard of cultivation including liberal manuring is necessary. The crop is only suited to small holdings where labour is plentiful as the attention necessary for its proper cultivation is very great. The seed is germinated in seed beds and the young plants are transplanted when a few inches high, great care being taken to shield them from the sun. The crop is very carefully weeded and hoed. It is topped after attaining a height of, say, 2 ft., and all suckers are removed. The crop ripens from February onwards and is cut just before the leaves become brittle. The greater part of the tobacco grown in India is intended for *Hookah* smoking and is coarse and heavy in flavour. Lighter kinds are also produced for cigar and cigarette manufacture. Of recent years there has been important development in the production, in commercial quantities, of better quality cigarette tobacco both in Madras and in Bihar. India exports about 29 million lbs. of unmanufactured tobacco annually of which about 35 per cent goes to the United Kingdom. This trade though a small proportion of Indian production (which is estimated at 600,000 tons per annum from an area of 1.3 million acres) is worth a crore of Rupees annually even at present prices.

Livestock—The livestock population of British India consists mainly of about 121 million cattle, 31 million buffaloes, 25 million sheep, 35 million goats and 3 million horses, mules and donkeys, and in the 51 Indian States for which figures are available, there are 113 million cattle and buffaloes, 28 million sheep and goats, 1 million horses, mules and donkeys and half a million camels. For draught purposes cattle are mainly used everywhere though male buffalo are important as draught animals in the rice tracts and damper parts of the country. Horses and mules are practically never used for agricultural purposes. For dairy purposes, the buffalo is important, the milk yield being high and the percentage of butter fat considerably above that in cow's milk. The best known breeds are the Murrah buffaloes of the Punjab, the Jafferbadi buffaloes of Kathiwar, and the Surti buffaloes of the Bombay Presidency. The cattle and buffalo population in India is abnormally high amounting to over 60 per cent of the human population. The spread of cultivation has diminished the grazing grounds, and fodder crops are raised and many of the cattle are small, ill-fed and inefficient. Nevertheless

the best Indian breeds have many merits. Of the draught types the best known breeds are the Hissar, Nellore, Amrit Mahal, Gujerat (Kankrej), Kangayam, Khorisari and Malvi the Sahiwal (Punjab), Gir (Kathiawar), Scind and Hansi are amongst the best milking breeds. On the Government cattle-breeding farms pedigree herds are being built up and from these selected bulls are issued, preferences being given to special breeding areas, to villages which undertake to exclude 'scrub' bulls and where serious efforts to maintain a good strain of cow are made. Once established such breeding areas rapidly produce a supply of superior bulls for general distribution and in this way the valuable bulls from Government herds are used to advantage. The premium bull system is also working well in some tracts. Cattle improvement is a slow process at the best and though a start on sound lines has been made in all provinces, continued effort and persistent endeavour are essential. There is no branch of agricultural improvement where the land-owners of India could render greater service.

Dairying.—Though little noticed hitherto dairying forms a very important indigenous industry throughout India. The annual cash value of dairy products has been estimated at over 800 crores of rupees and the importance of milk and dairy products to the health and development of the people cannot be over-estimated. Apart from liquid milk

the best known products are native butter (ghee) and cheese (dahi). During recent years a considerable trade in tinned butter has sprung up and there seems to be no reason why an important industry should not be built up in other dairy products, such as milk-powder, condensed milk and casein. Pure ghee and milk can usually be procured in the villages but in towns dairy products can scarcely be bought unadulterated.

The Government of India maintain an Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying at Bangalore where students are given 2 year courses for the Indian Dairy Diploma but little provision has hitherto been made for the extensive industrial research into the handling and processing of milk and dairy products under Indian conditions, which is essential for the development of dairying as a village industry. This matter is now receiving the attention of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

Reference is made, elsewhere to the principal grants made by the Council for the promotion of Veterinary Science and improvement of animal husbandry.

It is sufficient here to say that there is a growing recognition of the fact that as India's economic development proceeds a better balance between crop production and a small industry is needed and that the raising of crops for the feeding of dairy stock, instead of for sale as such, will be of increasing importance.

AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS.

Agricultural Progress.—The historical aspect of agricultural development in India has been fully dealt with in the report of the Lindtghow Commission. The Famine Commission as long ago as 1866 made the first proposal for a separate Department of Agriculture but little resulted except the collection of agricultural statistics and other data with the object of throwing light on famine problems. The Famine Commission of 1880 by their masterly review of the possibilities of agricultural development revived interest in the matter and their proposal for a new Department for Agriculture and allied subjects in the Government of India and for provincial departments of agriculture bore fruit eventually. Dr J. A. Voelker, Consulting Chemist to the Royal Agricultural Society, was invited to visit India and his book "Improvement of Indian Agriculture" is still a valuable reference book. In 1892 an agricultural chemist to the Government of India was appointed. Provincial Departments mainly concerned themselves at first with agricultural statistics but experimental farms were opened at Saidapet in 1871, Poona in 1880, Cawnpore in 1881 and Nagpur in 1883; there were various sporadic attempts at agricultural improvement but no real beginning was made until technical agricultural officers were appointed. Of these the earliest were Mollison in Bombay (subsequently Inspector General of Agriculture), Barber and Benson in Madras, Hayman in the United Provinces and Milligan in the Punjab. In 1901, the first Inspector General of Agriculture was appointed and in the same year an Imperial Mycologist was added followed by an Imperial Entomologist in 1903. The present departments of agriculture, however, owe their existence to the foresight and energy of Lord

Curzon whose famous despatch of 1903 marked the commencement of the reorganisation which took place in 1905. That scheme provided for a central research institute at Pusa, completely staffed provincial departments of agriculture with agricultural colleges and provincial research institutes and an experimental farm in each important agricultural tract. To the establishment of the Imperial Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa, Lord Curzon devoted the greater part of a generous donation of £30,000 given by Mr. Henry Phipps of Chicago to be applied to some object of public utility preferably connected with scientific research. The Indian Agricultural Service was constituted in 1906. Since that date progress has been steady and continuous. With the advent of the reforms of 1919, agriculture became a provincial transferred subject but the Government of India retained responsibility for central research institutions and for certain matters connected with the diseases and pests of plants and animals. The addition of the Imperial Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying (with a branch farm at Wellington), the Imperial Cattlebreeding Farm at Karnal and the Anand Creamery enabled livestock work to be carried out on a scale not possible at Pusa. The Imperial Singarcane-breeding station at Coimbatore is yet another branch of the Imperial Agricultural Research Institute. Provincial Governments have steadily developed and strengthened their agricultural departments. The total net expenditure of provincial agricultural departments now exceeds 105 lakhs rupees annually, the net annual expenditure on the Imperial Department of Agriculture is in the neighbourhood of 11 lakhs.

Parallel developments took place in the provision made for matters connected with animal health. The now world-famous Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research at Muktesar started in 1893 as a modest hill laboratory for research on milderpest. It is now a fully equipped research institute which also manufactures protective sera and vaccines of which some 6 million doses are issued annually. The Civil Veterinary Department was formed in 1891 and until 1912 was under the control of the Inspector General. The departments were completely provincialised in 1919, the Government of India continuing to finance and control the Muktesar Research Institute and its branch station at Irtanagar (Bareilly).

Recent Progress—As now constituted, the agricultural departments include a complete organisation for bringing the results of the application of science to agriculture into the village. At one end of the scale are the agricultural colleges and research institutes—at the other thousands of village demonstration plots where the effect of improved seed, methods, implements and manures is shown under the cultivators' own conditions. Intermediate links in the chain are the experimental farms, where scientific research is translated into field practice, demonstration and seed farms and seed stores. The ascertained results of the work of the agricultural department are striking enough. More than 15 million acres are known to be under improved crops—the further area due to natural spread is indeterminable. Improved methods of

cultivation and manuring are steadily spreading, work is in progress on most of the major crops and each year brings new triumphs. The present position has been authoritatively reviewed by the Royal Commission on Agriculture which reported in 1928. Recognising how much has already been done in the 20 years since the agricultural departments were created, the Commission also emphasised the enormous field for future work to which all witnesses had drawn their attention. The agricultural departments having shown that the application of science to Indian agriculture is a practical proposition and further that the individual cultivator can be reached and his methods improved, the problem is now to develop and intensify such work so that a general advance in agricultural practice will result. At no time has there been a greater need for co-ordinated effort directed towards the solution of agricultural problems. Only by increased efficiency can India meet the situation caused by low prices for all agricultural commodities and the intense competition in world markets arising from production in excess of effective demand.

The Government of India have recently announced their intention to render further assistance to the agriculturists by providing better facilities for credit and for the marketing of agricultural produce. A central marketing section has been established under the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research which will work in collaboration with the special marketing staff appointed in the various provinces.

THE IMPERIAL COUNCIL OF AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH.

In Chapter III of their Report, the Royal Commission on Agriculture stated that the most important problem with which they had been confronted was that of devising some method of infusing a different spirit into the whole organisation of agricultural research in India and of bringing about the realisation on the part of research workers in this country that they are working to an end which cannot be reached unless they regard themselves as partners in a common enterprise. They had found not only a lack of sufficiently close touch between the Pusa Research Institute and the provincial agricultural departments but also between the provincial departments themselves. After describing the way in which similar difficulties had been overcome in Canada, the United States and Australia and dismissing as inadequate the constitution of crop committees on the model of the Indian Central Cotton Committee or the constitution of a quasi-independent governing body for Pusa on which the provincial agricultural departments and non-official interests would be represented, the Commission proposed the establishment of an Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

The primary function of the Council would be to promote, guide and co-ordinate agricultural, including veterinary, research in India and to link it with agricultural research in other parts of the British Empire and in foreign countries. It would make arrangements for the training of research workers, would act as a clearing house of information in regard not only to research but also to agricultural and

veterinary matters generally and would take over the publication work at present carried out by the Imperial Agricultural Department. The Commission proposed that the Council should be entrusted with the administration of a non-lapsing fund of Rs. 50 lakhs to which additions should be made from time to time as financial conditions permit. Its Chairman should be an experienced administrator with a knowledge, if possible, of Indian conditions and, in addition, there should be two other whole-time members of the Council for agriculture and animal husbandry respectively. The Commission suggested that the Council should consist of thirty-six members, in addition to the Chairman and the two whole-time members. Of these, eight would be nominated by the Government of India, eighteen would represent the provincial, agricultural and veterinary departments, three would represent the Indian Universities, two would represent the Indian Central Cotton Committee and the planting community respectively and five would be nominated by the Council for the approval of the Government of India. The Council would largely work through a Standing Finance Committee and sub-committees. A provincial committee should be established in each major province to work in close co-operation with it. The advisory duties of the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India would be taken over by the Chairman and whole-time members of the Research Council, his administrative duties being taken over by a whole-time Director of the Pusa Institute.

Constitution of the Council—In a Resolution issued on May 23rd, 1920, the Government of India stated that whilst they were of opinion that the proposals of the Royal Commission were, on the whole, admirably designed to secure the objects for the attainment of which the establishment of the organisation outlined above was recommended, they considered a Council of thirty-nine members would be too large to be really effective and that it was not desirable that the Legislative Assembly should be deprived of its normal constitutional control over an activity which affects the staple industry of India. They had, therefore, decided that the central organisation should be divided into two parts, a Governing Body which would have the management of all the affairs and funds of the Council subject to the limitation in regard to the control of funds which is mentioned below and an Advisory Board the functions of which would be to examine all proposals in connection with the scientific objects of the Council which might be submitted to the Governing Body, to report on their feasibility and to advise on any other questions referred to it by the Governing Body. The Governing Body would consist of the Member of the Governor-General's Council in charge of the portfolio of Agriculture, who would be *ex-officio* Chairman, the Principal Administrative Officer of the Council, who would be *ex-officio* Vice-Chairman, one representative of the Council of State, two representatives of the Legislative Assembly, one representative of the European business community elected by the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, one representative of the Indian business community elected by the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry, the Provincial Ministers of Agriculture, two representatives elected by the Advisory Board and such other persons as the Governor-General in Council might from time to time appoint.

The Advisory Board would consist of all those whose inclusion in the Council was recommended by the Royal Commission with the exception of the representatives of the Central Legislature and the representatives of the European and Indian commercial communities, who, under the modified scheme, would be members of the Governing Body. In view of their exclusion from the Advisory Board, the university representation would be increased from three to four and the scientific representation by the addition of the Director of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, a representative of the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, and a representative elected by the Indian Research Fund Association. A representative of the Co-operative Movement would also be added. The Principal Administrative Officer to the Council would be *ex-officio* Chairman of the Advisory Board.

The Government of India further announced that for the lump grant of Rs. 50 lakhs recommended by the Royal Commission, they had decided to substitute an initial lump grant of Rs. 25 lakhs, of which Rs. 15 lakhs would be paid in 1925-20, supplemented by a fixed minimum grant annually. The annual grant would be Rs. 7.25 lakhs, of which Rs. 5 lakhs would be devoted to the furtherance of the scientific objects of the Council and the remaining

Rs. 2.25 lakhs to the cost of its staff and secretariat. The Council would have an entirely free hand in regard to the expenditure of the grant made to it for scientific purposes subject to the condition that no liability in respect of such matters as leave or pension contributions after the research for which the grant had been given would be incurred. In regard to the grant to meet the cost of staff, establishment, etc., the Council would be in the same position as a Department of the Government of India Secretariat.

The Council has since been constituted a separate Department of the Government of India for the purpose of administering this grant.

The Government of India also stated their decision that the Council should not be constituted under an Act of the Imperial Legislature as recommended by the Royal Commission but should be registered under the Registration of Societies Act, XXI of 1860. In pursuance of this decision, a meeting of those who would constitute the Society was held at Simla in June, 1920, to consider the terms of a memorandum of association and the Rules and Regulations. At that meeting, it was announced that His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Government had offered a donation of Rs. 2 lakhs to the funds of the Council. This offer was gratefully accepted and the Revenue Member of the Nizam's Government has been added to the Governing Body, the Directors of Agriculture and of Veterinary Services becoming members of the Advisory Board. Since then donations of one lakh each, payable in 20 equal annual instalments have been made by the Mysore, Baroda, Cochin and Travancore States and each nominates one representative to the Governing Body of the Council and two technical members to the Advisory Board. The Bhopal State has also been admitted as a constituent member of the Council on payment of a donation of Rs. 50,000 in 20 equal annual instalments and has been allowed the same representation on the Council as has been granted to the States of Hyderabad, Mysore, Baroda and Cochin. The North West Frontier Province having been constituted a Governor's province is now represented on the Governing Body by the Minister in charge of Agriculture and on the Advisory Board by the Agricultural Officer and the Superintendent, Civil Veterinary Department.

Personnel—In addition to the 18 *ex-officio* members the Governing Body includes the following gentlemen:—

The Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur G. Narayanaswamy Chetty, elected by the Council of State; Pt. Sri Krishna Dutta Palwal, M.L.A. and Nautil Mohd. Shafi Daoodi, M.L.A., elected by the Legislative Assembly. Sir Joseph Kay and Mr. Waichand Hirachand representing the business community; Messrs Carpenter and Kerr, elected by the Advisory Board, and the Hon'ble Sir Frank Noyce, additional member appointed by the Governor-General in Council. The Chairman of the Council is the Hon'ble Member of the Council of His Excellency the Governor-General for the time being in charge of the portfolio of Agriculture. The Hon. Kunwar Jagdish Prasad, C.S.I., C.I.E., C.B.E.

The whole-time officers of the Council are:—The Vice-Chairman—Diwan Bahadur Sur T. Vijayaraghavacharya, K.B.E. The Expert

II Statement showing schemes of Agricultural and Veterinary Research received from Universities or Colleges in India and approved by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research during 1933

Name of University	Scheme	Amount
		Rs.
Calcutta*	Scheme for statistical studies relating to Agricultural work in India by Prof P C Mahalanobis for five years	40,000
Punjab*	Investigations on the relations of Physico-chemical factors to the fertility of soils by Dr S S Bhatnagar for seven months	2,420
Punjab*	Investigation of the wither-tip of citrus trees by Dr H C Chaudhuri for 4 months	2,200
Lucknow*	Enquiry into the Helminthiasis of cattle, sheep and goats in the United Provinces by Prof G C Thapar for 5 years	25,460
Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore *	Study of the composition and nutritive value of milk of the cow, buffalo and goat for three years	50,588

III Statement showing schemes of Agricultural and Veterinary Research received from Universities or Colleges in India and approved by the I C A R during 1934

Name of University	Scheme	Amount
		Rs.
Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Oil section*	Financial assistance to	30,000
Madras*	Research on the development of morphology and anatomy of sugarcane-sorghum hybrids and of the Indian Sugarcane and wild saccharums for three years by Prof Ekambaram	7,600
Calcutta*	Investigation of the life-history, Bionomics and development of fresh water fishes of Bengal for 3 years by Dr H K Mookerjee	7,870
Dacca*	Research on the Bio-Chemical and Physico-Chemical properties of rice at the Bio-Chemical Laboratory for 5 years	21,600

* Funds not yet allotted for these schemes

The principal whole time research officers employed under the Council are—

Sugar Technologist—Mr R C Srivastava, Sec, Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Kanpur

Locust Pestarch Entomologist—Rao Sahib Ramchandra Rao, Karachi

Entomologist at Locust Sub-Station—Dr. R Karandikar, Pesh

Agricultural Statistician—Mr. M. Valdyanshan (I C A R Headquarters)

Chief Economist—Mr R D Kapoor (I C A R Headquarters)

The following research schemes have been sanctioned by the Governing Body of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research

1	2	3	4	5
Serial No	Name of Scheme	Total sanctioned grant	Budget Estimates for 1935-36	REMARKS
	CENTRAL AND PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS— <i>contd</i>	Rs	Rs.	
2	Agricultural Meteorology, Poona— (a) Non-recurring (8,000) (b) Recurring (18,670) per annum for 8 years from 1932-33	61,600	9,300	
3	Grant to the Government of Punjab for locust control measures	12,000	.	(not settled)
4	Appointment of a Physical Assistant on the staff of the Agricultural Chemist, Bengal— (a) Non-recurring (850) (b) Recurring (4,340) per annum for 5 years from 1931-32	22,600	4,300	
5	Investigation of Rusts of Wheat and Barley (i) Co-ordinated scheme of rust research Burma (a) Non-recurring (35,000) (b) Recurring (41,340) per annum for 5 years (ii) Central Provinces— Non-recurring (11,000) (b) Recurring (19,560) per annum for 5 years. (iii) Bihar and Orissa— (a) Non-recurring (20,000) (b) Recurring (30,420) per annum for 5 years (iv) Assam— (a) Non-recurring (28,800) (b) Recurring (22,000) per annum for 5 years (v) Bengal— (a) Non-recurring (33,500) (b) Recurring (26,260) per annum for 5 years (vi) United Provinces— (a) Non-recurring (39,900) (b) Recurring (22,100) per annum for 5 years (vii) Madras— (a) Non-recurring (25,500) (b) Recurring (18,020) per annum for 5 years	54,600 2,41,700 1,08,800 2,02,100 1,17,900 1,56,300 1,08,500 1,15,700	44,100 26,200 17,200 30,600 24,700 24,300 24,700 19,500	
7	Deputation of Dr B N Uppal to foreign countries to study virus diseases of plants	6,700		(completed)
8	Research work on potatoes in Madras for 5 years from 1933-34	20,000	4,000	
9	Grant to Pusa Research Institute for potato breeding research in Northern India	7,500	
10	Provincial schemes of Fruit Research — (a) Bombay for 3 years (i) Non recurring (36,400) (ii) Recurring (53,800) (b) Madras for 5 years (i) Non recurring (16,200) (ii) Recurring (49,200)	90,200 50,600	17,000 21,200	

1	2	3	4	5
Serial No	Name of Scheme	Total sanctioned grant	Budget Estimates for 1935-36	REMARKS
-	B-IV—UNIVERSITIES AND PRIVATE PERSONS—contd	Rs.	Rs.	
6	Prof. Dastur's scheme of research on rice physiology (3 years from 1931-32)	10,800	600	
7	Prof Chaudhuri's scheme of investigation of the wither tip of citrus trees (3 years from 1931-32)	13,800		
8	Investigation on the Organic Constituents of Indian Soils by Prof J C Ghosh	11,200	1,800	
9	Extension of work on "quality" in Crops by the Indian Institute of Science (2 years)	5,400	2,600	
10	Prof J B Seth's scheme for investigating an electric method of Hygrometry, Punjab (2 years)	3,600	1,800	
11	Investigation for preparation of cheap synthetic manure from town refuse and waste materials by the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore	5,000	2,600	
	C—RESEARCH SCHEMES CONNECTED WITH ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND ANIMAL DISEASES			
	GRANTS-IN-AID			
	<i>Central and Provincial Governments</i>			
1	In connection with the appointment of a physiological chemist to study animal nutrition problems at Dacca (5 years from 1931-32)	48,600	10,300	
2	Dr Slater's scheme of goat-breeding from 1931-32 to 1935-36			
	(a) Non-recurring (7,000)	33,500	5,000	
	(b) Recurring (25,000)			
3	Appointment of Veterinary Investigation Officers in Provinces (5 years) —			
	(i) Hyderabad	5,00,000	10,400	
	(ii) Bombay		10,300	
	(iii) Bengal		9,200	
	(iv) Punjab		9,400	
	(v) Bihar and Orissa		9,800	
	(vi) Central Provinces		9,100	
	(vii) Madras		7,200	
	(viii) United Provinces		8,700	
	(ix) Assam		8,500	
4	Appointment of a Statistician for the compilation of certain statistics relating to feeding scales, etc., in the Military Dairies	7,800	.	
5	Punjab Government scheme regarding investigation into the most suitable and economic methods of combating different type of parasitic infection in ruminants in the field for 3 years	20,100	6,600	
6	Extension of work on animal nutrition in the Madras Presidency	40,000	5,400	

1	2	3	4	5
Serial No	Name of Scheme	Total sanctioned grant	Budget Estimates for 1935-36	REMARKS
	GRANTS IN-AID—contd			
		Rs	Rs	
7	Investigation of Jhone's Diseases among cattle in Mysore	20,400	3,000	
8	Dairy Legislation	2,400	200	
9	All India Animal Husbandry Bureau (3 years)	15,000	4,000	
10	Grant to the Central Provinces Government of Rs 42,700 for investigation for vaccination of cattle against rinderpest (3 years from 1934-35)	42,700	14,200	
11	Investigation of India fish poisons and other forest products for their insecticidal properties in Mysore (2 years from 1934-35)	15,300	6,700	
12	Grant for Dairy Research Institute	6,00,000	4,16,000	
	<i>DI—Deputation of Indian representatives to International conferences concerned with agricultural and animal husbandry research</i>			
1	Deputation of Locust Research Entomologist to the Third International Locusts Conference London	2,000	2,000	
2	Participation of India in the 5th World Poultry Congress, Rome	700		
3	Participation of India in the 10th World Dairy Congress, Rome	1,400		
4	Participation of India in the Congress of Royal Institute of Public Health, Norwich, 1934	400		
	<i>DII—Contribution to the International Bureau of Agriculture and Veterinary Research</i>			
1	International Office of Epizootics, Paris, (7,500 francs approximately About Rs 1,200) per annum for 7 years from 1st May 1931	8,400	1,200	
2	Imperial Mycological Institute, London, £600 or about (Rs 5,000) per annum for 6 years upto 1934-35	48,000	8,000	
3	International Institute of Agriculture, Rome, for 3 years from 1935-36 at £16,000 gold francs (about Rs 1,30,000) per annum	1,13,000	13,000	
4	Imperial Agricultural Bureau, London, for 3 years from 1935-36 at £2,187-10-0 (about Rs 29,170) per annum	2,03,100	29,200	
5	Imperial Institute of Entomology for 3 years from 1935-36 at £100 (about Rs 1,333) per annum	10,700	1,300	
6	Contributions to the Tobacco Federation of the British Empire at £10 (about Rs 135) per annum for 3 years from 1934-35	700	100	
7	Contribution towards maintenance of the Laboratory for collecting, lending and dispatching beneficial parasites at Farnham House and investigation into the control of insects and moulds injurious to stored products at Slough	14,500	9,300	

STATEMENT SHOWING COST OF EXPIRED SCHEMES.

<i>Sugar Schemes</i>		<i>Animal Husbandry Schemes</i>	
	Rs		Rs
1 Lump sum grant to Shahjahanpur Research Station for a detailed examination of new seedling cane .	6,000	1. Testing of Drug Plasmoquine	523
2 Deputation of a chemist to Bhopal to test K. B Hadis' process of manufacturing Sugar by open pan method	1,080	2. All India Legislation for the control of animal disease	415
3 K B Hadis' Commercial Test of Bilari under Lal Har Sahai Gupta	12,920	Total Rs	938
4 Deputation of the Sugar Technologist to Europe and America	12,666	(I)	
Total	32,666 or 32,700	<i>Contributions, etc</i>	
		1. Contribution to Royal Veterinary College, London	1,000
		(II)	
		<i>Deputation of India's Representatives at International Conferences</i>	
		1. Deputation of Dr K C Mehta and others to the International Botanical Congress, at Cambridge in 1930	2,432
		2. Expenditure on the Third Entomological Conference in London in 1930	741
		3. Expenditure on the International Veterinary Conference in London in 1930	525
		4. Expenditure on the Conference of workers interested in problems of fruit production within the Empire held in London in 1930	193
		5. Indian Delegation to the International Institute of Agriculture, Rome	5,159
		6. India's representation at the Ninth International Dairy Congress, Copenhagen, 1931	3,372
		7. Cost on India's representation at the Preparatory Conference to the Second World Wheat Conference, Rome	257
		8. Cost of India's representatives at the Soil Workers' Conference held in London in 1930	150
		Total Rs.	15,742
<i>Agricultural Schemes,</i>			
1. Grant to Dr K C Mehta for —			
(a) Investigation of rusts of wheat and barley	41,432		
(b) Investigation into the Physiologic forms of wheat rusts	4,008		
(c) Giving some relief from a part of his duties at college	4,182		
2. Hemp marketing officer	13,864		
3. Investigation into the vitamin contents of mangoes by Dr Zilva	1,015		
4. "Water Hyacinth" by Professor Parija	9,646		
5. Standardisation of Physico-chemical single value in measurements most suitable for Indian Soils by Dr A N Puri	5,250		

STATEMENT SHOWING COST OF IMPROVED SCHEMES—*contd*

<i>Agricultural Schemes—contd</i>			
	Rs	(III)	Rs.
6. Grants to Provinces for collecting data on numerous experiments conducted in the past	17,320	<i>General Schemes</i>	
		1 Honorarium to Dr Agharkar	750
		2 Honorarium to Mr Naray Nath	500
7. Distribution of Sodium Phosphate to Indian States	1,757	Total	1,250
8 Cost of exhibits in connection with commercial samples room of the High Commissioners' office	516	(IV)	
	98,000	Grand Total of (I), (II), (III) and (IV)	16,630
	or	Sugar Schemes	32,700
	90,900	Agricultural Schemes	99,000
		Animal Husbandry and General Schemes	10,630
		Grand Total	1,18,330

RESOLUTION

The reports of the Royal Commission on Agriculture in India and the Central Banking Enquiry Committee drew attention to the loss which occurs through the ineffective marketing of agricultural produce and put forward recommendations for improvement. The marketing of agricultural produce being mainly a matter of provincial concern, it is for Provincial Governments to consider what action, if any, they should take on the majority of the recommendations referred to but some are of all-India importance and application. The Central Banking Enquiry Committee pointed out the need for some central agency to advise and assist in co-ordinating provincial activities particularly in the case of agricultural produce intended for export and to give assistance to Provincial organisations by way of advice and research. It further recommended that this task should be undertaken by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

2 Although they had accepted in general the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Agriculture regarding market surveys and the appointment of expert marketing officers in the Provincial Agricultural Departments and had in several instances taken such action in that direction as their finances permitted, Local Governments were in general deterred by financial stringency from making substantial progress. The Government of India, in view of the importance of improved agricultural marketing as an aid to the general economic recovery of the country, came to the conclusion that a stage had been reached where action might usefully be taken to study in detail the all-India aspects of the problem and that substantial expenditure would be justifiable even at a time of financial stringency—if the position

of Indian agricultural produce in world markets could be strengthened, and greater advantage taken of the huge internal market for such produce.

3 Accordingly, Provincial Governments, were consulted in July 1933, and, on receipt of their replies, the Government of India placed the matter before the Advisory Board of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research for an expression of opinion. In the light of the replies received from Local Governments the Board unanimously recommended action on the following lines—

(a) The first step should be the appointment for a limited period of a highly qualified and experienced Marketing Expert with practical knowledge of the organisation of agricultural marketing in other countries of the Empire. This Officer and the necessary assistants should be on the staff of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research and should undertake the investigation of marketing problems and formulate schemes for the improvement thereof, make recommendation as regards standard grades for the various commodities and advise local Governments and Provincial Departments of Agriculture generally in regard to agricultural marketing.

(b) Attention should be concentrated in the first instance on the principal commodities and

(c) Local Governments should be invited to collaborate with the Marketing Expert, as appointed, by appointing provincial marketing officers.

4 The Government of India accepted the view of the Advisory Board and decided that a Marketing Expert should be appointed on the staff of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research for a period of three years. With the sanction of the Governing Body of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research Mr A M Livingstone, a senior official of the Marketing Branch of the English Ministry of Agriculture, was accordingly appointed as Marketing Expert on the staff of the Council and took up his duties on the 28th April 1934

5 The question of agricultural marketing was also discussed at the Provincial Economic Conference held in April 1934 and there was general agreement at the Conference that, of all practicable measures for improving economic conditions, an intensive programme to develop marketing facilities for agricultural products (both Crops and Livestock products) offers the best immediate prospects of substantial results. The Conference was of the opinion that action to be taken to deal with the main marketing problems should include propaganda and the supply of information in external markets regarding Indian products, the grading, sorting and bulking of the main staple products, special market organisation for perishable commodities, information to India's producers of consumers' requirements both in India and abroad; the planning of production on the basis of quality and demand, the establishment and development of regulated markets, the undertaking of market surveys for the purpose of developing a common plan throughout India and the establishment of properly organised 'futures' markets, commodity exchanges and warehouses

6 As stated in paragraph 9 of their Resolution No F-16 (1)-F/34, dated the 5th May 1934, the Government of India decided to proceed on the lines recommended at the Conference which included the following initial steps—

- (1) The appointment of a Central Marketing Officer and staff by the Government of India
- (2) The appointment of Provincial Marketing Officers
- (3) The inauguration of Marketing surveys
- (4) The appointment of special committees for staple crops
- (5) Work on grade standards

These recommendations broadly follow the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Agriculture which were endorsed in general by the Central Banking Enquiry Committee and steps will now be taken to give effect to them

7. The question of establishing additional crop committees is still under the consideration of Government. In the meantime it has been decided however, that the other recommendations should be given effect to immediately

in accordance with a scheme of work prepared by the Marketing Expert Adviser on the staff of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research. This work, which will be undertaken by a Central Staff in conjunction with Provincial Marketing Staffs, falls into three main divisions, viz—

- (i) Investigation work,
- (ii) Development work, and
- (iii) Work on grade standards

The work to be done under these various headings may be summarised as follows

Investigation work—This will include a series of marketing surveys with immediate reference to the more important commodities grouped as follows—

I Crops—(a) Cereals (wheat, barley and rice), (b) oilseeds (groundnuts, rapeseed and linseed), (c) plantation and special crops (tobacco) fibres and fruit

II Animal Husbandry Products—(a) Dairy products, etc (milk and butter, eggs and poultry), (b) Livestock, etc (hides, skins and wool livestock, meat and fish)

Certain general questions are also included within the scope of the surveys, viz., Regulated Markets, Marketing Organisation, the problem of transportation, storage and preservation of the commodities dealt with, Standardisation of containers, etc

The marketing surveys when completed will set out in detail the present system of marketing of the commodities concerned not only in each of the provinces separately but in respect of inter-provincial, inter-state and foreign trade so as to provide an all-India picture of existing conditions and a common basis for future progress. The report on each survey will set out, in precise technical detail definite suggestions for standard grades, containers, handling methods of packing, contract conditions, etc. Without committing either the Central Government or Provincial Governments, these reports will also formulate proposals regarding any improvements in marketing organisation in the various areas which may appear to be necessary and practicable.

The work connected with the execution of these surveys will be shared between the Central and Provincial Marketing Staffs and the planning of the surveys, compilation of data and preparation of the reports will fall in duty on the Central Staff

Development work—In each commodity the programme of development of marketing facilities will depend on the results of the survey. It will usually include the development of a common plan for the marketing of the commodity with the object of increasing the production and trade of commodities.

AREA, CULTIVATED and UNCULTIVATED, in 1931-32 in EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Area according to survey	Deduct Indian States	NET AREA.	
			According to survey	According to Village Papers
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Ajmer-Merwara	1,770,921		1,770,921	1,770,921
Assam	48,375,360	7,890,560	35,484,800	35,484,800
Bengal	52,044,314	3,477,760	48,566,554	48,566,554
Bihar and Orissa	71,507,695	18,334,720	53,172,975	53,172,975
Bombay	97,446,023	18,568,900	78,877,063	78,877,063
Burma	155,849,528		155,849,528	155,849,528
Central Provinces and Berar	85,190,400	21,207,680	63,982,720	64,060,237
Coorg	1,012,260		1,012,260	1,012,260
Delhi	369,904		369,904	369,904
Madras	91,073,424		91,073,424	91,158,469
North-West Frontier Province	8,578,296	140,800	8,437,496	8,576,829
Punjab	65,257,965	3,286,700	61,971,265	60,187,672
United Provinces	72,648,741	4,348,232	68,300,509	67,970,517
Total	746,124,831	77,255,412	668,869,419	667,057,729

Provinces	CULTIVATED		UNCULTIVATED		Forests.
	Net area actually sown	Current fallows	Culturable waste other than fallow	Not available for cultivation	
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara	357,930	151,013	303,462	861,134	96,782
Assam	5,752,043	1,811,270	19,527,781	4,571,030	3,822,676
Bengal	28,567,900	5,300,710	5,915,644	9,152,760	4,629,540
Bihar and Orissa	24,768,100	6,214,766	6,990,999	8,017,146	7,172,964
Bombay	32,239,045	10,737,504	7,108,016	19,695,944	9,096,554
Burma	17,470,599	4,245,204	59,896,313	62,036,821	22,200,591
Central Provinces & Berar	25,257,361	3,336,041	14,077,297	4,941,846	16,247,692
Coorg	137,793	171,547	11,690	334,043	357,165
Delhi	218,950	7,124	63,093	80,737	
Madras	33,495,793	10,666,863	13,042,033	20,463,293	13,333,775
North-West Frontier Province	2,275,121	509,044	2,764,037	2,668,346	369,261
Punjab	27,349,514	3,221,166	14,716,694	12,721,012	1,977,211
United Provinces	35,745,770	2,468,775	10,573,400	9,913,535	4,268,577
Total	228,835,924	49,041,627	154,999,629	145,614,306	85,505,501

NOTE — Statistics for Manpur Pargana have been omitted as it now forms part of Indore State

AREA UNDER IRRIGATION IN 1931-32 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces	AREA IRRIGATED.					
	By Canals.		By Tanks.	By Wells.	Other Sources.	Total Area Irrigated.
	Government.	Private.				
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Ajmer-Merwara	.	.	30,350	100,531	.	130,881
Assam .	145	324,040	1,331	33	204,460	620,918
Bengal .	63,644	206,767	966,151	33,556	398,017	1,602,125
Bihar and Orissa .	844,356	928,099	1,602,083	564,310	1,241,508	5,180,156
Bombay	3,161,732	80,234	133,458	616,348	202,564	4,233,336
Burma	613,105	247,907	192,018	19,086	335,512	1,408,618
Central Provinces & Berar .	*	799,642	*	131,511	44,267	975,420
Coorg ..	2,212	.	1,370	.	.	3,591
Delhi	36,512	..	1,171	26,261	.	51,044
Madras	3,730,390	147,326	3,449,643	1,346,612	536,002	9,204,663
North-West Frontier Province	385,877	416,520	..	85,900	87,963	970,260
Punjab ..	9,929,217	467,039	33,220	3,766,667	136,904	14,267,056
United Provinces	2,849,841	38,695	58,961	4,745,025	4,378,99	10,071,012
Total	21,610,621	3,600,150	6,413,674	11,456,846	5,647,286	48,728,586

* Included under "Private canals".

Provinces.	CROPS IRRIGATED *				
	Rice	Wheat.	Barley.	Jowar or Cholum (great millet).	Bajra or Cumbu (spiked millet)
	Acres.	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Ajmer-Merwara .	43	17,770	41,903	157	292
Assam ..	604,656	
Bengal . . .	1,519,614	16,169	5,436	10	80
Bihar and Orissa ..	3,488,584	254,437	130,838	3,040	1,486
Bombay . . .	1,409,544	591,157	20,013	654,520	478,336
Burma	1,349,174	83	..	131	.
Central Provinces & Berar .	811,522	53,455	1,784	335	.
Coorg .. .	3,591
Delhi . . .	30	22,905	2,445	636	210
Madras . . .	8,261,907	2,764	2	446,900	311,226
North-West Frontier Province	41,369	320,640	60,517	24,565	8,327
Punjab . . .	631,477	4,916,800	196,858	211,074	335,500
United Provinces .	453,372	3,751,404	1,902,993	45,607	3,325
Total ..	18,594,883	9,076,674	2,562,782	1,367,005	1,137,756

* Includes area irrigated at both harvests

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1931-32 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces	OILSEEDS							
	Lanseed	Sesamum (til or juphi)	Illopo and mustard	Ground- nut	Cocoanut	Castor	Other Oil seeds.	Total
	Acres	Acres	Acres.	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres.	Acres
Ajmer-Mer- wara	638	20,024	801	21,553
Assam	2,260	20,683	302,041	.	.	1,818	.	329,802
Bengal	126,300	161,300	770,300	300	12,800	100	30,900	1,102,000
Bihar and Orissa	654,100	200,400	638,700	1,200	28,500	51,000	299,900	1,876,800
Bombay	137,191	233,640	103,691	980,224	27,088	76,053	220,276	1,848,069
Burma	26	1,328,463	4,300	408,309	10,439	11	7,532	1,759,143
Central Pro- vinces and Berar	937,224	504,924	69,821	104,333	.	38,263	340,960	2,055,525
Coorg		260	4	1				265
Delhi	4	23	7,744				263	8,034
Madras	5,804	747,053	14,723	2,035,427	530,031	330,114	153,518	4,425,670
North-West Frontier Province	285	3,592	106,927				25	110,829
Punjab	31,512	102,440	1,140,800			17	1,206	1,345,065
United Pro- vinces	321,256	329,660	277,820	27,214	.	10,188	33,507	990,645
Total	2,216,600	3,712,468	3,506,882	4,226,008	617,858	514,497	1,088,087	15,882,400

Provinces	Condi- ments and spices	SUGAR		FIBRES			
		Sugar- cane	Others*	Cotton	Jute	Other fibres	Total fibres.
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Ajmer-Merwara	3,415	358		26,595		97	26,992
Assam		31,332		37,128	99,282	..	136,410
Bengal	136,100	233,400	54,900	58,500	1,596,700	63,900	1,719,100
Bihar and Orissa	65,000	281,000		68,500	147,500	20,300	242,300
Bombay	218,754	68,848	1,165	4,320,908		109,494	4,430,402
Burma	97,332	20,624	21,197	228,483		1,186	229,660
Central Provinces and Berar	112,365	22,042		4,620,366		95,138	4,715,504
Coorg	3,676	19				443	443
Delhi	2,150	3,225		4,308		642	5,040
Madras	728,395	116,105	90,796	2,204,506	.	149,245	2,353,751
North-West Frontier Province	7,090	44,268		17,767		1,286	19,053
Punjab	62,820	474,655		2,159,722		54,964	2,214,686
United Provinces	156,888	1,576,280		739,640	1,784	183,544	924,918
Total	1,593,985	2,872,754	168,048	14,486,513	1,845,216	686,239	17,017,968

* Area under sugar-yielding plants other than sugarcane;

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED

In the table below —

Provinces	Dyes and Tanning materials		Average area irrigated in triennium 1925-28	Triennium 1927-30.
	Indigo	Other		
Ajmer-Merwara	7,205,587	7,277,967
Assam	440,536	406,748
Bengal	3,385,379	3,579,592
Bihar and Orissa	97,182	90,054
Bihar and Orissa	2,698,265	3,030,867
Punjab	10,442,730	11,200,570
Burma	1,939,029	1,994,321
Bihar and Orissa	930,112	937,067
Central Provinces	417,850	400,438
North-West Frontier Province	369,343	403,064
Rajputana	24,820	31,984
Baluchistan	22,319	22,407
Total	27,973,152	29,954,059

Productive Works — Taking productive works only, a triennial comparison is given in the following table. It will be seen that the average area irrigated by such works during the triennium was one-and-a-half million acres more than in the previous period —

Provinces	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1924-27	Average area irrigated in triennium 1927-30.
Madras	3,732,271	3,821,815
Bombay-Deccan	2,699	2,637
Sind	2,894,468	2,661,519
United Provinces	2,462,061	3,372,506
Punjab	9,755,740	10,775,794
Burma	1,531,403	1,373,393
Central Provinces	153,942	21,859
North-West Frontier Province	200,413	207,750
Total	20,732,937	22,202,393

Taking the productive works as a whole, the capital invested in them was, at the end of 1930-31, Rs 92 crores. The net revenue for the year was Rs 627 lakhs giving a return of 6.81 per cent as compared with 9 per cent. in 1918-19 and 9½ per cent in 1919-20. In considering these figures it must be remembered that the capital invested includes the expenditure upon several works which have only lately come into operation and others which are under

construction, which classes at present contribute little or nothing in the way of revenue; moreover only receipts from water rates and a share of the enhanced land revenue due to the introduction of irrigation are credited to the canals, so that the returns include nothing on account of the large addition to the general revenues of the country which follows in the wake of their construction.

Unproductive Works.—Turning now to the unproductive works, the areas irrigated in the various provinces during the triennium were as below:—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1924-27.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1927-30
Madras	271,455	266,849
Bombay-Deccan	277,709	232,278
Sind	527,737	831,782
Bengal	73,381	67,802
United Provinces	207,312	252,643
Punjab	242,613	424,756
Burma	268,110	539,253
Bihar and Orissa	889,733	904,303
Central Provinces	230,280	323,482
North-West Frontier Province	156,911	195,314
Rajputana	23,272	31,984
Baluchistan	22,070	22,407
Total	3,191,533	4,109,713

Non-capital Works—The results obtained from the non-capital works are given below:—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1924-27.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1927-30.
Madras	3,174,731	3,162,303
Bombay-Deccan	157,025	164,833
Sind	87,279	86,351
Bengal	22,135	22,252
United Provinces	8,006	14,717
Punjab	349,763	Nil.
Burma	72,870	76,676
Bihar and Orissa	2,246	2,764
Central Provinces	45,639	45,057
Total	3,919,749	3,661,962

Irrigated Acreage.—A comparison of the acreage of crops matured during 1930-31 by means of Government Irrigation systems with the total area under cultivation in the several provinces is given below :—

Provinces.	Net area cropped Acres	Area irrigated by Government irrigation works. Acres	Percentage of area irrigated to total cropped area.	Capital cost of Government Irrigation & Navigation works to end of 1930-31. In lakhs of rupees	Estimated value of crops raised on areas receiving State irrigation In lakhs of rupees.
Madras	39,193,000	7,573,000	19.3	17.63	22.33*
Bombay-Deccan ..	20,204,000	403,000	1.5	10.38	2.02
Sind	4,336,000	3,716,000	85.7	21.90	0.87
Bengal	28,399,000	73,000	0.3	4.85	27
United Provinces ..	43,022,000	3,989,000	9.3	25.12	14.43
Punjab	80,265,000	11,483,000	38.0	33.38	24.77
Burma	18,023,000	2,098,000	11.6	6.62	6.35
Bihar and Orissa ..	29,779,000	890,000	3.0	6.28	6.39
Central Provinces ..	20,050,000	423,000	2.1	0.63	1.40
North-West Frontier Provinces ..	2,423,000	405,000	16.7	2.94	1.28
Rajputana	377,000	20,000	5.3	35	6
Baluchistan	457,000	22,000	4.8	36	3
Total ..	243,188,000	31,097,000	12.7	1,36.44	86.10

* Exclusive of the value of crops raised on some 3 million acres irrigated by non-capital works.

New Works.—The major works of exceptional importance are the Sukkur Barrage and Canals in Sind, the Cauvery (Mettur) project in Madras, and the Sutlej Valley Canals in the Punjab. The Sukkur Barrage, which was opened by His Excellency the Viceroy early in 1932, is the greatest work of its kind in the world, measuring 4,725 feet between the faces of the regulators on either side. The year 1932-33 was devoted to the design and construction of the remaining minor channels, including watercourses, together with the necessary regulators, falls, bridges and modules. The remodelling of the existing channels was also taken up and several of these projects were under consideration. The Barrage canals, which were opened early in the year, were tested to their full supply levels, and the result generally was satisfactory, though some of the banks showed considerable settlement and these were strengthened as required. The general working of the canals during this first year of their operation was very satisfactory, the total area irrigated being 25,00,067 acres of which 13,45,000 acres were in *Kharif* and 11,55,067 acres in *rabi*; the area of wheat amounting to 7,00,230 acres as compared with an average wheat area during the five years ending 1930-31 of only 1,83,043 acres in the same tract.

The Sutlej Valley Works which reached completion by the end of 1932-33 received the sanction of the Secretary of State for India in 1921-22. It falls into four natural groups centred on the Perozepur, Sukh-muk, Jalandhar, and Panjnad Headworks. During the triennium ending 1932-33 all the State Canals taking

off from the first three headworks, namely the Bikaner, Pordwah, Eastern Sadigha, Bahawalpur and Qampur Canals were handed over to the States. The remaining two Canals, namely the Abbassa and Panjnad Canals taking off from the Panjnad Headworks, were also handed over to the Bahawalpur State during the year. The total expenditure on the Project to the end of 1932-33 amounted to Rs. 21.12 crores, which include Rs. 11.63 crores contributed by the States of Bikaner and Bahawalpur—the co-partners in the Project. The total area to be irrigated is 5,108,000 acres, or nearly 8,000 square miles. Of this, 2,075,000 acres are perennial and 3,033,000 acres non-perennial irrigation. 1,942,000 acres are in British territory, 2,825,000 acres in Bahawalpur and 341,000 acres in Bikaner.

The Cauvery-Mettur Project was inaugurated on August 21, 1934. The dam which has some of its features is the largest in the world and took 9 years to complete. It is built across the river Cauvery at a point 240 miles from its source in Western Ghats. During the construction of the dam 200,000 tons of cement and 55 million cubic feet of masonry were used.

The scheme is designed to irrigate some 1,300,000 acres of rice fields 125 miles away from the dam in the Cauvery delta. The Mettur Reservoir has an effective capacity of 500 million cubic feet whilst the dam has an overall length of a little over a mile. Irrigation will be assisted by about 70 miles of main canals together with 10,000 miles of distribution canals. The Cauvery-Mettur Project also provides for hydro-electric power.

WELLS AND TANKS.

So far we have dealt only with the great Irrigation schemes. The one especially noteworthy product of British rule, the great eastern irrigation system, the Irrigation of Lower Gangetic Valley, gives thirty per cent off the water tax on lands as being under it. Moreover, there will be an extremely efficient system of irrigation. When the canal is built to raise a few drops of water and use it to form a water pond, the benefit is more carefully the use of it, and water exerts at least ten times as much duty as canal water. Again, one of the chief difficulties of irrigation is the high grade of the water. It is estimated that the irrigated lands produce at least one-third more than the unirrigated lands. Although the large area brought under cultivation is a great credit to the British administration, it is not the only credit. The drainage system, the construction of the canals, the spreading of water, the possibility of self-irrigation, the drainage, the irrigation, to the more of the soil water and the water table.

[illegible]

... were I well situated to be a slave of the desert
the people as I can do well watered in
from extra moisture due to improvement
There are some trees of food, are freely made
to afford all sorts, the general state of
interior hills of the coast is flat and
fertile, some of the country is well as other
parts of it, the hills are very low and
from a distance appear to be that several in
other places the country is high and fertile
people, the land is very fertile, the soil is
to grow the most of the crops of the

[illegible]

Bibliography.—Annual Review of Irrigation in India, 1921-1922. Delhi: Manager, Government of India Publications. Price Rs. 1-2-0. Also India in 1922-23. Delhi: Manager of Government Publications. Price Rs. 1-1-0. The annual irrigation reports in India used to be as and as the Sahara, consisting of a dull statistical record. They have been greatly improved of recent years and have now assumed a quite satisfactory form. The major review appears once every three years. The first of the triennial reviews was issued in 1922. Between the triennial reviews there is issued a briefer statement recording the progress of each particular year.

Meteorology.

The meteorology of India like that of other countries is largely a result of its geographical position. The great land area of Asia to the northward and the enormous sea expanse of the Indian Ocean to the southward are determining factors in settling its principal meteorological features. When the Northern Hemisphere is turned away from the sun, in the northern winter, Central Asia becomes an area of intense cold. The meteorological conditions of the temperate zone are pushed southward and we have over the northern provinces of India the westerly winds and eastward moving cyclonic storms of temperate regions, while, when the Northern Hemisphere is turned towards the sun, Southern Asia becomes a super-heated region drawing towards it an immense current of air which carries with it the enormous volume of water vapour which it has picked up in the course of its long passage over the wide expanse of the Indian Ocean, so that at one season of the year parts of India are deluged with rain and at another persistent dry weather prevails.

Monsoons—The all-important fact in the meteorology of India is the alternation of the seasons known as the summer and winter monsoons. During the winter monsoon the winds are of continental origin and hence, dry, fine weather, clear skies, low humidity and little air movement are the characteristic features of this season. The summer rains cease in the provinces of the North-West Frontier Province and the Punjab about the middle of September after which cool westerly and northerly winds set in over that area and the weather becomes fresh and pleasant. These fine weather conditions extend slowly eastward and southward so that by the end of October, they embrace all parts of the country except the southern half of the Peninsula, and by the end of the year have extended to the whole of the Indian land and sea area, the rains withdrawing to the Equatorial Belt. Thus the characteristics of the cold weather from October to February over India are.—Westerly winds of the temperate zone over the extreme north of India; to the south of these the north-east winds of the winter monsoon or perhaps more properly the north-east Trades and a gradually extending area of fine weather which, as the season progresses, finally embraces the whole Indian land and sea area. Two exceptions to these fine weather conditions exist during this period, viz., the Madras coast and the north-west of India. In the former region the north-east winds which set in over the Bay of Bengal in October coalesce with the damp winds of the retreating summer monsoon, which current curves round over the Bay of Bengal, and blowing directly on to the Madras coast gives to that region the wettest and most disturbed weather of the whole year, for while the total rainfall for the four months June to September, i.e., the summer monsoon, at the Madras Observatory amounts to 15.46 inches the total

rainfall for the three months October to December amounts to 31.78 inches. The other region in which the weather is unsettled, during this period of generally settled conditions, is North-west India. This region during January, February and part of March is traversed by a succession of shallow storms from the westward. The number and character of these storms vary very largely from year to year and in some years no storms at all are recorded. In normal years, however, in Northern India periods of fine weather alternate with periods of disturbed weather (occurring during the passage of these storms) and light to moderate and even heavy rain occurs. In the case of Peshawar the total rainfall for the four months, December to March, amounts to 3.75 inches while the total fall for the four months, June to September, is 4.65 inches, showing that the rainfall of the winter is, absolutely, greater in this region than that of the summer monsoon. These two periods of subsidiary "rains" are of the greatest economic importance. The fall in Madras is, as shown above, of considerable actual amount, while that of North-west India though small in absolute amount is of the greatest consequence as on it largely depend the grain and wheat crops of Northern India.

Spring Months—March to May and part of June form a period of rapid continuous increase of temperature and decrease of barometric pressure throughout India. During this period there occurs a steady transference northward of the area of greatest heat. In March the maximum temperatures, slightly exceeding 100° occur in the Deccan; in April the area of maximum temperature, between 100° and 105°, lies over the south of the Central Provinces and Gujarat; in May maximum temperatures, varying between 105° and 110°, prevail over the greater part of the interior of the country while in June the highest mean maximum temperatures, exceeding 110° occur in the Indus Valley near Jacobabad. Temperatures exceeding 120° have been recorded over a wide area including Sind, Rajputana, the West and South Punjab and the west of the United Provinces, but the highest temperature hitherto recorded is 127° registered at Jacobabad on June 12th, 1919. During this period of rising temperature and diminishing barometric pressure, great alterations take place in the air movements over India, including the disappearance of the north-east winds of the winter monsoon, and the air circulation over India and its adjacent seas, becomes a local circulation, characterised by strong hot winds down the river valleys of Northern India and increasing land and sea winds in the coast regions. These land and sea winds, as they become stronger and more extensive, bring large contrasts of temperature and humidity which result in the production of violent local storms. These take the form of dust storms in the dry plains of Northern India and of thunder and lightning in regions where there

is inter-action between damp sea winds and dry winds from the interior. These storms are frequently accompanied with winds of excessive force, heavy hail and torrential rain and are, on that account, very destructive being known as "Nor'westers" in Bengal.

By the time the area of greatest heat has been established over North-west India, in the last week of May or first of June, India has become the seat of low barometric pressure relatively to the adjacent seas and the whole character of the weather changes. During the hot weather period, discussed above, the winds and weather are mainly determined by local conditions. Between the Equator and Lat. 30° or 35° south the wind circulation is that of the south-east trades, that is to say from about Lat. 30° - 35° south a wind from south-east blows over the surface of the sea up to about the equator. Here the air rises into the upper strata to flow back again at a considerable elevation to the Southern Tropic or beyond. To the north of this circulation, i.e., between the Equator and Lat. 20° to 25° North, there exists a light unsteady circulation, the remains of the north-east trade, that is to say about Lat. 20° North there is a north-east wind which blows southward till it reaches the thermal equator where side by side with the south-east Trades mentioned above, the air rises into the upper strata of the atmosphere. Still further to the northward and in the immediate neighbourhood of land there are the circulations due to the land and sea breezes which are attributable to the difference in the heating effect of the sun's rays over land and sea. It is now necessary to trace the changes which occur and lead up to the establishment of the south-west monsoon period. The sun at this time is progressing slowly northward towards the northern Tropic. Hence the thermal equator is also progressing northward and with it the area of ascent of the south-east trades circulation. Thus the south-east trade winds cross the equator and advance further and further northward, as the thermal equator and area of ascent follows the sun in its northern progress. At the same time the temperature over India increases rapidly and barometric pressure diminishes, owing to the air rising and being transferred to neighbouring cooler regions—more especially the sea areas. Thus we have the southern Trades circulation extending northward and the local land and sea circulation extending southward until about the beginning of June the light unsteady interfering circulation over the Arabian Sea finally breaks up, the immense circulation of the south-east Trades, with its cool, moisture laden winds rushes forward, becomes linked on to the local circulation proceeding between the Indian land area and the adjacent seas and India is invaded by oceanic conditions—the south-west monsoon proper. This is the most important season of the year as upon it depends the prosperity of at least five-sixths of the people of India.

When this current is fully established a continuous air movement extends over the Indian Ocean, the Indian seas and the Indian land area from Lat. 30° S. to Lat. 30° N. the southern

half being the south-east trades and the northern half the south-west monsoon. The most important fact about it is that it is a comparatively horizontal air movement passing over an extensive oceanic area where steady evaporation is constantly in process so that when the current enters the Indian seas and flows over the Indian land it is highly charged with aqueous vapour.

The current enters the Indian seas quite at the commencement of June at the corner of the equatorial zone, whence it spreads over the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal up to the extreme northern limits. It advances northwards from these two seas. The Arabian Sea current blows on to the west coast and sweeping over the Western Ghats generally forms a cyclonic eddy over the Peninsula, Central India, Rajasthan and north Bombay. The Bay of Bengal current flows directly up the Bay. One portion is directed towards the hills of the Himalayas and the other a portion curves to south at the foot of the Bay and over the sea and then meets with the tail of the Him-alayas current and forms a south-easterly wind which blows up the Gangetic plain. The south-west monsoon continues for three or a half to four months, i.e., from the beginning of June to the middle or end of September. During this period more or less general though far from continuous rain falls throughout India, the principal features of the rainfall distribution being as follows. The greater portion of the Arabian Sea current, the total volume of which is probably three times as great as that of the Bay of Bengal current flows directly on to the west coast districts. Here it meets an almost continuous hill range is forced into ascent and gives heavy rain alike to the coast districts and to the hills range, the total averaging about 100 inches most of which falls in four months. The current after parting with most of its moisture advances across the Peninsula giving occasional uncertainty in rain to the Deccan and passes out into the Bay where it combines with the local current. The northern portion of the current blows across the Gujerat, Kathiawar and Sind coasts gives a certain amount of rain to the coast districts and frequent showers to the Aravalli hill range but very little to Western Rajasthan, and passing onward gives moderate to heavy rain in the Eastern Punjab, Eastern Rajasthan and the North-west Himalayas. In this region the current meets and mixes with the monsoon current from the Bay.

The monsoon current over the southern half of the Bay of Bengal blows from south-west and is thus directed towards the Tenasserim hills and up the valley of the Irrawaddy to which it gives very heavy rain. That portion of this current which advances sufficiently far northward to blow over Bengal and Assam gives very heavy rain to the low-lying districts of East Bengal and immediately thereafter coming under the influence of the Assam Hills is forced upwards and gives excessive rain (perhaps the heaviest in the world) to the southern face of these hills. The remaining portion of the Bay current advances

from the southward over Bengal, is then directed westward by the barrier of the Himalayas and gives general rain over the Gangetic plain and fairly frequent rain over the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Sikhim to Kashmir.

To the south of this easterly wind of the Bay current and to the north of the westerly wind of the Arabian Sea current there exists a debatable area running roughly from Hissar in the Panjab through Agra, Allahabad and part of Chota Nagpur to Orissa, where neither current of the monsoon prevails. In this area the rainfall is uncertain and would probably be light, but that the storms from the Bay of Bengal exhibit a marked tendency to advance along this track and to give it heavy falls of occasional rain.

The Total rainfall of the monsoon period (June to September) is 100 inches over part of the west coast, the amount diminishes eastward, is below 20 inches over a large part of the centre and east of the Peninsula and is only 5 inches in South Madras. It is over 100 inches on the Tenasserim and South Burma coast and decreases to 20 inches in Upper Burma; it is over 100 in the north Assam Valley and diminishes steadily westward and is only 5 inches in the Indus Valley.

The month to month distribution for the whole of India is,—

May	3.1	inches.
June	7.9	"
July	11.2	"
August	10.3	"
September	7.0	"
October	3.3	"

Cyclonic storms and cyclones are an almost invariable feature of the monsoon period. In the Arabian Sea they ordinarily form at the commencement and end of the season, viz. May and November, but in the Bay they form a constantly recurring feature of the monsoon season. The following gives the total number

of storms recorded during the period 1877 to 1901 and shows the monthly distribution —

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Bay of Bengal	1	4	13	28

	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Bay of Bengal	41	36	45	34	22	8

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Arabian Sea	2	15	..

	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Arabian Sea	3	..	1	1	5	..

The preceding paragraphs give an account of the normal procession of the seasons throughout India during the year, but it must be remembered, that every year produces variations from the normal and that in some years these variations are very large. This is more particularly the case with the discontinuous element rainfall. The most important variations in this element which may occur are —

- (1) Delay in the commencement of the rains over a large part of the country, this being most frequent in North Bombay and North-west India
- (2) A prolonged break in July or August or both
- (3) Early termination of the rains, which may occur in any part of the country.
- (4) The determination throughout the monsoon period of more rain than usual to one part and less than usual to another part of the country. Examples of this occur every year.

About the middle of September fine and fresh weather begins to appear in the extreme north-west of India. This area of fine weather and dry winds extends eastward and southward, the area of rainy weather at the same time contracting till by the end of October the rainy area has retreated to Madras and the south of the Peninsula and by the end of December has disappeared from the Indian region, fine clear weather prevailing throughout. This procession with the numerous variations and modifications which are inseparable from meteorological conditions repeats itself year after year.

INDIA METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT.

Functions of the Department—The India Meteorological Department was instituted in 1875 to combine and extend the work of various provincial meteorological services which had sprung up before that date. The various duties which were imposed on the Department at the time of its formation were from time to time supplemented by new duties. The main existing functions, more or less in the historical order in which they were assumed, may be briefly summarised as follows —

(a) The issue of warnings to ports and coastal districts of the approach of cyclonic storms

(b) The issue of storm warnings by wireless to ships in the Indian seas, and the making of arrangements for the collection of meteorological data from ships.

(c) The maintenance of systematic records of meteorological data and the publication of climatological statistics. These were originally undertaken in order to furnish data for the investigation of the relation between weather and disease

(d) The issue to the public of up-to-date weather reports and of rainfall forecasts. These duties were originally recommended by a Committee of Enquiry into the causes of famine in India

(e) Meteorological researches of a general character, but particularly regarding tropical storms and the forecasting of monsoon and winter rainfall

(f) The issue of seasonal rainfall forecasts

(g) The issue of telegraphic warnings of heavy rainfall by special telegrams to district officers on departmental warning lists (e.g., canal and railway engineers), and by means of the ordinary daily weather telegram to the public in general

(h) Supply of meteorological, astronomical and geophysical information in response to enquiries from officials, commercial firms or private individuals

(i) Technical supervision of rainfall registration carried out under the control of provincial Government authorities.

(j) The study of temperature and moisture conditions in the upper air by means of instrument-carrying balloons and of upper winds by pilot balloons

(k) The issue of weather reports and warnings to aircraft, civil and military, the latter being in collaboration with the Royal Air Force

(l) The training and examination in meteorology of candidates for air pilots' licenses

(m) Study of meteorology in relation to agriculture, a subject on which the Royal Commission on Agriculture in India made recommendations

In addition to these meteorological duties the India Meteorological Department was from time to time made responsible for or undertook various other important duties, such as—

(n) Determination of time in India and the issue of time-signals, also the determination of errors of chronometers for the Royal Indian Navy.

(o) Observations and researches on terrestrial magnetism at Bombay and atmospheric electricity at Bombay and Poona

(p) Regular study (mainly by spectroscopic examination) of the sun at the Solar Physics Observatory at Kodalkanal

(q) Maintenance of serimological instruments at various centres

Definitions of different types and classes of Observatories—Before proceeding to indicate the organisation of the Meteorological Department, it may be helpful to introduce here the following definitions —

Forecast Centre at which weather observations are collected by telegrams from a number of stations in order to form the basis of weather reports and forecasts issued therefrom. These may be (a) Main Centres, serving a large area for general purposes, or (b) Regional Centres serving more limited areas for special purposes

Upper Air Observatory undertaking observations of upper winds, and of upper air temperatures, humidities and pressures up to heights of about 15-20 miles by means of sounding balloons (i.e., balloons with self-recording instruments attached)

Air Observatory to which Royal Air Force supply aeroplane data of temperatures and humidities up to heights of 2 or 3 miles

Pilot Balloon Observatory at which pilot balloons (i.e., balloons without attached instruments) are released and observed through special theodolites for the determination of wind directions and velocities at various heights in the free atmosphere. The minimum staff is two full-time observers for one balloon flight per day and 3 full-time observers and a balloon maker for two balloon flights per day

A meteorological or weather observatory for the observations of such elements as can be recorded by an observer with the help of instruments on the ground (as distinct from upper air observations obtained by means of balloons, etc.). Observatories where the staff is provided and paid for by other agencies, e.g., Indian States, are called non-departmental although instruments are supplied by the Meteorological Department. These surface observatories are classified according to the number of observations per day and the number and kind of instruments to be read. Thus—

First class weather observatory (W¹) which is furnished with autographic instruments for continuously recording pressure, temperature, humidity, wind direction and velocity, and rainfall, in addition to instruments read by eye. It may also undertake special observations (e.g., on atmospheric electricity). The staff required varies from two part-time observers to about four full-time observers according to the amount of special work and of computation and tabulation of data.

Second class weather observatory (W²) at which observations are taken twice daily and usually telegraphed to one or more forecast centres. The existing standard times of observation in India are 8 hours (Local Time) and 17 hours (Indian Standard Time)*, the observations being made by a part-time observer on Rs. 25 per mensem.

Third class weather observatory (W³) where readings are taken daily at 8 hours and sent by telegram daily or by post at the end of each month to one or more forecast centres. At each observatory of this type there is one part-time observer on Rs. 15 a month.

Fourth class weather observatory (W⁴) at which observations (a) of temperature, wind and rainfall only or (b) of temperature and rainfall only are recorded. The staff of a 4th class observatory is one part-time observer on pay not exceeding Rs. 12 a month.

Fifth class weather observatory (W⁵) at which a part-time observer on Rs. 5 p.m. records and telegraphs rainfall. At some of these observatories certain non-instrumental observations are also taken and telegraphed in the "Brief Weather Code".

Non-instrumental (W⁶) observatory at which visual observations of weather phenomena are recorded. This class includes the type of observatory called the current weather station which is established on or near an air route for recording local current weather for airmen. At such a station observations of past and present weather, visibility, cloud, wind direction and force are recorded at certain fixed times daily and at other hours on request. The usual staff at a current weather station is one wholtime observer.

Magnetic Observatory (M) equipped with instruments for continuously recording the principal magnetic elements.

Seismological station (S) equipped with one or more continuously recording seismographs.

Time Observatory (T) equipped with instruments for the determination of time from observations of sun and stars and from European wireless time signals.

Solar Physics Observatory (Sp) equipped with photoheliograph spectro-heliograph, etc.

Auxiliary centre (C) where a Professional or Meteorological Assistant receives copies of weather reports from the forecasting centres for transmission and elucidation to pilots, adding his own remarks or conclusions about the local weather situation if and when necessary.

ORGANISATION.

It is necessary to note that practical meteorology implies a meteorological organisation, not merely individual meteorologists relying upon their own personal and purely local observations. The making of a single forecast in any of the larger meteorological offices of the world requires the co-operation of some hundreds of persons. In India some 400 observers co-operate daily to take simultaneous observations at about 300 separate places and hand in their reports to telegraphists, who transmit them to forecast centres, where, for rapid assimilation, clerks decode them and chart them on maps, meteorological experts then draw therefrom the conclusions on which their forecasts are based. There are other observatories, which take observations for climatological purposes but do not telegraph them.

An efficient system of telegraphic communication of weather reports is an essential feature in all meteorological organisations. This is recognised in the International Tele-communication Convention.

While the above is true, in general of all applications of practical meteorology, its application to aviation involves the existence of a specialised and particularly designed organisation. Aviators require detailed information about the weather; they wish to know winds at different levels, have information about visibility, fogs, dust-storms, thunderstorms, height of low clouds, etc., along with forecasts of changes in these elements. Many of these are local, short-lived and rapidly changing phenomena.

Definite recommendations regarding the nature of information to be supplied to aircraft, the exhibition of current weather information at aerodromes and the meteorological organisation of international airways have been embodied in Annex G of the International Convention of Air Navigation. In accordance with these recommendations, expert meteorologists should be stationed at aerodromes at reasonable intervals along the airway to supply to the aviation personnel current information and forecasts of weather conditions along the routes up to the next aerodrome of the same class. Forecast centres should be established at least at each main aerodrome along aerial routes and forecasts prepared at such centres should be transmitted to the other aerodromes for the information of pilots. Other recommendations refer to hours and kind of observations and manner of codifying them.

In Europe practically all observatories record and telegraph readings at least twice daily, while stations near air routes do so every three hours. In the United States of America readings are made at least twice daily at all observatories, every three hours at most observatories near air routes and every hour at observatories along air routes. In addition, every aerodrome receives by teleprinter frequent hourly reports.

* Sunrise observations at Persian stations are taken at 4 and 12 hours. Convert to Indian Standard Time. (Add 5½ hours to convert to Indian Standard Time.)

from certain stations along the air routes a few of these at half-hourly and most at hourly intervals in order that the aviators may be supplied with current up-to-date information of actual weather on the air route itself. In India*, the meteorological service for aviation is for financial reasons, not able to attain the minimum recommended in annex G of the International Convention. The net-work of observatories in India is much sparser than that in Europe and America and the frequency of observations taken at each of them much smaller. The four-thousand-mile air route between Bahrain and Victoria Point is served by two forecasting centres at Karachi and Calcutta, which prepare two synoptic charts a day based on observations taken twice daily at observatories reporting to them. The sole forecasting centre in Southern India is at Poona where facilities are available for the issue of out-forecast daily. The opening of a chain wireless stations along the route trans-India air route has enabled special meteorological facilities to be made available to aircraft flying along that route. A system of exchange of current weather reports at specified hours between stations on the route and of voluntary reports of warning of adverse weather has been introduced with the co-operation of the Director of Wrecks and the Director of Civil Aviation making it possible for each wireless station to have in a collected form the information regarding actual weather at neighbouring stations on the air-route for supply to their stations taking part in the scheme are Karachi, Jodhpur, Delhi, Allahabad, Calcutta, Chittagong, Akyah, Sandaway, Bussell, Rangoon and Victoria Point. Apart from routine observations at stated times, aircraft can obtain information of current local weather at any time by wireless, by special requisition. Further the transmission, along the wireless chain, twice daily, of the latest weather forecasts and upper wind and low cloud information for each part of the air route has been arranged. This enables the latest weather reports to be available to aircraft in flight as well as at the principal aerodromes on the route where they are displayed suitably on weather notice boards.

For the Karachi-Madras service, arrangements exist for communicating current weather information to aerodromes from a few observatories on the route to supplement the information available in the reports supplied by the forecasting centres.

In order to fulfil the various duties described above, the organisation of the department is made up of a central office, 7 sub-offices, 36 pilot balloon observatories and 128 weather observatories of various classes to distribute over a region stretching from Persia, Aden, Zanzibar on the west to Burma on the east. The central office at Poona is the administrative headquarters of the department. The control over weather observatories, including the re-

sponsibility for accuracy of records and for checking and compilation of data received from them is divided between the offices at Poona, Calcutta and Karachi. Forecasting for aviation is divided between these three offices and the office at Pondicherry and Quetta; the last two forecast for military flying and do not serve civil aviation. Storm-warning for shipping in the Bay of Bengal is carried on by the Meteorological Officer at Calcutta, while similar duties in respect of the Arabian Sea are undertaken at Poona. The Upper Air Observatory, Agra, is in administrative charge of all the pilot balloon observatories in India, Burma and the Persian Gulf. The Bombay and Allahabad Observatories specialise in the study of Geophysics, particularly terrestrial magnetism and seismology while the observatory at Kodaikanal specialises in the study of the solar physics. The next section describes in somewhat greater detail, the general duties of the offices mentioned above.

GENERAL DUTIES OF THE MAIN OBSERVATORIES AND OFFICES.

(a) Headquarters Offices, Poona (F. U. W).—The general administration of the department is carried on by the Headquarters Office in Poona. In addition, it is in immediate and complete charge of all second, third, fourth and fifth class weather observatories in Kashmir, Gujarat, Central India, the Central Provinces and the Peninsula and is responsible for the accuracy of records and checking and compilation of data received from them. It receives telegraphic reports of morning observations collected at practically all pilot balloon and first, second, third and fifth class observatories in India and issues daily a telegraphic summary of general weather conditions with forecasts of probable changes in weather during the next 24 hours for the whole country. It also takes the issue of heavy rainfall warnings for practically the whole country except north-east India, and the issue of warnings for storms in the Arabian Sea. Its duties on behalf of aviation consist in the issue of weather reports to aircraft on routes in central and southern India; for the Karachi-Madras air service, it issues forecasts for the major section viz. Ahmedabad to Madras. This office prepares and publishes the Daily, Weekly and Monthly Weather Reports, and an Annual Volume entitled the "India Weather Review," and issues two annual volumes containing rainfall data of about 3,000 stations in India. In collaboration with the Agra Observatory, it also publishes an annual volume containing all upper air data collected in India. It is responsible for the preparation of normals of rainfall, temperature, humidity, etc., for all observatories in India. It issues long-range seasonal rainfall forecasts for the country. It collects and examines weather logs from ships in the Arabian Sea. It supplies all weather observatories with instruments and stores from the stock, which it maintains.

* Fuller details of the aviation organisation are contained in the departmental pamphlet entitled "Meteorological Organisation for Aircraft."

† Classified into various classes, the number as it stood on 31st March 1934 would be distributed as follows—

W¹-15, W²-100, W³-80, W⁴-22, W⁵-24 and W⁶-15

It is also responsible for the design, specification, test and repair of all meteorological instruments. On its transfer from Simla to Poona the Headquarters Office was equipped as an upper air observatory and a first class weather observatory. It also has facilities for research in theoretical and practical meteorology. It is now one of the two main centres for the conduct of upper air research in India, sounding balloon work directed from there has been largely responsible for our present extension of knowledge of the free atmosphere over the Peninsula. Publications of meteorological research in the Department are edited and issued from Poona. This office also collects and compiles, for the International Commission the upper air data collected over India, Ceylon, Siam, Indo-China, Malaya, the Dutch East Indies, Somaliland and British East Africa.

A branch for agricultural meteorology has been sanctioned temporarily and is financed by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research. Its statistical investigations include a critical enquiry into the available data on the area and yield of crops for the various presidencies and districts in India and, after careful selection, the correlation of some of them with the accumulated meteorological data. On the experimental side, it aims to study microclimatology, evolve suitable instruments for such work, standardize methods of observations and in general undertake a detailed study of the air layer near the ground.

(b) Meteorological Office and Observatory, Alipore, Calcutta (F. P. W¹, S. T.)—The Alipore Office serves as a regional forecast centre and is responsible for the publication of the Calcutta Daily Weather Report for stormwarning in the Bay of Bengal and for heavy rainfall warning in north-east India. It issues weather reports to airmen on routes lying in Burma, Assam, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the east United Provinces, on the trans-India route, its responsibility extends over the section Allahabad to Victoria Point. To meet the needs of aviation, an afternoon chart is prepared in addition to the long established morning chart, the area of the latter being extended to meet the new needs. It has charge of all second, third, fourth and fifth class observatories, in the area comprising Burma and the Bay Islands, Assam, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the east United Provinces including the checking and computation of data therefrom. It also supplies time signals by time ball to Fort William, by wireless to shipping at sea and by telegraphic signal throughout the Indian telegraph and railway systems. It is also a first class weather observatory, pilot balloon observatory and seismological station.

(c) Karachi (F. W¹ P. A.)—This office was established primarily as a forecasting centre for aviation. It now issues weather reports for airmen on routes lying along the Persian Gulf and Mikan coasts and in Sind, Rajputana, the Punjab, west United Provinces and north Gujarat. On the empire and international air route across India its responsibility extends over the section between Bushire or Bahrain on the west and Allahabad on the east.

The forecasting office is temporarily located in Karachi Cantonment and will be transferred to Drigh Road Civil Aerodrome when buildings are provided there. Meanwhile, a first class weather observatory and pilot balloon station have been started at Drigh Road.

The Karachi Office administers all second, third, fourth and fifth class observatories in Persia and Arabia, Baluchistan, the North-West Frontier Province, the Punjab, Sind, Rajputana and the west United Provinces. As the basis of the weather reports and forecasts issued to aviators, it prepares two weather charts daily drawn up mainly from observations received from the observatories under its own control. A daily weather report is also being published, as an experimental measure.

(d) Upper Air Observatory, Agra (U. W¹ S.)—Agra Observatory is the headquarters of all pilot balloon work in India. It is responsible for the maintenance and supervision of the work of the pilot balloon observatories in India, Burma and the Persian Gulf and supplies them with the equipment necessary to carry on their daily observations, these duties have necessitated the provision of a hydrogen factory to make hydrogen gas and compress it into tubes, as well as the provision of a workshop for the design, manufacture and repair of instruments, principally for upper air work. All data from pilot balloon observatories are collected, checked, and statistically summarised at Agra. This observatory is also a principal centre of upper air research work in India. The sounding balloon work there (in the course of which balloons have provided information of conditions up to as great a height as 90,000 feet) has been responsible for most of our present knowledge regarding the free atmosphere over India. There is a seismological station attached to this observatory.

(e) Colaba and Alibag Observatories (W¹, S. T. M.)—These observatories specialise in the study of geophysics, particularly terrestrial magnetism and seismology, and in addition carry on the duties of a first class weather observatory. The routine magnetic work at Alibag, as well as the publication of the magnetic data, is arranged in accordance with the recommendations of the International Commission for Terrestrial Magnetism. The observatories take star or sun observations for the determination of time; and the Colaba Observatory is responsible for the time-ball service at the Bombay Harbour and the rating of chronometers belonging to the Royal Indian Navy. In recent years researches on atmospheric electricity and micrometeors in relation to meteorological phenomena over the sea have also been undertaken there.

(f) Kodaikanal (Sp. W¹ S.)—The observatory at Kodaikanal specialises in the study of the physics of the sun and is specially equipped for spectroscopic observations and research. The routine work is directed in accordance with the recommendations of the International Astronomical Union. At present any serious overlapping of work is the

Normal Monthly and Annual Maximum Temperature in Shade at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year.
HILL STATIONS.														
* Shillong
Darjeeling
..	4,920	60.6	62.5	70.0	73.3	74.0	74.4	75.3	74.9	74.4	71.4	66.6	61.6	69.9
..	7,482	47.3	48.9	56.5	62.5	64.6	66.2	66.8	66.5	65.4	61.7	55.6	49.4	59.3
Himala
..	7,232	46.4	46.8	55.2	64.6	72.1	73.1	68.9	60.7	65.8	62.7	56.0	49.8	60.7
..	6,181	40.5	47.1	56.8	66.1	75.8	81.4	76.8	73.8	72.9	68.5	60.0	51.5	64.7
..
..	5,204	40.7	43.6	55.1	65.0	75.8	83.0	85.7	84.9	79.0	70.4	60.5	47.4	66.1
..	3,913	66.0	67.8	76.7	84.3	88.0	83.4	75.4	72.1	75.2	79.0	73.0	68.2	75.8
* Ootacamund
..	7,327	65.0	67.4	70.0	71.7	70.2	64.3	62.1	62.9	64.4	64.6	63.0	64.8	66.0
* Kodakann
..	7,688	63.7	66.2	69.2	70.2	69.4	65.3	63.2	63.5	63.8	63.0	61.2	62.3	65.1
COAST STATIONS.														
Karachi
..	13	76.1	77.0	81.8	84.8	88.9	90.7	83.4	85.5	85.7	87.0	85.0	78.2	84.2
..	10	81.0	81.5	84.9	85.9	86.2	80.1	83.8	82.3	83.5	88.7	88.7	84.1	84.3
Bombay
..	37	82.9	82.0	85.8	88.6	90.8	88.3	85.1	84.9	85.3	85.7	89.2	86.4	86.6
..	207	87.2	83.8	87.1	89.4	90.8	80.7	83.9	83.0	84.1	88.1	90.0	89.2	87.2
Mangalore
..	72	80.2	88.5	80.7	91.3	91.2	85.3	84.0	83.6	81.3	85.9	87.6	88.9	87.5
..	97	87.2	88.1	89.8	90.3	89.0	84.3	82.1	82.5	83.8	85.7	86.0	86.0	86.4
..	31	82.5	83.1	88.9	92.7	97.5	97.7	95.9	94.0	92.6	88.8	84.6	82.1	90.2
..	52	84.5	80.8	80.8	93.1	98.5	99.0	95.9	94.2	93.1	89.4	85.2	83.4	91.1
..	15	83.4	86.6	91.0	91.6	90.7	98.1	92.7	91.4	90.8	80.0	85.3	83.1	90.5
..	56	80.3	83.3	80.8	87.9	90.1	89.6	87.7	87.6	88.1	83.0	83.7	79.9	86.1
..	18	88.0	92.3	95.9	93.0	91.7	86.1	85.3	85.0	86.9	87.0	87.5	87.1	89.3

* As the average mean figures for Shillong, Ootacamund and Kodakann are not available, means of normal maximum and minimum temperatures uncorrected for diurnal variation are given.

Normal Monthly and Annual Maximum Temperature in shade at Selected Stations in India.

Stations	Elevation in feet	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year.
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS.														
Tonkoo	159	84.4	90.2	97.2	100.3	95.7	89.0	86.0	86.8	89.0	89.8	86.8	83.1	83.9
Mandalay	250	84.5	90.3	98.1	102.4	99.8	94.8	94.7	93.2	93.1	92.0	87.7	83.5	92.8
Silchar	96	77.0	80.5	85.9	87.7	88.7	89.3	90.0	89.6	89.8	88.2	83.0	79.6	80.1
Calcutta	21	77.5	82.3	91.0	95.6	94.6	91.3	88.6	87.8	87.8	87.1	82.2	77.0	86.9
Burdwan	99	78.7	83.3	93.1	99.6	97.6	93.0	90.1	89.2	89.7	88.9	87.6	77.1	89.8
Patna	183	72.7	77.5	89.3	99.0	99.7	95.7	90.3	89.1	89.7	88.4	81.7	73.1	87.3
Banars	267	74.3	79.5	91.6	102.1	103.0	100.1	92.2	89.7	90.0	90.5	82.9	73.1	89.5
Allahabad	303	74.1	79.6	91.9	102.8	106.6	102.1	92.8	90.0	91.3	91.1	83.1	71.7	89.1
Lucknow	308	73.7	78.1	90.0	101.3	104.8	101.1	92.1	90.6	91.8	91.1	83.7	73.6	89.7
Agra	556	72.9	77.7	89.7	100.8	106.3	101.1	91.8	92.0	91.0	90.3	81.6	73.4	89.3
Masrut	733	69.9	74.3	85.9	97.7	103.1	101.3	93.4	91.1	91.8	90.3	81.6	73.9	87.8
Delhi	718	70.0	74.6	86.0	97.9	104.0	103.1	91.9	92.4	93.0	91.6	82.2	73.0	89.6
Lahore	702	68.5	73.1	83.7	95.7	101.0	107.1	100.6	97.7	97.9	91.5	83.3	73.3	89.8
Multan	426	69.9	71.1	85.3	97.3	106.6	109.1	104.1	101.9	100.1	93.9	81.3	73.1	91.7
Jacobabad	180	73.2	78.3	90.6	100.0	112.1	111.1	108.7	104.6	107.6	99.1	87.1	75.2	93.7
Hyderabad (Sind)	96	70.2	80.8	92.3	101.6	107.0	101.3	99.2	93.7	97.2	97.9	85.6	73.6	93.3
Bikaner	762	72.0	76.3	88.7	99.0	107.1	107.3	101.1	97.8	98.2	93.1	87.1	73.3	92.1
Rajkote	428	83.6	86.3	94.3	101.7	105.1	99.7	91.3	88.9	91.7	95.6	80.9	68.6	92.9
Ahmedabad	163	81.8	87.8	96.9	101.3	107.4	101.3	93.1	90.0	92.9	97.3	82.0	69.1	91.6
PLATEAU STATIONS														
Akola	925	83.9	90.3	99.8	105.0	108.0	98.8	89.1	87.2	89.3	92.1	83.1	71.4	97.2
Jubbulpore	1,327	77.5	81.6	91.8	100.8	105.1	97.8	89.7	84.6	87.2	87.7	77.0	77.0	88.3
Nagpore	1,017	83.5	88.7	97.1	104.8	108.6	99.0	89.1	86.9	89.0	90.0	77.0	71.7	92.0
Bangur	970	81.4	86.1	95.1	103.0	106.8	97.1	86.9	83.2	89.0	90.4	77.3	70.3	90.2
Ahmednagar	2,151	81.1	89.1	91.8	99.7	101.3	92.0	85.6	84.0	86.2	89.0	77.7	68.1	89.0
Poona	1,846	86.1	90.0	97.1	101.1	99.7	89.6	85.8	81.7	81.6	89.1	80.8	68.1	89.6
Sholapur	1,500	87.1	92.9	99.6	101.1	104.3	95.0	89.4	85.9	83.0	89.0	77.3	68.1	92.8
Belgaum	2,562	83.5	88.3	93.7	96.0	99.1	89.1	79.1	76.3	79.3	82.3	77.3	68.1	94.6
Hyderabad (Deccan)	1,719	81.2	86.7	96.7	101.2	104.1	94.5	87.6	81.8	86.4	88.4	77.3	68.1	90.4
Bangalore	7,021	80.8	86.2	91.1	93.5	91.7	81.9	82.2	82.0	82.1	82.1	77.3	68.1	91.6
Delhury	1,475	89.1	94.1	100.3	103.6	102.1	91.0	81.2	80.0	80.7	80.4	77.3	68.1	93.3

Normal Monthly and Annual Minimum Temperature in Shade at Selected Stations in India.

Stations	Eleva- tion in feet	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec.	Year.
HILL STATIONS														
Shillong		30.2	42.2	50.8	56.3	58.8	63.0	64.3	68.7	61.7	54.8	40.5	30.7	53.4
Dunfelling		35.1	36.1	42.3	48.4	52.3	56.5	58.0	57.0	65.0	50.1	42.8	36.7	47.7
Shimla		35.0	35.0	43.4	51.0	58.1	60.7	60.2	59.3	50.0	51.3	44.7	39.3	49.7
Mussoorie		34.0	34.1	42.1	50.7	59.3	64.3	62.4	60.0	58.0	53.4	45.6	38.0	50.1
Sahargarh		27.1	28.7	37.2	44.0	51.8	58.3	64.4	63.7	54.2	41.1	31.7	27.0	44.2
Mount Abu		61.3	53.2	61.1	68.4	71.1	68.5	60.0	64.4	64.3	64.6	58.1	52.9	62.0
Dahanu		13.0	44.0	47.8	51.5	52.4	52.3	52.0	51.7	51.1	50.5	48.0	44.3	49.1
Kodakum		16.0	47.5	50.5	53.5	54.6	53.0	52.6	52.3	52.2	51.3	49.4	47.6	51.0
COAST STATIONS.														
Karachi		58.1	61.1	67.0	73.8	78.7	81.2	80.0	78.1	70.5	73.3	66.3	59.2	71.4
Port Blair		50.8	60.0	65.5	72.2	78.6	81.2	79.7	78.0	70.5	72.8	67.8	62.3	71.3
Pondicherry		66.7	67.2	71.0	75.7	79.3	78.3	75.0	75.0	73.5	73.4	72.8	68.3	73.6
Mangalore		69.0	72.1	75.1	78.3	78.5	71.5	71.1	74.0	71.1	74.1	73.4	70.1	74.1
Chennai		70.5	72.0	70.0	78.3	78.3	75.2	74.1	71.4	74.5	74.8	73.8	71.1	74.5
Madras		71.4	72.7	70.0	79.3	80.1	79.3	78.3	77.5	70.8	70.2	71.3	72.0	76.2
Calcutta		67.8	68.7	72.3	77.3	81.2	81.1	78.9	77.7	77.2	73.2	72.5	69.0	75.0
Coimbatore		65.8	68.0	72.4	77.0	81.2	80.5	78.2	77.7	77.5	73.0	71.3	66.5	74.3
Bombay		62.3	67.1	73.1	77.1	80.1	80.4	79.2	78.9	78.5	71.7	67.3	61.0	73.6
Rangoon		64.9	66.5	71.2	76.1	77.2	76.1	75.8	75.8	76.0	73.8	72.7	67.1	73.0

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Normal Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Eleva- tion in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year.
HILL STATIONS														
Shillong	..	0.33	1.20	1.03	5.38	10.57	10.37	14.48	14.36	10.73	6.80	1.58	0.19	83.92
Darjeeling	..	0.55	1.10	1.84	3.85	8.70	24.20	32.31	26.12	18.38	4.54	0.78	0.24	122.67
Simla	..	2.71	3.13	2.07	1.04	2.87	7.13	10.88	17.33	6.20	1.08	0.52	1.11	63.57
Muree	..	3.73	4.14	4.87	4.21	2.87	3.86	11.81	14.88	5.61	1.50	0.77	1.57	59.85
Brinagar	..	2.76	2.73	3.03	3.79	2.27	1.48	2.32	2.33	1.00	1.00	0.43	1.44	25.87
Mount Abu	..	0.26	0.28	0.17	0.13	1.06	5.22	21.07	22.31	8.06	0.90	0.10	0.12	60.76
Ootacamund	..	1.51	0.58	1.21	2.65	0.61	0.55	8.83	5.59	6.17	8.17	5.70	1.81	55.50
Kodalkanal	..	2.83	1.41	2.03	1.25	0.02	4.00	5.02	6.99	7.25	9.68	8.17	4.42	62.18
COAST STATIONS.														
Karachi	..	0.52	0.39	0.33	0.17	0.07	0.86	2.01	1.07	0.42	0.01	0.04	0.11	7.50
Veraval	..	0.03	0.05	0.07	0.00	0.31	1.17	6.85	3.70	2.31	0.65	0.10	0.08	18.80
Bombay	..	0.10	0.08	0.07	0.03	0.81	18.31	21.26	13.80	10.50	2.16	0.41	0.05	70.63
Ratnagiri	..	0.10	0.05	0.01	0.08	1.36	28.82	32.98	10.71	12.08	3.72	0.93	0.08	99.08
Mangalore	..	0.00	0.06	0.08	1.28	6.20	36.78	37.11	22.51	10.42	7.53	3.12	0.50	125.68
Calicut	..	0.40	0.10	0.17	3.28	8.53	31.08	30.21	15.48	7.73	10.22	5.38	1.00	117.16
Nagapatam	..	1.68	0.61	0.31	0.57	1.61	1.20	1.80	1.50	3.77	10.18	17.72	11.40	51.98
Madras	..	1.30	0.32	0.10	0.63	1.07	1.89	3.91	1.61	1.90	11.72	11.26	5.81	60.71
Mankulam	..	0.23	0.12	0.28	0.02	1.31	1.51	6.41	6.91	6.20	8.10	5.07	0.87	11.59
Chennai	..	0.21	0.09	0.51	0.79	1.07	5.82	6.88	7.75	7.51	9.61	1.02	0.71	11.96
Bombay	..	0.21	0.22	0.32	1.03	11.98	18.04	21.12	19.87	15.27	6.91	2.79	0.37	70.07
For elevation kindly see table of maximum temperature normals.														
Karachi	..	0.52	0.39	0.33	0.17	0.07	0.86	2.01	1.07	0.42	0.01	0.04	0.11	7.50
Veraval	..	0.03	0.05	0.07	0.00	0.31	1.17	6.85	3.70	2.31	0.65	0.10	0.08	18.80
Bombay	..	0.10	0.08	0.07	0.03	0.81	18.31	21.26	13.80	10.50	2.16	0.41	0.05	70.63
Ratnagiri	..	0.10	0.05	0.01	0.08	1.36	28.82	32.98	10.71	12.08	3.72	0.93	0.08	99.08
Mangalore	..	0.00	0.06	0.08	1.28	6.20	36.78	37.11	22.51	10.42	7.53	3.12	0.50	125.68
Calicut	..	0.40	0.10	0.17	3.28	8.53	31.08	30.21	15.48	7.73	10.22	5.38	1.00	117.16
Nagapatam	..	1.68	0.61	0.31	0.57	1.61	1.20	1.80	1.50	3.77	10.18	17.72	11.40	51.98
Madras	..	1.30	0.32	0.10	0.63	1.07	1.89	3.91	1.61	1.90	11.72	11.26	5.81	60.71
Mankulam	..	0.23	0.12	0.28	0.02	1.31	1.51	6.41	6.91	6.20	8.10	5.07	0.87	11.59
Chennai	..	0.21	0.09	0.51	0.79	1.07	5.82	6.88	7.75	7.51	9.61	1.02	0.71	11.96
Bombay	..	0.21	0.22	0.32	1.03	11.98	18.04	21.12	19.87	15.27	6.91	2.79	0.37	70.07

Normal Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year.
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS.													
Bombay	0.30	0.18	0.93	1.86	7.77	11.11	17.61	19.17	13.08	7.49	1.82	0.46	82.06
Madras	0.05	0.03	0.10	1.10	6.40	6.62	9.30	1.60	6.74	1.72	1.03	0.39	39.10
Shimla	0.84	2.12	7.91	11.39	15.50	11.60	10.71	10.75	14.11	0.53	1.40	0.30	121.03
Calcutta	0.31	1.10	1.14	1.80	6.76	11.90	12.71	12.09	8.87	1.10	0.06	0.20	67.81
Bardwan	0.30	1.43	1.07	2.11	6.10	10.21	12.57	11.70	8.00	3.13	0.80	0.13	65.03
Patna	0.29	0.71	0.47	0.40	1.02	8.12	11.91	19.82	8.39	2.53	0.34	0.09	18.53
Benares	0.07	0.00	0.30	0.14	0.61	4.09	11.61	11.61	7.12	2.35	0.30	0.21	10.55
Allahabad	0.70	0.58	0.31	0.15	0.04	1.06	11.71	11.70	6.07	2.32	0.30	0.24	30.00
Lucknow	0.77	0.05	0.35	0.20	1.01	1.17	11.16	10.80	7.07	1.18	0.10	0.28	38.67
Agra	0.54	0.18	0.35	0.31	0.17	2.46	9.12	8.16	1.05	0.70	0.12	0.27	20.00
Alwar	1.28	0.88	0.02	0.13	0.06	3.14	9.09	8.00	0.07	0.20	0.16	0.41	31.00
Delhi	1.01	0.70	0.02	0.30	0.68	2.00	7.53	7.12	1.78	0.32	0.11	0.40	26.31
Jaipur	1.05	0.01	0.80	0.51	0.70	1.04	5.14	9.23	2.30	0.25	0.07	0.30	19.02
Amritsar	0.12	0.30	0.18	0.37	0.32	0.02	2.02	1.04	0.11	0.03	0.07	0.32	7.50
Jalandhar	0.20	0.32	0.21	0.30	0.14	0.20	0.84	0.94	0.04	0.01	0.07	0.13	3.63
Hyderabad (Sind)	0.20	0.27	0.21	0.05	0.20	0.15	2.85	2.12	0.60	0.02	0.00	0.00	7.12
Bikaner	0.24	0.28	0.20	0.27	0.72	1.15	3.10	3.17	1.47	0.20	0.01	0.18	11.20
Rajkot	0.04	0.10	0.07	0.63	0.17	1.31	10.00	5.71	3.73	0.05	0.23	0.01	20.20
Ahmedabad	0.02	0.12	0.04	0.03	0.13	1.33	11.23	8.00	3.73	0.50	0.16	0.03	28.84
PLAINT STATIONS.													
Akola	0.36	0.20	0.37	0.10	0.10	5.34	0.27	0.12	5.09	1.57	0.43	0.00	31.15
Jubbulpore	0.80	0.82	0.67	0.26	0.63	7.32	17.02	10.80	7.07	1.81	0.57	0.20	65.11
Nagpur	0.12	0.00	0.62	0.64	0.43	4.00	13.81	11.11	9.23	2.10	0.71	0.54	48.07
Itanagar	0.20	0.35	0.00	0.01	1.00	0.01	13.81	11.73	7.12	2.12	0.40	0.21	50.25
Ahmednagar	0.20	0.17	0.10	0.31	0.01	1.82	3.75	2.10	0.10	2.03	0.03	0.11	22.82
Poona	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	1.20	1.77	7.01	5.00	1.81	3.71	0.04	0.10	27.11
Sholapur	0.15	0.00	0.10	0.11	1.03	4.02	1.52	1.87	7.03	2.24	1.06	0.46	28.45
Belgaum	0.15	0.03	0.37	1.00	2.10	8.11	10.12	9.07	1.98	4.57	1.74	0.37	50.13
Hydrabad (Deccan)	0.31	0.30	0.22	1.03	1.04	4.56	4.10	0.50	7.01	3.25	1.10	0.10	35.27
Bangalore	0.26	0.17	0.50	1.33	4.40	2.80	4.10	6.34	0.68	5.00	2.01	0.48	35.37
Bellary	0.11	0.10	0.20	0.70	1.00	1.87	1.95	2.30	5.09	3.00	2.10	0.11	20.51

For elevation of station in feet, see table of elevations in the margin.

MONSOON OF 1934.

The S W Monsoon of the year was markedly normal in its incidence and gave well-distributed rains all over the country throughout the season without any abnormally prolonged break. Of the fifteen Divisions of the country, all were well served except Mysore which returned a deficiency of 43 per cent in its rainfall.

June.—Indications of the approach of the monsoon current over the South Arabian Sea were evident early in the month. Its regular incidence however on the Malabar Coast, occurred on the 8th June—later than the usual date—after which the current steadily advanced northwards along the West Coast. A shallow depression formed on the 10th June off the Karwar-Konkan coast which moving northwards in front of the advancing monsoon, helped to carry vast volumes of moist air inland well into the Deccan, Central India, and parts of Northwest India, and provoke in these regions widespread local thunder showers. Though regular monsoon conditions were not fully established there before the 3rd week of the month, this branch of the current gave good rains over its field of action—normal in the Peninsula and in excess of the normal in Northwest India and Central India.

The Bay monsoon current advanced over the south of the Bay of Bengal about the last week of May and caused widespread rains in Lower Burma. Though by the end of the second week in June the current extended into Assam and Bengal, it remained feeble on the whole over its field of action right upto the end of the third week. Two depressions which formed at the head of the Bay in the 1st week invigorated the current, and extending the monsoon into Bihar and Orissa, gave normal rainfall for the month in Burma and Northeast India. The depressions were also responsible for heavy rains in the Assam Hills, which raised severe floods in the Brahmaputra River and caused damage to life and property in some of the riverside districts of Assam and southeast Bengal. Averaged over the plains of India the total fall for the month was 9.09 inches, 4 per cent in excess.

July.—Under the influence of two Bay depressions—one which had formed at the end of the previous month, and moving northwards filled up over the central parts of the country about the 4th July, and the other which formed about the 7th July and disappeared over Bihar and north Bengal on the 10th July—the monsoon maintained its activity during the period practically over the whole country except in the south of the Peninsula. Thereafter, though the Bay current continued active in Burma, southeast Bengal, and in the hills and submontane regions from Assam to east Punjab, the Arabian Sea current weakened over the Peninsula and central and northwest India. In the third week a low pressure wave which crossed over from Burma over the north of the Bay into Chota Nagpur and Orissa, strengthened, both the branches of the monsoon

and caused good rainfall all over the country except in northwest India. The current remained active during the last week over the Peninsula and in upper Burma, and from Assam to the east and north Punjab. The total rainfall for the month was 11.89 inches—practically normal.

August.—During the first three weeks the monsoon continued to remain active practically over the whole country except in the northwest, under the influence of four successive depressions—the first of which appeared over east Central Province on the 2nd August and moving northwards disappeared over the United Provinces on the 6th, the second which formed at the head of the Bay on the 6th and filled up over the west Central Province on the 12th, the third which rising off the Orissa-Ganjam coast on the 14th and moving northwards broke up in the Kumaon hills on the 20th, and the fourth which formed at the head of the Bay on the 19th and traversing the country northwards filled up over north Rajasthan on the 26th. Widespread and heavy rains were gathered all along and in the neighbourhood of the tracks of these disturbances. Averaged over the plains of India the total rainfall for the month was 13.25 inches, 21 per cent in excess of the normal.

September.—The Bay monsoon remained active throughout the month. A depression rising off the Orissa-Circars coast on the 6th September which moved northwards and filled up over the east United Province on the 11th, was responsible for strong monsoon in Lower Burma, central parts of the country, east Rajasthan and east United Province. The movement westwards of a low pressure wave from Burma over the Bay resulted in the formation of a shallow depression off the Chittagong-Arakan coast on the 17th. It developed later into a storm which traversed the country westnorthwards and filled up over the west Central Province on the 23rd. Though the Bay monsoon weakened thereafter, it gave fairly widespread rains right upto the end of the month over its own field of action. In the Peninsula the monsoon current remained markedly feeble during most days of the month, and withdrew from northwest India about the middle of the month. Averaged over the plains of India the total fall for the month was 8.11 inches, 9 per cent in excess of the normal.

October.—The chief features of the month were the early recession of the monsoon from the Peninsula, northeast India, and Burma on the 7th October, and occurrence all over the country of thunder storms with heavy rains, which are usually associated with post-monsoon transitions of the S W and N E winds. The total rainfall for the month averaged over the plains of India was 3.50 inches, 2 per cent in excess.

The total rainfall for the season—June to September—averaged over the plains of India was 42.9 inches, 9 per cent in excess of the normal. The following table gives detailed information of the seasonal rainfall of the period.

DIVISIONS	RAINFALL, JUNE TO SEPTEMBER, 1934.			
	Actual	Normal	Departure from Normal	Percentage Departure from Normal
	Inches	Inches	Inches	
India	90.1	86.5	+ 3.6	+ 4
Assam	61.7	61.1	+ 0.6	+ 1
Bengal	57.2	60.6	— 3.4	— 6
Bihar and Orissa	42.9	45.1	— 2.2	— 5
Central Provinces	39.1	36.1	+ 3.0	+ 8
Madhya Pradesh	15.1	14.1	+ 1.0	+ 9
North Central Provinces	1.3	4.9	— 3.6	— 75
Punjab	7.3	4.7	+ 2.6	+ 55
Rajasthan	27.5	18.1	+ 9.4	+ 52
Sindh	58.8	33.8	+ 25.0	+ 75
United Provinces	19.6	33.8	— 14.2	— 42
West Bengal	54.6	40.8	+ 13.8	+ 34
Madras	25.1	26.2	— 1.1	— 4
Northern Circars	5.6	15.5	— 9.9	— 64
Coastal Provinces	22.2	26.0	— 3.8	— 15
Total	42.9	39.5	+ 3.4	+ 9

Famine.

To the student of Indian administration nothing is more remarkable than the manner in which great problems arise, produce a corresponding outburst of official activity to meet them and then fall into the background. This general truth is illustrated by a study of the history of famine in India. For nearly forty years it was the bogey of the Indian administrator. The forecasts of the rains were studied with acute anxiety. The actual progress of the rains was followed with no less anxiety, and at the first signs of a bad or poor season the famine relief machinery was furnished up and prepared for any emergency. The reason for this is clear if we examine for a brief space the economic condition of the Indian peasantry. Nearly three-quarters of the people are directly dependent on agriculture for their daily bread. Very much of this agriculture is dependent on the seasonal rains for its existence. Immense areas in the Bombay Presidency, Madras, the United Provinces and Central India are in a region of erratic and uncertain rainfall. The rainy season is short and if for any natural reason there is a weakness, or absence, of the rain-bearing currents, then there is either a poor harvest or no harvest at all. In Western lands everyone is acquainted with the difference between a good and a poor season, but western countries offer no parallel to India, where in an exceptionally bad year wide tracts of thickly populated land may not produce even a blade of grass. In the old days there were no railways to distribute the surplus of one part of India to the districts where the crop had failed. There were often no roads. The irrigation works were few and were themselves generally dependent on the rainfall for their reserves. The people lived from hand to mouth and had no store of food to fall back upon. Nor had they any credit. In the old days then they died. Commencing with the Orissa famine in 1865-67 the Government of India assumed responsibility for the saving of human life in such crises. After the famine of 1899-1900 this responsibility was also shouldered by the Indian States. Stage by stage this responsibility was expressed in the evolution of a remarkable system of famine relief covering the whole field. But now that machinery has reached a remarkable degree of perfection, it is rusting in the official armouries, because the conditions have changed. The whole of India is covered with a network of railways, which distributes the produce of the soil to the centres where food is required. The extension of irrigation has enormously increased the product of the soil and rendered large areas much less dependent on the monsoon rainfall. At the same time the scientific study of the problems of Indian agriculture has raised the capacity of even the "dry" zones. The peasantry has accumulated a certain reserve against the rainless days from the prosperity which accompanied the period of high prices. The rapid spread of the co-operative credit movement has mobilised and strengthened rural credit. The spread of manufacturing enterprise has

lightened the pressure on the soil. The relation of famine to the question of Indian administration has therefore changed. In an exceptionally bad year it may create administrative difficulties; it has ceased to be an administrative and social problem.

Famine under Native Rule.

Famines were frequent under Native rule, and frightful when they came. "In 1630," says Sir William Hunter, in the *History of British India*, "a calamity fell upon Gujarat which enables us to realise the terrible meaning of the word famine in India under Native rule. Whole cities and districts were left bare of inhabitants." In 1631 a Dutch merchant reported that only eleven of the 260 families at Svally survived. He found the road thence to Surat covered with bodies decaying on the highway where they died, there being none to bury them. In Surat, that great and crowded city, he could hardly see any living persons, but "the corpses at the corner of the streets lie twenty together, nobody burying them. Thirty thousand had perished in the town alone. Pestilence followed famine." Further historical evidence was adduced by Sir Theodore Morrison in his volume on the *Economic Transition of India*. It has come to be seen that whilst railways have checked the old-fashioned practice of storing grain in the villages they have made the reserves, where they exist, available for the whole of India. In India there is now no such thing as a food famine; the country always produces enough food for the whole of the population; famine when it comes is a money famine and the task of the State is confined to providing the means for those affected by drought to earn enough to buy food. The machinery whereby this is done will be examined after we have seen the experiences through which it was evolved.

History of Recent Famines.

The Orissa famine of 1865-67 may be taken as the starting point because that induced to first great and organised effort to combat distress through State agency. It affected 160,000 square miles and 47,500,000 people. The British Government was a little slow in appreciating the need for action, but late food was poured into the district in prodigious quantities. Thirty-five million units were relieved (a unit is one person supported for one day) at a cost of £1,111,111. The mortality was very heavy, and it is estimated that a million people or one-third of the population, died in Orissa alone. This was followed by the Madras famine of 1876, and the famine in Western India of 1879-80. The latter famine introduced India to the great migration from Marwar which was such a distinguishing feature of the famine of 1899-1900; it is estimated that out of a total population of a million and a half in Marwar, one million emigrated. There was famine in Bihar in 1873-74, then came the great

South Indian Famine of 1876-78. This affected Madras, Mysore, Hyderabad and Bombay for two years and in the second year extended to parts of the Central and United Provinces and to a small tract in the Punjab. The total area affected was 257,000 square miles and the population 58,500,000. Warned by the excessive expenditure in Behar and actuated by the desire to secure economy the Government relief programme was not entirely successful. The excess mortality in this famine is said to have been 5,250,000 in British territory alone. Throughout British India 700,000,000 units were relieved at a cost of Rs. 3½ crores. Charitable contributions from Great Britain and the Colonies aggregated Rs. 84 lakhs.

The Famine Codes.

The experiences of this famine showed the necessity of placing relief on an organised basis. The first great Famine Commission which sat under the presidency of Sir Richard Strachey, elaborated the Famine Codes, which amended to meet later experience, form the basis of the famine relief system to-day. They recommended (1) that employment should be given on the relief works to the able-bodied, at a wage sufficient for support, on the condition of performing a suitable task; and (2) that gratuitous relief should be given in their villages or in poor houses to those who are unable to work. They recommended that the food supply should be left to private agency, except where that was unequal to the demands upon it. They advised that the land-owning classes should be assisted by loans, and by general suspensions of revenue in proportion to the crop failure. In sending a Famine Code to the provincial governments, the Government of India laid down as the cardinal feature of their policy that the famine wage "is the lowest amount sufficient to maintain health under given circumstances. Whilst the duty of Government is to save life, it is not bound to maintain the labouring population at its normal level of comfort." Provincial codes were drawn up, and were tested by the famine of 1896-97. In that 307,000 square miles were affected, with a population of 69,500,000. The numbers relieved exceeded 4,000,000 at the time of greatest distress. The cost of famine relief was Rs. 7½ crores, revenue was remitted to the extent of Rs. 1½ crore, and loans given aggregating Rs. 1½ crore. The charitable relief fund amounted to about Rs. 1½ crore, of which Rs. 1½ crore was subscribed in the United Kingdom. The actual famine mortality in British India was estimated at 750,000. The experiences of this famine were examined by a Commission under Sir James Lyall, which reported that the success attained in saving life and the relief of distress was greater than had ever been recorded in famines, comparable with it in severity, and that the expense was moderate. But before the Local Governments had been given time to digest the proposals of this Commission or the people to recover from the shock, the great famine of 1899-1900 supervened.

The Famine of 1899-1900

This famine affected 475,000 square miles with a population of 59,500,000. In the Central

Provinces, Berar, Bombay, Ajmer, and the Hissar district of the Punjab famine was acute; it was intense in Rajputana, Baroda, Central India, Hyderabad and Kathiawar. It was marked by several distinctive features. The rainfall over the whole of India was in extreme defect, being eleven inches below the mean. In several localities there was practically no rain. There was in consequence a great fodder famine, with a terrible mortality amongst the cattle. The water supply was deficient, and brought a crop of difficulties in its train. Then districts like Gujarat, where famine had been unknown for so many years that the locality was thought to be famine immune, were affected; the people here being softened by prosperity, clung to their villages, in the hope of saving their cattle, and came within the scope of the relief works when it was too late to save life. A very large area in the Indian States was affected, and the Marwaris swept from their impoverished land right through Central India like a horde of locusts, leaving desolation in their train. For these reasons relief had to be given on an unprecedented scale. At the end of July 4,500,000 persons were supported by the State, Rs. 10 crores were spent on relief, and the total cost was estimated at Rs. 15 crores. The famine was also marked by a widespread acceptance by Indian States of the duty hitherto shouldered by the Government of India alone—the supreme responsibility of saving human life. Aided by loans to the extent of Rs. 3½ crores, the Indian States did a great deal to bring their administration into line with that in British India. Although actual deaths from starvation were insignificant, the extensive outbreaks of cholera, and the devastating epidemic of malaria which followed the advent of the rains induced a famine mortality of approximately a million. The experiences of this famine were collated by the Commission presided over by Sir Antony MacDonnell. This Commission reported that taking the famine period as a whole the relief given was excessive, and laid down certain modified lines. The cardinal feature of their policy was moral strategy. Pointing out that if the people were assisted at the start they would help themselves, whilst if their condition were allowed to deteriorate it proceeded on a declining scale, they placed in the forefront of their programme the necessity of "putting heart into the people." The machinery suggested for this purpose was the prompt and liberal distribution of taccavi loans, the early suspension of revenue, and a policy of prudent boldness, starting from the preparation of a large and expansive plan of relief and secured by liberal preparations, constant vigilance, and a full enlistment of non-official help. The wage scale was revised; the minimum wage was abolished in the case of able-bodied workers; payments by results were recommended, and proposals were made for saving cattle.

The modern system.

The Government of India are now in possession of complete machinery to combat the effects of drought. In ordinary times Government is kept informed of the meteorological

conditions and the state of the crops programmes of suitable relief works are kept up-to-date, the country is mapped into relief circles, reserves of tools and plant are stocked. If the rains fail, policy is at once declared, non-officials are enlisted, revenue suspended and loans for agricultural purposes made. Test works are then opened, and if labour in considerable quantities is attracted, they are converted into relief works on Code principles. Poor houses are opened and gratuitous relief given to the infirm. On the advent of the rains the people are moved from the large works to small works near their villages, liberal advances are made to agriculturists for the purchase of plough, cattle and seed. When the principal autumn crop is ripe, the few remaining works are gradually closed and gratuitous relief ceases. All this time the medical staff is kept in readiness to deal with cholera which so often accompanies famine, and malaria, which generally supervenes when the rains break.

Famine Protection

Side by side with the perfection of the machinery for the relief of famine has gone the development of famine protection. The Famine Commission of 1880 stated that the best, and often the only means of securing protection from the extreme effects of famine and drought, are railways and irrigation. These are of two classes, productive and protective. Productive works being estimated to yield profits which will pay interest and sinking fund charges are met from loans; protective works, which do not pay, directly from revenue. In order to guarantee that there should be continuous progress with protective works, the Famine Insurance Grant was instituted in 1876. It was decided to set apart from the general revenues Rs 1½ crores annually or one million sterling. The first charge on this grant is famine relief, the second protective works, the third the avoidance of debt. The chain of protective railways is now practically complete. Great progress is being made with protective irrigation. Acting on the advice of the Irrigation Commission an elaborate programme of protective irrigation works has been constructed, particularly in the Bombay Deccan—the most famine-susceptible district in India—and in the Central Provinces.

Under the Statutory Rules framed under the Government of India Act of 1919, Provincial Governments (except Burma and Assam) are required to contribute from their resources a fixed sum every year for expenditure on famine. These annual assignments can be expended on relief of famine only, the sum not required for this purpose is utilised in building up a Famine Relief Fund. The Fund provides, as its main and primary object, for expenditure on Famine Relief proper, the word "Famine" being held to cover famine due to drought or other natural calamities. The balance at the credit of the Fund is regarded as invested with the Governor-General in Council and is available for expenditure on famine, when necessary and, under certain restrictions, on protective and other works for relief of famine.

The Outlook.

Such in brief is the official programme and organisation which has been built up out of the experience and practice of the past. Yet everything goes to show that Government activity to save human life will never be wanted in the future on the colossal scale of former times, even so recently as 1899-1900. Each succeeding failure of the rains indicates that there has been in silent progress an economic revolution in India. In the year 1918 the rains failed more seriously and over a wider area than during any monsoon in the recent history of India. The deficiency in the rainfall was more marked than in the great famine of 1899. Yet such was the increased resisting power of the people that instead of a demand for State relief from over five millions, the maximum number at any time in receipt of public assistance was never so large as six hundred thousand. The shock to the social life of the community was insignificant; the effects of the drought completely disappeared with the good rains of the following year.

Increased Resisting Power.

The causes of this economic change in the conditions of India, whose influence is widespread are many. We can only briefly indicate them here. There is a much greater mobility in Indian labour. Formerly when the rains failed the ryot clung to his village until State relief in one form or another was brought almost to his doors. Now at the first sign of the failure of the rains he girds up his loins and goes in search of employment in one of the industrial centres, where the supply of labour is, when general economic conditions are normal, rarely equal to the demand, or on the constructional works which are always in progress either through State or private agency in the country. Then the ryot generally commands some store of value, often mustered a hoard. The balance of exports in favour of India in normal times is approximately £50 millions a year. The gold and silver bullion in which this is largely liquidated is distributed all over the country, in small sums or in ornaments, which can be drawn upon in an emergency. The prodigious coining of rupees during the last two years of the war, and the continuous absorption of gold by India, represent small diffused savings, which take this form owing to the absence of banking institutions and lack of confidence in the banking system. There has been a large extension of irrigation. More than one-third of the land in the Punjab is now under irrigation, and in other Provinces, particularly in the famine-susceptible tracts of the Bombay Deccan, irrigation works have been constructed, which break the shock of a failure of the rains. The natural growth of the population was for some years reduced by plague and famine diseases, followed by the great influenza epidemic of 1918-19, which swept off five millions of people. This prevented the increase of concentration, but brought some areas particularly in the Indian States, below their former population-carrying capacity. The 1931 census showed an increase of over 20 million in the population since 1921. The increase of railways during the same period resources of the country with regard to the means

of the co-operative credit movement has improved rural credit. Finally, there is the considerable development of manufacturing industry, which is generally short of labour and helps to absorb the surplus of a famine year. Whilst the Government is completely equipped with a famine code, there is no reason to suppose that there will ever recur such an emergency as that of 1899. Famine can now be efficiently met by the liberal distribution of grain, the suspension and remission of the land revenue demand, the relief of the aged and others who cannot work, the provision of cheap fodder for the cattle, with possibly some assistance in transporting the affected population of the famine-affected tract to the industrial centres.

The increased resisting power of the people was effectively demonstrated during the famine of 1920-21, which was due to the failure of the monsoon towards the end of the year 1920. The distress which appeared in the end of 1920 persisted during the early months of 1921 and regular famine was declared in parts of Madras, Bombay, Central Provinces and Baluchistan. Local distress prevailed also in Bengal, Punjab and Central India. The largest number of persons on relief of all kinds did not exceed 0.45 million which was considerably less than 3% of the total population of the area affected by the failure of the monsoon.

The Indian People's Famine Trust.

Outside the Government programme there is always scope for private philanthropy, especially in the provision of clothes, help for the superior class poor who cannot accept Government aid, and in assisting in the rehabilitation of the cultivators when the rains break. At every great famine large sums have been subscribed, particularly in the United Kingdom, for this purpose, and in 1899-1900 the people of the United States gave generous help. With the idea of providing a permanent famine fund, the Maharaja of Jaipur gave in 1900 a sum of Rs. 15 lakhs, in Government securities to be held in trust for the purposes of charitable relief in seasons of general distress.

This Trust Fund in a few years increased to Rs. 28,10,000. During 1934 it increased further to Rs. 32,50,600 the invested balances of the United Provinces Famine Orphans' fund being transferred to the Trust. It is officially called the Indian People's Famine Trust, and was constituted under the Charitable Endowment Act, 1890. The income of the Trust is administered by a board of management consisting of 13 members appointed from different provinces and Indian States, Sir Ernest Burdon, K.C.I.E.,

C.S.I., I.O.S., Auditor-General in India, is the Secretary & Treasurer of the Trust. The endowment of Rs. 32,50,600 above mentioned is permanently invested and the principal never taken for expenditure. The income from it is utilised for relief work as necessary and unexpended balances are temporarily invested, so as to make available in years of trouble savings accumulated when expenditure is not necessary. The temporary investments—in Government Securities—at the end of 1931 stood at Rs. 2,14,10-0 and the cash balance at the same time was Rs. 14,615-6-2, so that the total available for expenditure at the commencement of 1932 was Rs. 17,759-6-2.

The whole conditions to meet which the Trust was founded have changed in recent years. This is the result of the improved policy of Government in regard to famine relief and of the difference in the meaning of the word famine in consequence of the improvement of transport communications and other factors affected by modern progress. An area stricken by failure of seasonal rains now obtains supplies from other regions in a manner impossible before the development of railways and of modern marketing practice and Government help its people by loans given direct or through Co-operative Societies to tide them over the period of scarcity. The experience of successive visitations of scarcity in different parts of the country also proves that the general economic progress of the people makes them able to meet temporary periods of stress in a manner formerly unimaginable. Famine in the old terrible sense of the term has in fact ceased to occur. This was well illustrated by the events of 1919, when the land suffered from a failure of the rains more general throughout India and worse in degree than any previously recorded by the Meteorological Department but the crisis was borne with a minimum of suffering. The demands upon the Famine Trust have consequently so greatly diminished in their original sense that hardly any money is now distributed from it for the relief of famine in the proper sense of the word, resulting from rain failure and expenditure has mainly become grants of assistance to sufferers from floods. The total expenditure upon real famine in the old sense was only Rs. 50,000 during the year 1929, while expenditure on relief of distress caused by floods was Rs. 4,75,000 in the same year. The terms of the Trust fortunately, permit of management on lines according with modern needs.

In 1934 a grant of Rs. 8 lakhs was given for the relief and distress caused by the great Earthquakes in Bihar & Orissa.

The following statement shows the income and expenditure of the Trust during the past twenty-four years, the figures at the end of 1934 being the latest available for a complete year.

Year	Income.	EXPENDITURE.											Total Expenditure
		Madras.	Punjab.	Bombay.	Ajmere Mervara.	Bihar and Orissa.	United Provinces.	Bengal	Central Provinces.	Assam	Khairpur State.	Delhi.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1911	1,17,652	
1912	(a) 1,45,537	1,36,000	1,36,000	
1913	1,21,635	23,500	23,500	
1914	1,22,695	1,00,000	1,00,000	
1915	1,21,409	(a) — 38,593	25,000	(c) — 38,593	
1916	1,26,206	(c) — 3,305	21,695	
1917	1,56,125	
1918	1,26,962	
1919	1,31,992	30,500	...	3,00,000	..	50,000	3,00,000	1,00,000	1,00,000	8,30,500	
1920	1,16,017	(c) — 21,480	28,520	
1921	(b) 1,23,221	50,000	..	50,000	1,00,000	
1922	1,10,825	25,000	25,000	
1923	1,22,999	(c) — 2,503	(c) — 2,503	
1924	1,33,518	1,50,000	45,000	1,95,000	
1925	1,21,225	(c) — 179	...	30,000	11,000	30,521	
1926	1,28,000	11,000	
1927	1,58,033	3,00,000	..	1,00,000	3,98,163	
1928	1,27,442	...	1,00,000	(c) — 1,837	1,00,000	
1929	(d) 1,52,393	...	1,76,000	(e) 1,50,000	35,000	..	25,000	1,00,000	25,000	(c) 5,00,000	
1930	1,35,239	(e) — 25,000	— 25,000	
1931	1,87,013	(c) — 69,000	— 69,000	
1932	1,20,125	(c) — 1,079	(c) 10,055	— 11,733	
1933	(f) 1,58,173	...	50,000	40,000	40,000	1,30,000	
1934	(g) 1,10,801	8,25,000	8,25,000	1,25,000	0,56,000	
..	10,81,121	2,02,518	3,20,000	8,12,581	11,000	10,15,000	4,00,967	1,25,000	1,75,000	2,25,000	25,000	34,33,380	

(a) Includes a bequest of Rs. 20,515.

(b) Includes Rs. 3,966 refunded from the grant made in 1900 for the maintenance of Rajputana Orphanas.

(c) Represents refund from grants made in previous years.

(d) Includes Rs. 182 and Rs. 25,000 refunded from the grant made in 1927 to Bihar and Orissa and Bombay respectively.

(e) In addition a sum of Rs. 25,000 being the surplus balance of the grant made in 1927 to the Bombay Central Flood Relief Fund was allowed to be transferred to the Bombay Government for relief of distress in Sind.

(f) Includes Rs. 37,691 transferred from United Provinces Famine Orphan's Fund representing its cash balance at the end of 1932-33.

(g) Includes Rs. 11,072 and Rs. 1,200 refunded in cash by the United Provinces & Punjab respectively.

Hydro-Electric Development.

India promises to be one of the leading countries of the world in regard to the development of hydro-electric power and great strides in this direction have already been made. India not only specially lends itself to projects of the kind, but pre-emptorily demands them. Cheap motive power is one of the secrets of successful industrial development and the favourable initial conditions caused by the war, the enthusiasm for industrial development which has seized nearly all classes of educated Indians, and the special attention which the circumstances of the war have compelled Government to direct towards the scientific utilisation of Indian natural resources all point to a rapid growth of industrial enterprise in all parts of India within the next few years. Indeed, the process, for which sound foundations had been laid before the war, is now rapidly under way. India is severely handicapped compared with other lands as regards the generation of power by the consumption of fuel, coal or oil. These commodities are all difficult to obtain, and costly in India except in a few favoured areas. Coal supplies, for example, are chiefly centred in Bengal and Chota Nagpur and the cost of transport is heavy. Water power and its transmission by electricity offer, on the other hand, immense possibilities, both as regards the quantity available and the cheapness at which the power can be rendered, in all parts of India.

Water power schemes, pure and simple, are generally difficult in India, because the power needs to be continuous, while the rainfall is only during a small portion of the year. Perennial rivers with sufficient water throughout the year are practically non-existent in India. Water, therefore, must be stored for use during the dry season. Favourable sites for this exist in many parts in the mountainous and hilly regions where the heaviest rainfalls occur and the progress already made in utilising such opportunities by the electrical transmission of power affords high encouragement for the future. Further, hydro-electric schemes can frequently be associated with important irrigation projects, the water being first used to drive the turbines at the generating stations, and then distributed over the fields.

The Industrial Commission emphasized the necessity for a Hydrographic Survey of India. On this recommendation the Government of India in 1918 appointed the late Mr. G. T. Barlow, C.I.E., then Chief Engineer, Irrigation Branch, United Provinces, to undertake the work, associating with him Mr. J. W. Meares, M.I.C.E., Electrical Adviser to the Government of India. Mr. Barlow died, but Mr. Meares issued a preliminary report in September, 1919, summarising the state of knowledge of the problem in India and outlining a programme of investigation to be undertaken in the course of the inquiry. Mr. Meares showed that industries in India absorbed over a million horse

power, of which only some 285,000 h.p. is supplied by electricity from steam, oil or water. The water power so far actually in sight amounts to 1½ million horse-power, but this excludes practically all the great rivers, which are at present uninvestigated. Thus the minimum flow of the seven great rivers eastward from the Indus is stated to be capable of giving not less than three million horse-power for every thousand feet of fall from the Himalayas, while similar considerations apply to rivers in other parts. Some doubt is expressed as to the estimate of seven million horse-power in the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers, given in the report of the London Conjoint Board of Scientific Studies.

The Report points out that the Bombay Presidency holds a unique position owing to its great existing and projected schemes at Lonavla, the Andhra Valley, the Nila Mula and the Koyna Valley and has the still greater advantage of possessing a firm ready to develop its resources.

Bombay Hydro-Electric Works

The greatest Hydro-Electric undertakings in India are the three schemes developed and brought into operation by Tata Sons, Ltd., and continued under their management until 1929, when they were transferred to the management of the Tata Hydro Electric Agencies, Ltd., in which Messrs Tata Sons retained a substantial interest. These undertakings are —

- (a) The Tata Hydro Electric Power Supply Company, Ltd. Started in 1915
- (b) The Andhra Valley Electric Power Supply Company, Ltd. „ „ 1922
- (c) The Tata Power Company, Ltd. „ „ 1927.

These Hydro Electric schemes have a combined normal capacity of 246,000 H.P. and provide electrical energy for the City of Bombay, Bombay suburbs, Thana, Kalyan and Greater Poona.

Bombay, after London, is the second largest City in the British Empire and is the largest manufacturing centre in India. Its population including suburbs at the 1931 census was 1,326,313 with a total population of approximately 1,600,000 in all of the areas served by these companies. Its cotton mills and other factories consume about 150,000 H.P., which until these Hydro Electric schemes came into operation, was entirely produced by thermal stations using fuel coming from great distances.

The favourable position of the Western Ghats which rise to a height of more than 2,000 feet above sea-level within a few miles of Bombay, City situated on the shores of the Arabian sea with their heavy rainfalls was taken full advantage of for providing Bombay City and vicinity with an adequate and economical power supply.

The hydraulic works of the Tata Hydro Electric Power Supply Company are situated near Lonavla at the top of the Bhor Ghats. The monsoon rainfall is stored in three lakes namely, Lonavla, Walvan and Shrawta, from which it is conveyed in open masonry canals to the Forebay at Khandala and thence through steel pipes to the Power House at Khopoli at the foot of the Ghats, where the head at turbine nozzles is 1,750 feet or approximately 750 lbs per sq inch. The normal capacity of the Power Station at Khopoli is 48,000 KW or 64,300 H P. This scheme was formally opened by H. E. The Governor of Bombay on the 8th of February 1915.

Investigations in 1917-18 led to the discovery of a site on the Andhra River just to the North of the Tata Hydro Electric Supply Company's lakes, where an additional 48,000 KW (or 64,300 H P) could be developed. These investigations resulted in the formation of the Andhra Valley Power Supply Co. and the construction of the schemes, the principal features of which consist of a reservoir formed by a dam about 190 feet high across the Andhra River and a tunnel 8,700 feet long driven through solid trap rock to the scarp of the Ghats, from which the water is taken in steel pipes 4,600 feet long to the turbines in the generating station at Bhupuri. The head of water at turbine nozzles is 1,750 feet or approximately 750 lbs per sq inch. The electrical energy is transmitted to Bombay over a transmission line 56 miles long for augmenting the supply from Khopoli.

The Tata Power Company's scheme on the Nira-Mula River to the South-East of Bombay was investigated and developed along lines similar to the Andhra Valley scheme and has a normal installed capacity of 87,000 KW or 117,000 H P. The power is transmitted to Bombay over a transmission line 76 miles long and is used to augment the supply of the two earlier companies to mills, factories and railways.

The Tata Hydro Electric Power Supply Co., The Andhra Valley Power Supply Co. and the Tata Power Company operating as a unit under one management supply the whole of the electrical energy required by the Bombay Electric Supply & Tramways Co. Ltd., the majority of the mills and industries in Bombay City, the B. & C. I. Railway for their suburban electrification, the whole of the energy required by the G. I. P. Railway in Bombay City and for their main line traction up to Kalyan, the whole of the electrical energy required by the Poor Electric Supply Company and the distributing licensees in Thana, Kalyan and the Bombay suburbs.

These three schemes operating as a unit under one management provide an adequate and economical power supply in the areas mentioned above for all purposes. The rate for energy delivered to the Mills, Factories and Railways has for several years shown a steady decrease and now averages 0.507 of an anna per unit, which downward trend will continue as industries develop and individual consumptions increase. This power supply greatly enhances the natural

advantages Bombay has as a great manufacturing, trading and shipping centre.

Mysore Hydro Electric Works.

The first Hydro Electric Scheme of any magnitude undertaken in India or indeed in the East, was that on the Cauvery River in Mysore State, which with its generating station, transmission line and distributing system was inaugurated in 1902.

The Cauvery River rises in the district of Coorg in the Western Ghats and flows across Mysore State. The principal object of this scheme was the supply of power to the Mining companies on the Colar Gold Field, about 92 miles from Srirangamudram, the site of the generating station. This transmission line was for a number of years the longest line in Asia. Since 1902 the supply of electrical energy from Srirangamudram has been provided for Bangalore and Mysore cities and about 200 other towns and villages in the South-Eastern Half of the State.

The initial undertaking has constantly been expanded so that its total capacity now stands at 46,000 H P. This is the maximum obtainable from the water available. This great increase has been made possible by the construction of the Krishnarajasaagar reservoir near Mysore City, which has a capacity of 44,000 million cubic feet of storage above the minimum draw off.

The number of the consumers of all classes continues to increase rapidly every year with greatly increased demands. The Government of Mysore have encouraged this growth in the use of electrical energy and have made a survey of Hydro Power resources of the State and prepared plans for the construction of a second generating station at the most economical site.

The more important sites where a Hydro Electric power station can be constructed are Meladatu, the Shimshaw Falls, the Krishnarajasaagar and the Jog Falls (the Gerappa Fall). These power sites provide Mysore State with ample hydro power resources to meet the requirements of the State for a long time to come.

Works in Madras

The Pylkari Hydro-Electric Scheme an undertaking of the Madras Government, was commenced at the end of 1929. The scheme of the project being completed at the end of 1932. The water is utilized for the development of the scheme are taken from the Pylkari river which drains from the Nilgiri Plateau having a catchment area of nearly 12 sq miles. The average rainfall in the area is 110 in per annum, the rainfall varies considerably at various points.

The natural bed available for the construction of the dam is a hard granite which is highly resistant to the action of water. The dam is a concrete gravity dam with a height of 100 feet. The dam is situated on the Pylkari river, which is a tributary of the Cauvery river. The dam is 100 feet high and 100 feet wide at the base. The dam is 100 feet high and 100 feet wide at the base. The dam is 100 feet high and 100 feet wide at the base.

power. Another interesting project is the hydro-electric grid scheme in the United Provinces which will carry electric power to a large number of towns and villages and will, it is anticipated, assist greatly in the development of rural areas.

A small plant was completed and put into operation at Naini Tal during 1923, and the erection of another small plant was commenced at Shillong, but otherwise there is nothing to record. It is interesting to note, however, that preliminary investigations are proceeding with a view to the erection of hydro-electric plants in various parts of India. In the tea districts of Kaimpong and Kurseong, for example, it is proposed to harness a promising water-power site and to supply current to an important area in which are situated more than two hundred tea factories.

The Sutlej Hydro-Electric Project, at one time appeared to be one of the most promising propositions in the country, but owing to

financial considerations it has now been indefinitely shelved.

The fact that the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company has shut down its steam-driven generating plant and now takes its supply in bulk from the various Tata companies is of note, and it is of more than passing interest to note that the Poona Electric Supply Company has recently adopted a similar course. This is a phase of hydro-electric distribution which is quite in its infancy in India, but it is possible to foresee the time when every village within a couple of hundred miles of a hydro-electric power station will receive its supply of electric current in bulk, thus greatly reducing capital and administrative charges and minimising the price of current to the consumer. It is a system which has become something of a fine art in California, where current is transmitted by overhead wires for many hundreds of miles at a pressure of 200,000 volts or double the pressure commonly employed in India for overhead long-distance transmission.

INTEREST TABLE.

From 5 to 12 per cent; on Rupees 100

*Calculated for 1 Year, 1 Month (Calendar), 1 Week, and 1 Day (365 Days to a Year),
the Decimal Fraction of a Pie for the Day being shown for the Day.*

Per cent.	1 Day.	1 Week.	1 Month	1 Year.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
5	0 0 2.630	0 1 6	0 6 8	5 0 0
6	0 0 3.156	0 1 10	0 8 0	6 0 0
7	0 0 3.682	0 2 1	0 9 4	7 0 0
8	0 0 4.208	0 2 5	0 10 8	8 0 0
9	0 0 4.734	0 2 9	0 12 0	9 0 0
10	0 0 5.260	0 3 0	0 13 4	10 0 0
11	0 0 5.786	0 3 4	0 14 8	11 0 0
12	0 0 6.312	0 3 8	1 0 0	12 0 0

Local Self-Government.

A field of the administration of India profoundly affected by the Reforms of 1919 is that of local government. This is one of the subjects transferred to Indian ministers, and under their leadership considerable developments have been essayed. On the whole, the progress of local government in India for the past quarter of a century has been disappointing. The greatest successes have been won in the Presidency towns, and particularly by the Municipality of Bombay. The difficulties in the way of progress were manifest. Local government had to be a creation—the devolution of authority from the Government to the local body, and that to a people who for centuries had been accustomed to autocratic administration. Again, the powers entrusted to local bodies were insignificant and the financial support was small. There are however many indications that the dry bones of the moribund are stirring.

Throughout the greater part of India, the village constitutes the primary territorial unit of Government organisation, and from the villages are built up the larger administrative titles—*tahsils*, sub divisions, and districts.

"The typical Indian village has its central residential site, with an open space for a pond and a cattle stand. Stretching around this nucleus lie the village lands, consisting of a cultivated area and (very often) grounds for grazing and wood-cutting. The inhabitants of such a village pass their life in the midst of these simple surroundings, welded together in a little community with its own organisation and government, which differ in character in the various types of villages, its body of detailed customary rules and its little staff of functionaries, artisans and traders. It should be noted, however, that in certain portions of India, *e.g.*, in the greater part of Assam, in Eastern Bengal, and on the west coast of the Madras Presidency, the village as here described does not exist, the people living in small collections of houses or in separate homesteads."—(*Gazetteer of India*.)

The villages above described fall under two main classes, *viz.*—

Types of Villages—“(1) The ‘severalty’ or *rayatwari* village which is the prevalent form outside Northern India. Here the revenue is assessed on individual cultivators. There is no joint responsibility among the villagers, though some of the non-cultivated lands may be set apart for a common purpose, such as grazing, and waste land may be brought under the plough only with the permission of the Revenue authorities, and on payment of assessment. The village government vests in a hereditary headman, known by an old vernacular name, such as *patei* or *raidi*, who is responsible for law and order, and for the collection of the Government revenue. He represents the primitive leadership of the tribe or clan by which the village was originally settled.”

“(2) The joint or landlord village, the type prevalent in the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Frontier Province. Here the revenue was formerly assessed on the village as a whole,

its incidence being distributed by the body of superior proprietors, and a certain amount of collective responsibility still, as a rule, remains. The village site is owned by the proprietary body, who allow residences to the tenantry, artisans, traders and others. The waste land is allotted to the village, and, if wanted for cultivation, is partitioned among the shareholders. The village government was originally by the *punchayet* or group of heads of superior families. In later times one or more headmen have been added to the organisation to represent the village in its dealings with the local authorities; but the artificial character of this appointment, as compared with that which obtains in a *rayatwari* village is evidenced by the title of its holder, which is generally *lambardar*, a vernacular derivative from the English word ‘number.’ It is this type of village to which the well-known description in Sir H. Maine’s *Village Communities* is alone applicable, and here the co-proprietors are in general a local oligarchy with the bulk of the village population as tenants of labourers under them.”

Village Autonomy.—The Indian villages formerly possessed a large degree of local autonomy, since the native dynasties and their local representatives did not, as a rule, concern themselves with the individual cultivators, but regarded the village as a whole, or some large landholder as responsible for the payment of the Government revenues, and the maintenance of local order. This autonomy has now disappeared owing to the establishment of local, civil and criminal courts, the present revenue and police organisation, the increase of communications, the growth of individualism, and the operation of the individual *rayatwari* system, which is extending even in the north of India. Nevertheless, the village remains the first unit of administration; the principal village functionaries—the headman, the accountant, and the village watchman—are largely utilised and paid by Government, and there is still a certain amount of common village feeling and interests.

Punchayets.—For some years there was an active propaganda in favour of reviving the village council-tribunal, or *Punchayet* and the Decentralisation Commission of 1908 made the following special recommendations:—

“While, therefore, we desire the development of a *punchayet* system, and consider that the objections urged thereto are far from insurmountable we recognise that such a system can only be gradually and tentatively applied, and that it is impossible to suggest any uniform and definite method of procedure. We think that a commencement should be made by giving certain limited powers to *Punchayets* in those villages in which circumstances are most favourable by reason of homogeneity, natural intelligence, and freedom from internal feuds. These powers might be increased gradually as results warrant, and with success here, it will become easier to apply the system in other villages. Such a policy, which must be the work of many years, will require great care and discretion, much patience, and judicious discrimination between the circumstances of different villages:

and there is a considerable consensus of opinion that this new departure should be made under the special guidance of sympathetic officers."

This is, however, still mainly a question of future possibilities, and for present purposes it is unnecessary to refer at greater length to the subject of village self-government. Various measures have been passed, but it is too early to say what life they have. The Punjab Government has passed a Village Panchayat Act, which enables Government to establish in a village, a system of councillors to whom certain local matters, including judicial power, both civil and criminal of a minor character, may be assigned. In Bihar a Village Administration Act has been passed for the administration of village affairs by villagers themselves, including minor civil and criminal cases. Other Governments are taking steps in the same direction.

Municipalities—The Presidency towns had some form of Municipal administration, first under Royal Charters and later under statute, from comparatively early times, but outside of them there was practically no attempt at municipal legislation before 1842. An Act passed in that year for Bengal, which was practically inoperative, was followed in 1850 by an Act applying to the whole of India. Under this Act and subsequent Provincial Acts a large number of municipalities was formed in all provinces. The Acts provided for the appointment of commissioners to manage municipal affairs, and authorised the levy of various taxes, but in most Provinces the commissioners were all nominated, and from the point of view of self-government, these Acts did not proceed far. It was not until after 1870 that much progress was made. Lord Mayo's Government, in their Resolution of that year introducing the system of provincial finance, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medical, charity, and local public works. New Municipal Acts were passed for the various Provinces between 1871 and 1874, with, among other things, extended to the elective principle, but only in the Central Provinces was popular representation generally and successfully introduced. In 1881-2 Lord Ripon's Government issued orders which had the effect of greatly extending the principle of local self-government. Acts were passed in 1883-4 that greatly altered the constitution, powers, and functions of municipal bodies, a wide extension being given to the elective system, while independence and responsibility were conferred on the committees of many towns by permitting them to elect a private citizen as chairman. Arrangements were made also to increase municipal resources and financial responsibility, some items of provincial revenue suited to and capable of development under local management being transferred, with a proportionate amount of provincial expenditure, for local objects. The general principles thus laid down have continued to govern the administration of municipalities down to the present day.

The Present Position—There are some 781 municipalities in British India, with something over 21 million people resident within their

limits. Of these municipalities, roughly 710 have a population of less than 50,000 persons and the remainder a population of 50,000 and over. As compared with the total population of particular provinces, the proportion resident within municipal limits is largest in Bombay, where it amounts to 20 per cent, and is smallest in Assam where it amounts to only 2 per cent. In other provinces it varies from 4 to 9 per cent of the total population. Turning to the composition of the municipalities, considerably more than half of the total members are elected and there is a steady tendency to increase this proportion. Ex-officio members are only 7 per cent and nominated 25 per cent. Elected members are almost everywhere in a majority. Taking all municipalities together, the non-officials outnumber the officials by nearly six to one. The functions of municipalities are charged under the heads of Public Safety, Health, Convenience and Instruction. For the discharge of these responsibilities, there is a municipal income of Rs 14.03 crores derived principally from taxation, just over one-third coming from municipal property, contributions from provincial revenues and miscellaneous sources. Generally speaking, the income of municipalities is small, the four cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Rangoon together providing over 40 per cent. of the total. The heaviest items of this expenditure come under the heads of "Conservancy" and "Public Works" which amount to 14 per cent and 13 per cent, respectively, "Water-supply" comes to 13 per cent, "Drainage" to 4 per cent and "Education" to over 11 per cent. In some localities the expenditure on education is considerably in excess of the average. In the Bombay Presidency, excluding Bombay City, for example, the expenditure on education amounts to more than 21 per cent. of the total funds, while in the Central Provinces and Berar it is over 17 per cent.

District Boards—The duties and functions assigned to the municipalities in urban areas are in rural areas entrusted to district and local Boards. In almost every district of British India save in the province of Assam, there is a board subordinate to which are two or more sub-district boards, while in Bengal, Madras and Bihar and Orissa, there are also Union Committees. Throughout India altogether there are some 207 district boards with 584 sub-district boards besides 457 Union Panchayats in Madras. This machinery has jurisdiction over a population which was over 221 millions in 1920-21. Leaving aside the Union Committees and Union Boards or Panchayats the members of the Board numbered over 16,000 in 1930-31, of whom 78 per cent. were elected. As in the case of municipalities the tendency has been throughout India to increase the elected members at the expense of the nominated and the official members. The Boards are practically managed by Indian who constitute 96 per cent. of the total membership. Only 11 per cent. of the total members of all boards are officials of any kind. The total income of the Boards in 1920-21 amounted to Rs 16.57 crores, the average income of each board being Rs 2,60,000. The most important items of expenditure are municipal rates, which represent a proportion of the total

income varying from 25 per cent. in Bombay and in the N. W. F. Province to 63 per cent in Bihar and Orissa. The principal objects of expenditure are education which has come remarkably to the front within the last three years and civil works such as roads and bridges. Medical relief is also sharing with education though in a less degree the lion's share of the available revenue.

Improvement Trust—A notable feature in the recent sanitary history of India is the activity played by the great cities in the direction of social improvements. In Bombay and Calcutta the Improvement Trusts are continuing their activities which are described in a separate chapter (q.v.) In Bombay the work of the Improvement Trust is being developed by the Bombay Development Directorate. Other cities are beginning to follow the example of these great cities and Improvement Trusts have been constituted in Cawnpore, Lucknow and Allahabad in the United Provinces and in several of the larger cities of the Provinces of India. Their activities have, however, been severely curtailed by the financial stress.

Provincial Progress—There was passed in Bengal in 1919 a Village Self-Government Act embodying the policy of constituting Union Boards at the earliest possible date for groups of villages throughout the province. The number of these boards continues to increase, rising from 1,500 to more than 2,000. In 1930-31 the number of Union Boards rose to 4,510. There are also 12 Union Committees. Though they are in their infancy as yet, many of them show a remarkable aptitude for managing their own affairs.

In Bombay the development of village self-government is also proceeding, as the result of an Act for constituting, or increasing the power of village committees which was passed in 1920 by the Legislative Council. In this presidency, some 145 out of 155 municipalities had a two-thirds elected majority of councillors in the year 1930-31, and a distinct step forward has been projected by the administration in the direction of liberalizing the constitution of all municipal bodies. The policy of appointing a non-official president has been extended both to district and sub-district boards, and a large number of non-officials have also been appointed presidents of sub-districts (tainka) boards. In Madras also the institutions of local self-government continued to progress in an encouraging manner. The number of district boards in the Presidency in 1931 was 25 with 1,005 members. The number of sub-district boards was 130. The total number of Municipal Councils during the year 1930-31 continued to be 81 and the proportion of Indian to European and Anglo-Indian members further increased. In 1930-31 there were 54 municipal councils, consisting entirely of Indian members, as against 51 in the previous year. The average imposition of taxation per head of population is still very low, being only about Rs 2-8

In the United Provinces the new District Boards, which consist of non-official members only with elected non-official Chairman, were plunged straight-way into financial difficulties. In some cases the necessity for retrenchment was immediate, resulting in the curtailment of medical relief and of allotments for the ordinary repairs of roads. Additional taxation has so far not been generally imposed and the Boards are still suffering from inexperience in husbanding public money and obtaining the full value for their expenditure. In the case of Municipal Finance, there has been some change for the better. The new municipalities have shown a great interest in all forms of civic activity but they are still hampered in their work by political and communal objections. They are reluctant to impose new taxation but a considerable programme of expenditure lies before them.

In the Punjab municipal administration continued to show improvement, the general attitude of the members in regard to their responsibilities being promising for progress in the future. Generally speaking the finances are in a more satisfactory position than was the case in previous years. Expenditure on water-supply schemes is steadily increasing.

In the Central Provinces, the year 1920 witnessed the passing of a Local Self-Government Act intended to guide into proper channels the undoubtedly growing interest in public matters. The continued reduction of official members and chairman, and the wider powers of control given to local bodies have been an incentive to the development of local self-government, leading to an increased sense of public duty and responsibility. Another very important measure regulating municipalities was passed into law in 1922. Its chief features are the extension of the Municipal franchise, the reduction of official and nominated members, the extension of the powers of Municipal Committees and the relaxation of official control.

In the North-West Frontier Province, the institution of local self-government is somewhat of a foreign growth. Certain of the municipal committees are still lax in the discharge of their responsibilities, and meetings are reported to be infrequent, but the attendance of non-official members is gradually increasing. Concerning Municipal administration the Local Government reports that the members continue to take a very great interest in their duties and that their attitude towards the responsibility is imposed upon them is on the whole satisfactory. Communal feeling shows itself in certain localities; but in many instances off-set by the public spirit and initiative of individual members and there are considerable symptoms of advance in independence of action and in the smooth working of the Committees. An important extension of the elective principle has recently been made and it is hoped that this is providing a success.

District and Local Boards.

The following table gives the membership, Income and Expenditure of District and Local Boards in the same financial year:—

Province	No. of Boards	No. of Members.		Income (excluding Balances).					Expenditure.				
				Provincial Rates	Civil Works.	Other Sources	Total.	Rs. a. p.	Education	Civil Works.	Sanitation, Hospital, &c.	Debt and Miscellaneous.	Total.
		Elect.	Ex-officio and Nominated.										
Andhra	.. (a) 610	4,526	2,000	1,18,43,018	1,48,05,545	3,28,15,767	5,95,21,936	1 3 5	1,20,00,400	2,60,25,814	37,31,763	1,88,87,378	6,07,47,140
Bombay	.. 240	3,326	905	59,42,201	27,22,918	1,55,00,611	2,32,71,820	1 3 0	1,21,43,777	16,87,845	13,33,532	47,51,397	2,35,10,561
Bengal	.. 100	1,363	705	74,05,985	16,21,288	55,67,812	1,47,08,115	0 1 1	37,06,581	50,06,442	31,10,005	25,33,230	1,48,18,851
United Provinces	.. 48	1,197	95	77,04,511	11,75,385	1,01,90,350	1,93,72,210	0 8 1	1,11,00,100	35,82,803	46,15,708	2,05,027	1,09,03,961
Punjab	.. 20	832	317	63,15,046	18,16,906	1,29,04,567	2,10,00,150	1 0 0	1,11,59,252	11,31,223	27,13,473	91,21,771	2,11,55,722
Pithor and Orissa	.. 00	887	311	71,08,851	6,52,468	55,06,000	1,36,52,018	0 7 3	18,09,119	45,80,942	23,75,171	23,41,006	1,11,10,261
C. P. & Berar	.. 108	1,101	405	25,18,533	3,18,107	53,06,098	82,03,338	0 6 2	31,11,113	9,51,122	5,10,061	39,13,909	82,22,505
Arcan	.. 10	300	101	11,06,730	9,78,553	15,18,071	36,01,257	0 7 3	13,91,831	12,35,606	6,18,670	5,13,635	37,63,045
N W Frontier Province	.. 5	..	221	2,11,062	2,06,178	10,59,942	15,01,512	1 2 0	10,27,270	1,01,077	1,31,117	1,81,369	15,07,750
Upper Merwara	.. 1	16	27	31,320	1,32,366	94,535	2,29,203	0 6 7	55,009	47,122	33,070	1,01,211	2,37,972
Coorg	.. 1	13	7	57,000	11,360	13,075	1,15,050	1 1 3	97,708	31,201	29,121	30,080	1,50,070
Belga	.. 1	12	8	10,855	19,011	1,76,120	2,15,205	1 1 1	1,30,837	11,191	31,920	12,705	2,10,973
Total 1970-71.	1,210	16,983	5,111	1,06,06,380	2,52,17,397	9,94,20,150	16,57,01,912	0 10	56,15,59,731	1,81,65,962	1,66,36,049	3,91,17,092	16,88,11,731

(a) Includes 164 Union Panchayats with 1,013 elected and 1,071 ex-officio and nominated members.

Local Government Statistics.

Municipalities.—With this general introduction we can now turn to the statistical results of the working of Local Self-Government. The following table gives information as to the constitution of municipal committees, taxation, &c, in the chief provinces in 1930-31.

Province.	Population within Municipal Limits.	Number of Municipalities.	Classification of Members		Number of Members of Committees.	Income.	Incidence per Head of Population			Expenditure.	
			Official.	Non-official.			Rs.	Rs. a p	Rs. a p		Rs.
Presidency Towns.											
Calcutta	1,077,264	1	90	1	80	4,64,73,418	10 9 3	19 14 5	4,25,15,073		
Bombay City	1,168,383	1	108	4	104	16,63,24,339	23 14 1	27 10 0	16,59,91,737		
Madras City	647,228	1	40	1	48	1,07,93,586	6 15 11	10 15 0	93,31,378		
Rangoon	398,971	1	34	4	30	1,33,42,806	19 6 3	26 2 4	1,31,55,413		
District Municipalities.											
Bengal (excluding Calcutta)	2,113,907	117	1,061	120	1,511	91,09,331	3 3 9	4 0 4	96,75,593		
Bihar and Orissa	1,337,315	61	1,031	117	914	52,32,982	2 3 8	2 15 9	44,66,171		
Assam	214,650	25	283	7	276	13,16,719	3 8 2	3 6 11	13,35,257		
Bombay (excluding Bombay City)	3,045,904	164	3,071	109	2,852	3,81,02,690	5 4 1	7 6 0	3,89,92,337		
Madras (excluding Madras City)	2,725,190	81	1,689	6	1,683	2,09,31,578	2 7 5	5 12 4	2,13,01,802		
United Provinces	2,917,160	85	1,112	13	1,129	1,09,52,904	3 13 2	5 7 11	1,68,73,932		
Punjab	2,476,045	107	1,250	103	1,153	1,39,69,870	3 1 1	5 7 0	1,49,15,220		
N. W. F. Province	248,101	7	133	38	97	16,11,347	3 14 7	8 11 5	16,31,299		
Central Provinces and Berar	1,361,537	71	1,218	51	1,197	81,04,733	3 15 8	5 0 10	87,15,730		
Burma (excluding Rangoon)	900,190	57	775	91	684	78,28,061	3 10 6	8 1 9	80,81,408		
British Baluchistan	34,881	1	39	5	33	7,61,200	14 8 4	19 7 9	7,58,473		
Ajmer-Merwara	157,761	4	60	7	53	6,34,961	2 6 6	3 12 3	6,21,854		
Coorg	13,916	5	61	19	42	48,019	2 1 9	3 8 0	51,212		
Delhi	247,935	1	37	3	34	29,02,135	6 9 9	11 15 10	29,00,257		
Bangalore	131,123	1	28	8	20	10,57,871	1 5 8	7 4 1	10,33,330		
Total 1930-31	21,230,470	781	12,776	707	11,970	30,69,70,350	5 15 7	8 4 6	30,24,59,576		

Calcutta Improvement Trust.

The Calcutta Improvement Trust was instituted by Government in January, 1912, with a view to making provision for the improvement and expansion of Calcutta by opening up congested areas, laying out or altering streets, providing open spaces for purposes of ventilation or recreation, demolishing or constructing buildings and re-housing the poorer and working classes displaced by the execution of improvement schemes.

The origin of the Calcutta Improvement Trust must, as in the case of the corresponding Bombay body, upon which the Calcutta Trust was to a large extent modelled, be looked for in a medical enquiry which was instituted into the sanitary condition of the town in 1896, owing to the outbreak of plague. It was estimated that the Trust might in the ensuing 30 years have to provide for the housing of 225,000 persons. The population of Calcutta proper, which includes all the most crowded areas, was 640,995 in 1891, and increased to 801,251, or by 25 per cent, by 1901. The corresponding figure according to the 1921 Census was 993,508 and this had increased by 1931 to 1,196,734.

The problem of expansion was difficult, because of the peculiar situation of Calcutta, which is shut in on one side by the Hooghly and on the other by the Salt Lakes.

Preliminary investigations continued for several years, so that it was only in 1910 that legislation was eventually introduced in the provincial legislature and the Trust instituted by it. The Bill provided for a large expenditure on improvement schemes and the provision of open spaces and for special local taxation to this end. It also provided for the appointment of a whole-time chairman of the Board of Trustees and the membership of the Trust was fixed at eleven.

The following constituted the Board of Trustees at 31st March 1934.—Mr. J. A. L. Swan, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.O.S., Chairman, Mr. Mukherjee, Bar-at-Law, Chief Executive Officer, Calcutta Corporation (*ex-officio*), Mr. S. C. Ghosh, elected by the Corporation of Calcutta under Section 7(1) (a) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911; Mr. Prabhdayal Himatsinghka, elected by the elected Councillors, Corporation of Calcutta, under Section 7(1) (b) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911, as modified by the Amendment Act of 1926; Mr. Charu Chandra Biswas, C.I.E., elected by Councillors other than elected Councillors of the Corporation of Calcutta, under Section 7(1) (c) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911, as modified by the Amendment Act of 1926; Mr. W. H. Thompson, elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce; Sir Hari Sankar Paul, Kt., elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce; Mr. Unsud Datta, Sir Badridas Goenka, Kt., C.I.E., Rai Bahadur Dr. Haridhan Dutt,

Mr. A. J. Thompson, A.R.I.B.A., appointed by the Local Government.

During the 22 years that it has now been at work, the Trust have decided, and partly or entirely carried through many improvement schemes for opening up congested areas, laying out or widening streets and providing open spaces.

In Central Calcutta many highly insanitary *bustees* have been done away with and several roads of an improved type laid out, the most important of which is the Chittaranjan Avenue, 100 ft. wide, which at present extends from Beadon Street to Chowringhee, Shambazar. It is intended ultimately to extend it up to the Chitpur Bridge. But at present there is no direct connexion between Chitpur Bridge and the Barrackpore Trunk Road, as Lockgate Road has been severed by the sidings of the Eastern Bengal Railway. In these circumstances the Board considered that traffic would be better served by postponing the extension to Chitpur Bridge and constructing a road to Shambazar which is the terminus of the Barrackpore Trunk Road and of the Dnn-Dnn-Jessore Road. A scheme known as Scheme No XXXVII has been sanctioned by Government under Section 49 of the Calcutta Improvement Act which provides *inter alia* for the extension of Chittaranjan Avenue up to Raja Rajballab Street and for the construction of a new 84 feet wide road connecting it with Cornwallis Street. The Section of Chittaranjan Avenue near the Chowringhee end is well placed for commerce and trade and is likely before long to gain increased importance by being linked up with Dalhousie Square on the West by means of a new road 84 feet wide which the Trust propose to construct between Mission Row and Mangoe Lane. A further extension of this road from Chittaranjan Avenue to Wellington Street on the east was sanctioned by Government after the close of the year.

In the north of the City, two large and thirteen small parks have been constructed in different quarters. Of the two large parks one is named Deshabandhu Park and the other Cossipore Chitpore open space measuring 53 bighas and 156 bighas respectively. The Cossipore-Chitpore Park has a small artificial lake and the layout of the area surrounding the lake has been completed. Four football grounds have been provided for schools and clubs of North Calcutta. Some tennis courts are also being made. The Deshabandhu Park has also been provided with play-grounds. Several wide roads have been driven through this highly congested area. The approaches to the City have also been adequately widened.

Some progress has also been made with that highly congested area to the west of the City by opening up new roads and widening the existing ones. This scheme is known as 'Maydayat', Scheme No XXVII.

The new 84 ft. road connecting Chittaranjan Avenue with Strand Road slightly to the north of Jagannath Ghat has been completed so that there is now a continuous main traffic route with the same width of roadway as Chittaranjan Avenue, extending right across Calcutta from Strand Road on the west to Upper Circular Road on the east. The widening of Manikata Road between Upper Circular Road and Manikata Bridge which has been completed forms a further extension of this main roadway which will eventually continue at a width of 100 ft. to the extreme eastern limit of Manikata. Another important scheme which is now complete is the new 60 ft. road between Darpanarayan Tagore Street and Pathuriaghata Street which, with its side roads, opens up a very congested area and forms a portion of a main projected north and south road through Bala Bazar from Harrison Road to a new main east-and-west diagonal road through Alindollah.

The passing of the Calcutta Improvement (Amendment) Act, 1921, which empowers the Board of Trustees in certain cases to levy betterment fees on properties which abut on to a new or widened street instead of acquiring the properties has made it financially possible for the Trust to proceed with some portion of its original programme for the improvement of Bala Bazar. The Kalakar Street scheme in Bala Bazar which forms the southern section of the above-mentioned road is one of the schemes to which the new Act is to be applied. It has been published under Section 43 of the Calcutta Improvement Act, and sanctioned by Government. Another scheme which has received the sanction of Government and to which the new Act is to be applied is the widening of a short length of Darmahatta Street and it is interesting to see how the methods prescribed in the Act will work out in practice.

The Suburban Areas to the south and south-east of Calcutta required greater attention and certain development schemes were undertaken. Several open spaces and squares have been made in various parts. In railway tanks requiring approximately 2 crores cub. ft. of earth have been filled up. Russa Road which forms the southern approach to the town has been widened to 150 ft. for a length of one mile and 100 ft. for a length of another mile. It now gives a most pleasant drive from Chowringhee to Tollygunge. To improve the drainage of this area a 100 ft. wide East to West road, from Ballygunge Railway Station to Chella Bridge, and for recreation an artificial lake of 167 bighas with adequate grounds has been completed.

Another small lake has also been completed and a road is being constructed round it to link up with the road surrounding the main lake. The road round the main lake has been surfaced with asphalt and lighted with electricity and is much frequented in the evening. Sites for club houses adjoining the main lake have been allotted to several clubs. Excavation has been continued in a new section of the lake which is to be attractively laid out with an island to which the public will have access by means of a footbridge. The Calcutta Tramways Co.,

Ltd., have now extended tram tracks from Russa Road along New Lower Road to Ballygunge Station.

The Board of Trustees have framed a scheme for the extension southwards of Lansdowne Road which has received Government sanction; acquisition of land was completed and all the new and widened roads have been completed and opened to traffic; surplus lands are now ready for sale; the Board in pursuance of its policy of carrying out schemes in the centre of the town and in the suburbs simultaneously, so as to have an adequate supply of suburban sites for residential buildings to meet the needs of those displaced from overcrowded areas in the centre of the town has also framed a scheme known as Scheme No. XXXIII for the improvement of another section of the undeveloped area between Russa Road and the Lake District. This too has received sanction of Government and land acquisition has made good progress and engineering works have been taken in hand.

To the east of the city, several new roads have been constructed in Scheme No. VIII (New Ballygunge Road—Park Circus to Old Ballygunge Road). They are now open to traffic, and the majority of them are surfaced with asphalt. Arrangements have been made for lighting the roads with electricity. The development of Calcutta east of Lower Circular Road, between Park Circus and Middle Road, Entally, is a pressing need, but the work can only proceed slowly in small sections. The Trust in the execution of this scheme cannot ignore the bustee dwellers, who are pushed further east, as the development from bustee conditions to blocks of masonry buildings proceeds. The utilisation of highly-improved lands for bustee purposes is not an economic proposition, but at the same time, it is necessary to provide the essentials of sanitation for the working classes.

The linking up of Amherst Street with London Street by a broad thoroughfare has commenced in two small sections. The Trust has constructed a large park near Park Circus Scheme No. VII, known as Eastern Park, measuring 65 bighas, with a large playing field for football and tennis. The Goraohand Road Scheme provides for the completion of the northern portion of this park and the commencement of a wide avenue running parallel to Lower Circular Road through the outer fringe of Entally. As the scheme involved the demolition of a large number of bustees, investigations were made to ascertain the best means of reducing the displaced bustee population as a result of which a Rehousing scheme at Christopher Road which will cost the Trust Rs. 2,70,000 for land acquisition and Rs. 1,97,000 for engineering works has been framed and has received the sanction of Government. Acquisition of land was completed and the raising of land is in hand.

The public squares vested in the Calcutta Corporation in 1911 had a total area of about 96 acres. In 1912, Mr. Bompan, the first Chairman of the Trust, pointed out that in the ratio, viz., about 9 per cent. of its public open

spaces which measured about 1,250 acres (including the Maidan, the Horticultural and the Zoological Gardens) to its total acreage, Calcutta was almost on a par at that time with London possessing 6,675 acres of public parks or gardens while its percentage exceeded that of New York, Berlin and Birmingham. But about 1,000 acres of Calcutta's 1,250 was accounted for in the Maidan and now open spaces in other parts of Calcutta were an urgent need. Up to date the Trust had added (including the new Lake at Dhakuria)—another 250 acres

Lastly for the housing of the displaced population the Trust has undertaken on a large scale the following schemes —

In the early stages three blocks of three storied tenement buildings containing 252 lettable rooms were built in Wards Institution Street for persons of the poorer classes. It was found, however, that the persons displaced preferred to take their compensation and migrate to some place where they could erect *bachis* of their own, the class of structures they were accustomed to live in. These chawls were then filled with persons of limited means, e.g., school masters, poor students, clerks and persons of the artisan class. As many as 1,200 people are housed in these chawls, these buildings, including land, cost Rs. 2,44,368 and are let at very low rents—ground floor rooms at Rs. 5 per mensem and top floor rooms at Rs. 6 per mensem, each room measuring 12' x 12' with a 4 ft. verandah in front opening on to a central passage 7 ft. wide. The total collection of rent during the year 1933-34 including previous year arrears was Rs. 14,243.

As these chawls failed to attract the people for whom they were meant, the Board next tried an experiment in providing sites for busters. Two sites with a lettable area of 16 bighas were acquired within the area of Maniktola Municipality, but they failed to attract because they were out of the way and were expensive.

Kerbala Tank Lane Re-housing Scheme—In this scheme 4 detached and 35 semi-detached houses were built. The detached houses were sold as this scheme never became popular with the class of tenants for whom they were originally intended. Owing to this unpopularity the Board further decided to throw open to tenants of all classes 18 out of the remaining 35 semi-detached houses. This change of policy, however, produced no effect on the letting.

Owing to want of suitable tenants the entire dwellings in Kerbala Tank Re-housing scheme had been sold by private sale shortly after the 31st March 1927.

Box Street Re-housing Scheme—Seven blocks of buildings containing one-roomed, two-roomed and three-roomed suites have been constructed to re-house Anglo-Indians displaced by the operations of the Trust. This scheme

has proved a striking success. There are 132 suites for letting and the rent received from these suites during the year 1933-34, amounted to Rs. 32,666.

Paikpara Re-housing Scheme—This scheme has an area of 36 bighas well laid out in 96 building sites. A new re-housing scheme has been undertaken by the Board, as already stated, at Christopher Road for the bustee population to be displaced by the execution of scheme No. XXXV (Eastern Park to Gorachand Road). A special feature of the new scheme is that the land is to be developed as a model bustee for displaced bustee dwellers. Special facilities are offered to dislodged persons for securing land in various improved areas for reinstatement purposes.

Bridges—Some progress has been made in replacing the old bridges of Calcutta, which is hemmed in by canals and railway lines inadequately bridged, by modern and up-to-date bridges to suit the growing traffic requirements. The opportunity is being taken of widening the Maniktala, Narikeldanga and Bellaghata Bridge approaches on both sides—on the west (in the case of Maniktala and Narikeldanga Bridges) right up to Circular Road. The new bridges of the city will in their traffic capacity compare favourably with those of London. The new Bridges at Maniktala, Bellaghata and at Shambazar have roadways of 37 feet, with two footpaths each 10 feet in width. The Chitpore Bridge reconstruction of which has been completed has been redesigned as a reinforced concrete bridge capable of accommodating four lines of fast traffic and two lines of slow traffic. The Alipore Bridge, the reconstruction of which has been completed, has a roadway of 30 feet (3 traffic widths) and 2 footpaths of 6 feet each, and these are also to be the probable widths of the Tollygunge and Hastings Bridges which need re-building. The Chelsea, Hammer-smith and Waterloo Bridges have all-over widths of 45, 39 and 42 feet, respectively, the roadways being 20, 27 and 28 feet, that is 3 traffic widths. Even London Bridge with an all-over width of 65 feet has only a 37-foot roadway (4 traffic widths) and Westminster Bridge which is 84 feet in width spans only 54 feet (i.e., 6 traffic widths, like the 60 feet of Kidderpore Bridges for wheeled traffic.

Financial—Capital charges during the year 1933-34 amounted to Rs. 61.31 lakhs which included Rs. 50.50 lakhs spent on land acquisition and Rs. 8.97 lakhs on engineering works. The gross expenditure of the Trust on Capital Works up to the end of the year 1933-34 was Rs. 14,20,00,000. To meet this large expenditure, the Trust has borrowed Rs. 4,17,60,000 other Capital receipts (mainly from the sale of land and buildings) have yielded Rs. 7,00,00,000 and the revenue fund from its annual surplus (after providing for the service of loans) has contributed Rs. 4.17 crores to Capital Works.

The Indian Ports.

The administration of the affairs of the larger ports (*Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi, Rangoon and Chittagong*) is vested by law in municipal bodies specially constituted for the purpose. They have wide powers, but their proceedings are subject in a greater degree than those of municipal bodies to the control of Government. At all the ports the European members constitute the majority and the Board for Rangoon consists mainly of European members.

Figures for 1922-23 relating to income, expenditure and capital debt of the six principal ports managed by Trusts (Aden is excluded from the tables) as obtainable from the Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics (India) are shown in the following table:—

	Income.	Expenditure.	Capital Debt.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Calcutta	2,46,36,681	2,53,65,301	24,81,38,001
Bombay	2,49,70,850	2,65,52,541	21,72,50,504
Madras	29,86,394	32,12,510	1,59,18,950
Karachi	62,43,147	62,77,454	4,28,59,000
Rangoon	68,82,555	70,76,097	5,66,10,825
Chittagong	6,50,425	6,94,822	* 26,98,827

* Includes the first instalment of Rs. 15 lakhs, the second instalment of Rs. 5 lakhs, the third instalment of Rs. 2 lakhs, and the fourth instalment of Rs. 3 lakhs, of a loan of Rs. 50 lakhs from Government.

CALCUTTA.

The Commissioners for the Port of Calcutta are as follows:—

Mr T. H. Elderton, *Chairman.*

Mr W. A. Burns, *Deputy Chairman and Traffic Manager.*

Elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce—
Mr. G. R. Campbell, Mr. A. L. B. Tucker,
Mr. M. A. Hughes, Mr. K. J. Nicolson;
Mr. S. D. Gladstone; Mr. J. Reid Kay.

Elected by the Calcutta Trades' Association.—
Mr C. H. Pratt

Elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce.—Rai Bahadur A. C. Banerjee, C.I.E.; Mr. Nalinin Ranjan Sarkar.

Elected by the Indian Chamber of Commerce.—
Mr. D. P. Khaitan.

Elected by the Muslim Chamber of Commerce—
Mr. Kassim A. Mohammad.

Elected by the Municipal Corporation of Calcutta.—Mr. Rajendra Narayan Banerjee.

Nominated by Government—Captain L. W. R. T. Turbett, O.B.E., R.I.N.; Mr. A. V. Venables, I.C., V.D., M.I.C.E., M.I.E. (Ind), Rai Bahadur B. R. Singh; Mr. V. E. D. Jarrad, Mr. W. J. Ward.

The principal officers of the Trust are:—

Secretary—Mr. C. W. T. Hook.

Traffic Manager.—Mr. W. A. Burns.

Chief Accountant—Mr. J. Dand, O.A.

Chief Engineer.—Mr. J. B. Rowley, A.R.O., M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator.—Commander C. V. L. Norcock, O.B.E., R.N.

Medical Officer.—Lt.-Col. F. J. Anderson, M.C., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.

Consulting Engineer and London Agent.—
Mr. J. Angus, M. Inst. C.E.

The traffic figures and the income of the Trust for the last fifteen years are as follows—

Year.	Docks.			Jetties	Stream.		Nett tonnage of shipping entering the Port.	Income
	General Exports	Coal Exports	Imports	Imports	Exports	Imports		
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons.	Tons	Tons.	Tons	Rs.
1914-15	920,859	2,633,805	700,133	917,978			3,714,314	1,44,50,349
1915-16	1,054,985	1,610,645	570,997	788,431			2,967,798	1,59,35,456
1916-17	1,185,159	1,994,528	444,210	686,010			2,804,680	1,57,23,432
1917-18	995,112	1,014,993	363,383	633,693			2,094,011	1,58,39,175
1918-19	1,097,562	1,333,285	482,403	574,833			2,292,462	1,90,58,513
1919-20	1,146,479	2,264,976	653,066	713,746			2,941,846	2,23,55,614
1920-21	1,133,719	3,040,400	413,357	685,080			4,017,514	2,66,08,032
1921-22	974,783	1,687,222	697,361	622,411			3,446,021	2,19,17,042
1922-23	1,414,166	1,174,041	804,109	680,053			3,336,723	2,64,76,522
1923-24	1,722,305	1,825,801	221,035	761,920			3,621,243	2,60,69,027
1924-25	1,779,054	1,495,915	290,412	874,714			3,845,788	2,78,23,364
1925-26	1,494,442	1,796,409	352,714	951,442	2,231,637	1,601,941	3,887,592	3,21,27,748
1926-27	1,465,854	2,476,794	455,577	963,297	2,344,800	1,518,885	4,177,118	3,12,02,183
1927-28	1,837,37	2,817,443	480,367	1,007,917	2,699,186	1,606,728	4,638,569	3,38,82,124
1928-29	1,750,969	2,644,256	1,164,631	1,049,668	2,524,201	1,706,559	4,818,831	3,41,82,729
1929-30	1,985,042	3,016,185	853,452	829,902	2,539,653	1,646,932	4,985,999	3,43,98,110
1930-31	1,440,371	2,389,393	646,844	553,317	2,146,837	1,552,502	4,381,953	2,83,73,490
1931-32	1,251,060	2,595,912	588,902	380,324	1,748,950	1,365,076	4,189,742	2,67,01,863
1932-33	1,123,420	2,559,136	362,023	469,513	1,605,432	1,332,672	3,828,983	2,46,56,651
1933-34	1,412,336	2,191,523	463,357	446,783	1,758,567	1,307,931	3,870,343	2,88,29,623

BOMBAY.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE PORT OF BOMBAY—Mr. G. Wiles, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (Chairman) Nominated by Government—Rear-Admiral A. E. F. Bedford, C.B., R.N., Mr. Sied Munawar, Mr. C. W. E. Arbuthnot, C.I.R., Major-General H. Needham, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Mr. I. H. Trueman, I.C.S. Sir Maurice Brashinsky, Kt. Mr. I. Wilson, Elected by the Bombay Chamber of Commerce—Mr. W. G. Ilevy, Mr. G. H. Cooke, Mr. J. I. Flockhart, Mr. F. H. French, Mr. R. C. Lowndes, Elected by the Indian Merchants' Chamber—Sir Purshotand Thakard, Kt., C.I.E., M.R.F., Mr. Lakshmin Rowjee, Mr. C. Mr. Goudhard, Councillor Moruji, Mr. A. D. Shroff, Mr. M. C. Mariani, Elected by the Municipal Corporation—Mr. Meyer, Mr. Mr. Honorable M. Ratan, Mr. Elected by the Municipal Corporation—Mr. A. Geddi.

The following are the principal officers of the Trust:—

Secretary, N. M. Morris, Deputy Secretary, A. S. Bakre, M.A., Bar-at-Law.

ACCOUNTS DEPARTMENT

Chief Accts., J. F. Pereira, B.A.; Deputy Accts., C. F. Lynn, M.A., A.A.A.; Sr. Audit. Accts., W. E. McDonnell, Accts. Accts., H. W. Scott, A. N. Moore, Junior Accts. Accts., O. Hyde, R. Cour-Palais, A. P. Javeri, Ceylon, V. D. Jox, P. Audit Inspector, M. J. Nair, J. P. D'Souza, S. J. D'Souza, S. J. D'Souza, S. J. D'Souza, H. N. Davis

ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT

Chief Engineer, G. E. Lemaire, M.Sc., M.I.E.E., C.E., M.I. Mech. E. Deputy Chief Engineer, A. Hale, M.I.E.E., M.I. Mech. E. Executive Engineer, G. E. Terry, A.M.I.C.E., J. A. Lofe, S.M.A.E.

Asstt. Engineers, P. L. Vazlidar, L.O.E., P. M. Surveyor, B.Sc. (Glas.), A.M.I.C.E., E. L. Everatt, A.M.I.C.E., H. N. Baria, L.O.E.; **Chief Draftsman**, L. B. Andrew, M.I. Struct. E.; **Personal Asst. to the Chief Engineer**, T. B. Hawkins; **Mechanical Superintendent**, B. B. McGregor, A.M.I.C.E.; **Asstt. Mechanical Superintendents**, B. C. Sharpe, A.M.I.C.E., S. J. Watt, M.L.E., D. V. Kohli, and A. C. Strolley, M.I. Mar. E. **Chief Foreman**, B. Shar.

DOCKS DEPARTMENT.

Manager, C. K. Rich, B.A.; **Deputy Managers**, F. A. Borkow, W. G. H. Templeton and T. Seymour Williams, D.S.O.; **Deputy Managers (Office)**, P. A. Davies; **Asstt. Managers**, 1st and 2nd Grade, E. C. Jolley, A. Mattoz, L. B. Welsh, T. J. Warder, E. J. Kall, D. L. Lyun, C. O. A. Martinez, P. B. Fenner, Mansuhoy Framji, Ardesbhir Manecji and A. R. J. **Cash Supervisor**, T. D'Alva, **Cashier**, Robert Fernandez

RAILWAY DEPARTMENT.

Manager, D. G. N. Mearns M. Inst. T., **Deputy Managers**, A. F. Watts and H. A. Geydon, **Asstt. Manager**, S. G. N. Shaw, P. M. Buce and M. L. A. Kizilbash, **Asstt. Traffic Supdt.**, W. H. Brady, **Office Supdt.**, Subrahmanya Paghunathan.

PORT DEPARTMENT.

Deputy Conservator, Captain A. G. Kinch, M.F.O., I.M. (Retd.); **Dock Master**, *Alexandra Dock*, J. L. Williams and C. B. M. Thomas; **Dock Master**, *Prince of Victoria Dock*, C. T. Wilson and G. Ireland; **Port Department**, **Inspector and Supdt. of Police**, Harbour Patrol, W. P. Blyth, **Office Supdt.**, Moses Samuel.

PIER ESTABLISHMENT

Harbour Master, L. G. Worthington; **Master Piers**, J. S. Nicholson and R. C. Vint

Piers, A. M. Thomson, H. W. L. T. Davies, H. H. Church, W. I. Brown, W. I. Ireland, H. H. Froilander W. Sutherland, H. Lloyd Jones, J. Conn, G. E. Luth, H. T. Lilliot, T. P. G. Warland, J. S. Haines and C. J. R. Williams

LAND AND BUILDINGS DEPARTMENT.

Manager, I. H. Taylor, F.E.I., M.F.S.I.; **Deputy Manager**, B. C. Durant; **Personal Asstt.**, J. L. Inchmuth, F.E.I., LL.B.; **Office Supdt.**, D. J. P. **Asstt. Manager**, W. H. Crombie, G. P. Watson and W. O'Brien; **Chief Inspector**, C. C. Battenberg.

STORES DEPARTMENT.

Controller of Stores, H. F. Lees, 1st Assistant, W. J. Wilson, 2nd Assistant, B. T. Davidson, **Statistical Engr.**, H. L. Barrett

MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

Administrative Medical Officer, Dr. F. D. Bana, M.B., M.R.C.S.; **Medical Officers**, (North District), Dr. A. D. Karkhanawalla, M.B.B.S., **Superintendent**, Antop Village, Dr. M. Vijayakar, L.M. & S.

The revenue of the Trust in 1933-34 amounted to Rs. 2,45,36,098 and the expenditure to Rs. 2,45,34,226. The result of the year's working was a deficit of Rs. 89,879 under General Account which has been met from the Revenue Reserve Fund, and a surplus of Rs. 62,351 under Pilotage Account, which has been transferred to the Vessels Replacement Fund. The balance of the Revenue Reserve Fund at the close of the year amounted to Rs. 55,30,386. The aggregate capital expenditure during the year was Rs. 85,800. The total debt of the Trust at the end of the year amounted to Rs. 20,45,17,753, repayment of which is provided for by annual sinking fund contributions from revenue, the accumulation of the sinking fund as at 31st March 1934 was Rs. 471 45 lakhs., in addition to this apart from property appreciation, the Reserve and other funds total Rs. 88 34 lakhs.

The trade of the Port of Bombay during the last official year aggregated Rs. 178 crores in value

The number of steam and square-rigged vessels which during recent years have entered the docks or been berthed at the harbour walls and paid dues, excluding those which have unloaded and loaded in the stream—

Year.	Number.	Tonnage nett.
1911 to 1916 (average)	1,608	3,437,354
1916 to 1921	2,086	4,758,888
1921 to 1926	1,062	4,574,817
1926 to 1931	1,054	4,740,570
1931-32	1,866	4,588,577
1932-33	1,836	4,691,183
1933-34	1,013	5,093,247

The two dry docks were occupied during the year 1933-34 by 149 vessels, the total tonnage amounting to 564,468 an excess of 67,483 tons over the previous year.

KARACHI.

TRUSTEES

Chairman—Colonel D. S. Johnston CIE
(Vice-Chairman—Lala Jagannath Lalaram
Randon, BSc, elected by the Board)
elected by the Karachi Indian Merchants
Association

APPOINTED BY GOVERNMENT

Collector of Customs—F. Buckney, B.A.
A. K. Homan (Divisional Superintendent,
North Western Railway).
Major J. C. Gain, MC (D.A.A. & Q.M.G.,
Sind Independent Brigade Area).
Mr. Ayub Khan, Bar-at-Law

ELECTED BY THE KARACHI CHAMBER OF
COMMERCE

W. D. Young, (Couper & Young).
J. W. Anderson, (Grahams Trading Co
Forbes (India) Ltd
G. H. Raschen, (Forbes, Forbes Campbell &
Co., Ltd), H. S. Bieg-Wither, O.B.E.,
(Furnish-Shell Oil Storage & Distributing
Co. of India, Ltd)

ELECTED BY THE KARACHI INDIAN MERCHANTS'
ASSOCIATION

Chellaram Shewram (Shewram Rewachand).
ELECTED BY THE BUYERS & SHIPPERS' CHAMBER
Ishwardas N. Mallik, (R. B. Jeshram Thakur-
das) Mohamed Ali A. K. Alavi, (Yusuf Ali
Abbhoy Karimji and Co)

ELECTED BY THE KARACHI MUNICIPAL
CORPORATION

Thimmas Wadhurnal, M.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-
Law.

The following gentlemen are the Trustees of
the Port of Madras:—

Officials.—G. G. Armstrong, O.B.E., M.C.,
V.D., V. Inst. T. (Chairman and Traffic
Manager), G. N. Bower, B.A.,
(Collector of Customs), Commander C. R.
Burt, R.N. (Presidency Port Officer).

Non Officials.—(1) Nominated by Government
H. N. Colam, Sir Percy Rothera, Et.,.,
O.B.E., M.Inst.C.E., I.M.E.

Representing Chamber of Commerce, Madras—
W. N. Browning, G. A. Bimbridge,
G. E. Hodgson F. Birley, M.C.

Representing Southern India Chamber of
Commerce, Madras—M. R. Ry. M. Ct. M.
Chandrasekhar Chettiyar Avergal; M. R.
M. G. Januram Chetty Gura

Representing Madras Trades Association.—
G. W. Edwards, L. A. Huth

Representing Southern India Ship & Hide
Traders Association—Yakub Hasan Sult.

Representing Madras Pice Goods Merchants'
Association—A. Jus Salhan Salah, B.A.

Principal Officers are—Port Engineer—
G. P. Alexander, V.C.E.

Deputy Engineer of the Port of Madras—
J. G. Leach, V.C.E.

Deputy Harbour Master—J. G. Leach. (On
leave of absence from 1st Dec 1933)

Chief Clerk—M. P. P. G. Venkatesh
P. V. S. S. S.

Major J. G. Leach, V.C.E., A.I.E.E., A.I.E.O.

Principal Officers of the Port Trust:—

Chief Engineer—W. P. Shepherd-Barrow
M.C.M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Chief Engineer—H. A. L. French,
V. Inst. C.E.

Chief Accountant—B. A. Inglet, B.A., C.A.

Traffic Manager—A. A. L. Flynn, V.D.
C.M.S.

Deputy Conservator—J. A. Scarr, M.B.E.

Chief Storekeeper—R. A. Donje

Secretary—L. J. Mascarenhas

Revenue Receipts and Expenditure of the
Port of Karachi for the year 1933-34

Revenue Receipts Rs 61,94,000 Special
Receipts Rs 63,000 Revenue Expenditure
Rs 71,000 Deficit Rs 3,14,000 Reserve
Fund Rs 59,32,000.

SHIPPING.

Number of vessels which entered the Port
during the year 1933-34 exclusive of vessels
put back and fishing boats was 3,119 with a
tonnage of 2,378,403 as against 3,234 with a
tonnage of 2,269,236 in 1932-33. 678 steamers
of all kinds entered the Port with a
tonnage of 2,237,280 against 841 and 2,134,669
respectively in the previous year. Of the 678
steamers 653 were of British Nationality.

The imports during the year totalled 724,000
tons against 745,000 tons in the previous year.
The shipments were 593,000 tons in 1933-34
against 914,000 in 1932-33.

The total volume of imports and exports
was 1,617,000 tons against 1,659,000 tons
in the previous year.

MADRAS.

Assistant Mechanical Engineer.—S. W.
White, M.I. Mar. E. & M.M.A.

1st Engineer and Dredging Master—I. G.
Cropper.

Assistant Engineer—M. R. Ry. V. Dayananda
Kamath Avergal, B.A., B.E., M.P. Ry. S.
Nagabushanam Aiyer Avergal, B.A., V.C.E.,
A.I.E.E.

Assistant Engineer (Electrical)—M. R. Ry. K.
Subramaniam Aiyer Avergal, B.E., A.I.E.E.

Harbour Master—A. Mackenzie.

Assistant Harbour Master—Mr. S. Pytl, V.D.,
Mr. L. T. Lewis, Mr. L. J. Whitlock.

Assistant Traffic Manager—M. R. Ry. M. S.
Venkateshram Avergal, B.A., L. A.
Abraham, B.A., F.C.I.

Deputy Chief Accountant—M. P. Ry. R.
Rangaswami Aiyer Avergal, B.A.

Deputy Chief Accountant (Engineering)—M.
R. Ry. V. Mathuram Aiyer Avergal, B.A.

Office Manager—M. P. Ry. G. M. Ganapathi
Aiyer Avergal.

The receipts of the Trust during 1933-34
on Revenue Account from all sources were
Rs. 27,57,074 as against Rs. 29,86,224 in 1932-33
and the gross expenditure out of revenue was
Rs. 27,57,074 as against Rs. 29,86,224 in
1932-33. No contribution was made by the
Government during 1933-34. The vessels with an
aggregate net registered tonnage of 24,700
tons called at the port during the year are as
last year's figure of 24 vessels with a net
registered tonnage of 24,700 tons.

RANGOON.

The personnel of the Commissioners for the Port of Rangoon is comprised of seventeen members—

Appointed by Government—Sir John Cherry, C.I.D., M.L.C. (Chairman); T. Cormack, C.A., Captain H. W. B. Lively, O.B.N., R.N., and A. O. Dean.

Ex-Officio.—Messrs H. O. Reynolds, I.C.S., (Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust), P. W. Singleton (Collector of Customs), and B. M. Crosthwaite, V.D., (Agent, Burma Railways).

Elected by the Burma Chamber of Commerce—Messrs M. L. Burnet, O. G. Wodehouse, M.L.C., R. B. Howison; and K. B. Harpor.

Elected by the Rangoon Trades Association—W. O. Penn

Elected by the Chinese Chamber of Commerce—K. B. Khwat

Elected by the Burma Indian Chamber of Commerce—S. N. Haji and A. W. Adamjee

Elected by the Burmese Chamber of Commerce—U. Thain Maung, B.A., M.V.R., (Vice-Chairman).

Elected by the Corporation of Rangoon—U. Thin Maung, M.L.C.

Principal Officer are—

Secretary.—O. Wilcher.

Chief Accountant.—S.A. Wetherfield, B.A., A.O.A.

Chief Engineer.—W. D. Batty, B.A., B.A.I., M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator.—H. N. Gilbert.

Traffic Manager.—J. J. B. Jeffery.

Port Surveyor.—Commander C. M. L. Scott, R.N. (Retd.).

The income and expenditure on revenue account for the Port of Rangoon in 1933-34 were.—

Income	Rs.	70,88,855
Expenditure	Rs.	72,12,288

The capital debt of the port at the end of the year was Rs. 5,21,28,667. The balance (including investments at cost) at the credit of the different sinking funds on 31st March 1934, was Rs. 2,21,82,458-7-3

The total sea-borne trade of Rangoon during the year 1933-34 was 5,066,333 tons of which 1,100,397 tons were imports, 3,913,932 tons exports and 21,081 tons transshipment. The total number of vessels (excluding Government vessels) entering the port was 1,052 with a total net registered tonnage of 4,215,903 showing an increase in the number of vessels and of 115,734 tons in the net tonnage as compared with the previous year.

CHITTAGONG.

Chittagong in Eastern Bengal, lying on the right bank of the river Karnafuli at a distance of 12 miles from the sea, was already an important Port in the sixteenth century, when the Portuguese gave it the name of Porto Grande.

The construction of the Assam-Bengal Railway has facilitated the transport of trade with Assam and Eastern Bengal for which the Port of Chittagong is the natural outlet.

Chittagong, Bengal, Lat 22° 21' N, Long. 91° 50' E, 1933 Pop 53,150.

TRADE

Imports.—Salt, mineral oil, machinery, tea estate stores, rice, coal and railway material.

Exports.—Wax, jute, tea, hides, cotton, capes, rice, paddy, eggs, poultry and livestock.

Accommodation.—Vessels of any size can proceed 9 miles up the Karnafuli to Chittagong at H.W.O.S draught of 23 ft to 26 ft.

There are 5 berths for ocean-going vessels at the Assam-Bengal Railway jetties, also two sets of fixed moorings

Jetties are 2,100 ft long, provided with hydraulic cranes 17 to lift 35 cwt and 4 to lift 10 tons, ample shed accommodation, and jetties are in direct rail communication with the Assam-Bengal Railway system, cargo in bulk being dealt with direct into wagons. Depth at jetties about 32 feet.

Provisions.—Fresh provisions, good drinking water and coal obtainable.

There are three river bars affecting navigation controlled by large suction dredger.

Night pilotage is in force except during the S.W. monsoon.

Charges.—Port dues 4 annas 6 pies, per reg. ton. Hospital dues 2 pies per reg. ton. Harbour Master's fee Rs. 32. Mooring and unmooring in fixed berths Rs. 32, swinging berths Rs. 16. Berth alongside jetties Rs. 10, per day, night work and holidays extra.

Pilotage not exceeding—	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
10 ft to 20 ft from	67	8 to 304
21 ft	337	8
22 ft	385	4
23 ft.	430	4
24 ft	480	0
25 ft	553	8
26 ft	634	8

Towage by Port Commissioners' Tug

Port Authority Port Commissioners, Chittagong

Officials.—Deputy Conservator, Lieut.-Commander, F. W. Angell, R.N., Port Engineer, F. J. Green, B.Sc., M.I.C.E., &c., Lloyds Agents, James Finlay & Co.

VIZAGAPATAM HARBOUR PROJECT.

The question of creating a harbour at Vizagapatam to supply an outlet for a large area of fertile country adjacent to the east coast of India, hitherto undeveloped, with considerable mineral resources and without suitable access to the outside world, was first formulated by the Bengal-Nagpur Railway Company. That the creation of such a port would have beneficial influence on this area was unquestioned, for it is pointed out that Vizagapatam, lying as it does in front of the only practicable gap in the barrier of the Eastern Ghats, is formed by nature to be the outlet of the Central Provinces, from which a considerable amount of trade has taken this route in the past, even with the imperfect communications, hitherto available. A necessary complement of the scheme was the construction of the proposed railway from Parvatipuram to Raipur now completed which, with the existing coastline of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway would make a large and rich area tributary to the proposed port, and obviate the long and expensive circuit by Calcutta. A link has also been supplied in the most direct route to Rangoon from Europe by way of Bombay, while, from an Imperial point of view, the provision of a fortified port on the long and almost unprotected stretch of coast between Colombo and Calcutta is held to be a consideration of great importance. The lofty projecting headland of the Dolphin's Nose would offer facilities for this purpose.

The Government of India with the approval of the Secretary of State and the Legislative Assembly, sanctioned the construction of the new railway line from Raipur to Parvatipuram. The work is completed and the line opened to traffic. They also decided to develop the port of Vizagapatam under their direct control and the port has accordingly been declared to be a major Port.

The work is being carried out by a staff of Engineers under direct charge of an Engineer-in-Chief who comes under the administrative charge of an Administrative Officer for the development scheme, a post which is held ex-officio by the Agent of the B. N. Railway. An Advisory Committee consisting of the above mentioned officers and representatives of the Local Government, the Vizagapatam Port Administration and the commercial interests concerned, has also been constituted to advise in the development of the Harbour.

The scheme for the construction and development of the Harbour will be carried out in stages according to the demand of trade. The first stage has been completed sufficiently to enable the Harbour to be opened. Ships started using the Harbour in October 1933 and the official opening by His Excellency the Viceroy took place on 18th December 1933.

The present provision includes a 1,000 ft. diameter Turning Basin together with access to the three quay Berths and an Entrance Chan-

nel dredged out to afford a passage 300 ft wide at the bottom. Vessels of 26 ft draft and 530 ft length are admitted at present and deepening is in progress to allow vessels of 28'-6" maximum draft to enter in the near future.

A quay wall comprising three 500 ft Berths has been completed and equipped with 3-ton electric cranes. Storage accommodation aggregating 140,000 sq ft of covered area, in three single storied sheds has been provided in the vicinity of the quay, equipped with full railway and road facilities. Two additional Sheds with lighter Berths are in course of construction for export cargo. Special facilities have been provided for the storage and shipment of manganese ore. In addition to the quays, four Mooring Berths have been installed, around the Basin and additional facilities provided for dealing with lightered cargo.

A large area of land has been reclaimed in the course of the dredging operations and it has been laid out in blocks served by broad roadways. Plots are available for office sites and for industrial concerns. Water supply and electric lighting have been arranged for.

The floating equipment of the Harbour comprises three tugs of 1,500, 600 and 450 H P. respectively.

A graving dock with an entrance 60 ft. 6 in. broad has been provided; but though adapted for future extension and for use by vessels larger than the dredging craft which now use it, length of ships is at present restricted to 300 feet.

The port is at present capable of dealing with lifts of 15 tons.

The sea entrance channel is protected on the South side by the provision of a sand trap and protecting Breakwater.

At present ships enter and leave the Harbour during day time only and pilotage is compulsory.

The future administration of the Port is still under consideration by the Government of India. At present, the Agent of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway holds Administrative charge of the Port. He is represented at Vizagapatam by a Deputy Conservator, which office is held ex-officio by the Engineer-in-Chief. All matters in connection with port traffic and land are under the charge of the Traffic Manager. The Port Railways are being worked by the B. N. Railway Company.

The principal officers are —

Administrative Officer.—V. E. D. Javed.

Engineer-in-Chief and Deputy Conservator —
O. B. Rattahary, F.S., M.I.C.E., M.I.E.

Traffic Manager.—E. G. Llewellyn, I.E.

Education.

Indian education is unintelligible except through its history. Seen thus, it affords the spectacle of a growth which, while to one it will appear as a blunder, and to another as an initial error easily avoided, to another it stands out as a symbol of liberality and honest endeavour on the part of a far-sighted race of rulers whose aim has been to place a people alien in sentiments and prejudices into the channels of thought and attitude habituated to fit them for the needs of modern life and modern India. There is to-day no subject in the whole area of administrative activity in India which presents greater complexities and differences of opinion than education. Government, local bodies and private persons of learning have in the past devoted their limited funds to meeting the demands of those who perceived the benefits of education, rather than to cultivating a desire for education where it did not exist. The result is that the structure has become top-heavy. The lower classes are largely illiterate, while the middle classes who constitute the bulk of the *intelligentsia* are in point of numbers at least educated to a pitch equal to that of countries whose economic conditions are more highly developed. As might be expected from this abnormal distribution of education, the form which it has eventually assumed contains corresponding defects. In recent years, however, strenuous efforts have been made to remedy these defects. Primary Education Acts have been passed in the several provinces in favour of the expansion of primary education among the masses. On the other hand, the numbers of students in colleges and universities have grown apace, and, especially during the period of financial depression, the volume of middle class unemployment has reached alarming proportions. A movement has therefore set in with the object of trimming the drift of unsuitable students to universities by means of a radical reconstruction of the school system of education.

The Introduction of Western Learning.—In the early days of its dominion in India, the East India Company had little inclination for the doubtful experiment of introducing western learning into India. Warren Hastings, the dominating figure of the time was a genuine admirer of the laws and literature of the East. His policy was to enable the ancient learning to revive and flourish under the protection of a stable government, and to interfere as little as possible with the habits and customs of the people. Even the Act of 1813 which set apart a lakh of rupees for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences was interpreted as a scheme for the encouragement of Sanskrit and Arabic. In the following year the Court of Directors instructed the Governor-General to leave the Hindus "to the practice of usage, long established among them, of giving instruction in their own homes, and to encourage them in the exercise and cultivation of their talents by the stimulus of honorary marks of distinction and in some cases by grants of pecuniary assistance." It was from sources other than Government that the desire for western knowledge arose in India. In 1810, David Hare, an English watchmaker in Calcutta, joined hands with the enlightened Brahmin, Mohan Roy, to institute the Hindu College for the promotion of western secular learning. The new institution

was attracted both by Christian missionaries and by orthodox Hindus, but its influence grew apace. Fifteen years later, the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal reported that a taste for English had been widely disseminated and that independent schools, conducted by young men reared in the Hindu College, were springing up in every direction. In Bombay, the Elphinstone Institution was founded in memory of the great ruler who left India in 1827. A still more remarkable innovation was made in 1835 by the establishment of the Calcutta Medical College, whose object was to teach "the principles and practice of medical science in strict accordance with the mode adopted in Europe." Many pronounced the fallacy of the undertaking to be fatalistic; for, under the Hindu custom the higher castes were forbidden to touch the dead. This objection was removed by Madam Cama's law, which a few years later permitted the admission of a human body, from that time onward Indians of the higher castes have devoted themselves with enthusiasm and with success to the study of medicine in all its branches.

Another trap into the introduction of western learning was the devotion of Christian missionaries. The humanitarian spirit, which had been kindled in England by Wesley, Burke and Wilberforce, influenced action also in India. Carey, Marshman and Ward opened the first missionary College at Serampore in 1818, and twelve years later, Alexander Duff reversed the whole trend of missionary policy in India by his insistence on teaching rather than on preaching, and by the foundation of his school and College in Calcutta. In Madras, the missionaries had been still earlier in the field, for as early as in 1767 a small group of missionary schools were being directed by Mr. Scherer. The Madras Christian College was opened in 1837. In Bombay, the Wilson School (afterwards College) was founded in 1831.

Lord William Bentinck's minute of 1835 (based upon Macaulay's famous minute) marks of somewhat tardy acceptance by Government of the new policy. Government then determined, while observing a neutrality in religious matters, to devote its available funds to the maintenance of secondary schools and colleges of western learning to be taught through the medium of English. But this decision did not entail that Oriental learning should be neglected; still less that the development of the vernaculars should be discouraged. Other chances powerfully contributed to the success of the new system. The freedom of the press was established in 1835, English was substituted for Persian as the language of the Courts in 1837, and in 1841 Sir Henry Hardinge ordained that preference in Government appointments should be given to those who had received a western education. In the following decade the new learning took firm root in India and, though the Muhammadans still held aloof, the demand for English schools outstripped the means of Government for providing them. Fortunately there has been of late a marked appreciation among Muslim leaders of the need of improving the instructional level of their co-religionists; and in many of the provinces of India a great impulse towards educational advance among the Muhammadan community is now noticeable.

GROWTH AND ORGANISATION OF ENGLISH EDUCATION.

An epoch in Indian educational history is marked by Sir Charles Wood's despatch in 1854. Perhaps its most notable feature was the emphasis which it laid on the importance of primary education. The old idea that the education imparted to the higher classes of society would filter down to the lower classes was discarded. The new policy was boldly "to combat the ignorance of the people which may be considered the greatest curse of the country." For this purpose Departments of Public Instructions were created on lines which do not differ very materially from the Departments of the present day. The despatch broke away from the practice followed since 1835 whereby most of the available public funds had been expended upon a few Government schools and colleges, and instituted a policy of grants-in-aid to private institutions. Such a system as this, placed in all its degrees under efficient inspection, beginning from the humblest elementary institution and ending with the university test of a liberal education would impart life and energy to education in India, and lead to a gradual but steady extension of its benefits to all classes of people. Another feature of the despatch was an outline of a university system which resulted in the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay three years later. The affixing type of university then became the pivot of the Indian education system. It has undoubtedly been of value in several ways. It enabled Government to select recruits for its service on an impartial basis. It did much, through the agency of its Colleges to develop backward places; it accelerated the conversion of Indians to a zeal for western education, and it cost little at a time when money was scarce. On the other hand, the new universities were not corporations of scholars, but corporations of administrators; they did not deal directly with the training of men, but with the examination of candidates; they were not concerned with learning, except in so far as learning can be tested by examination. The colleges were fettered by examination requirements and by uniform courses, their teachers were denied that freedom which teachers should enjoy and their students were encouraged not to value training for its own sake but as a means for obtaining marketable qualifications. In certain important respects the recommendations in the despatch were not followed. The Directors did not intend that university tests, as such, should become the sole tests qualifying for public posts, they also recommended the institution of civil service examinations. They did not desire the universities to be deprived of all teaching functions, they recommended the establishment of university chairs for advanced study. They were aware of the dangers of a too literary course of instruction; they hoped that the system of education would rouse the people of India to develop the vast resources of their country and generally, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce. The encouragement of the grant-in-aid system was

advocated to an even greater extent by the Education Commission of 1882, which favoured the policy of withdrawing higher education from the control of Government within certain limits and of stimulating private effort. In theory the decision was correct, but in practice it was irretrievably wrong. In its fatal desire to save money, Government deliberately accepted the mistaken belief that schools and colleges could be maintained on the low fees which the Indian parent could be expected to pay. And, in the course of time, an unworkable system of dual control grew up, whereby the Universities with no funds at their disposal were entrusted with the duty of granting recognition to schools and the Departments of Public Instruction were encouraged to cast a blind eye on the private institutions and to be content with the development of a few favoured Government institutions. There can be little wonder that, under such a system of neglect and short-sightedness, evils crept in which are now being removed gradually by the establishment of Independent Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education charged with the administration of the high school and intermediate stages of education.

The Reforms of 1902-4

In 1902, the Universities Commission was appointed by Lord Curzon's Government, and its investigation was followed by the Universities Act of 1904. The main object of the Act was to tighten up control, on the part of Government over the universities, and on the part of the universities over the schools and colleges. The Chancellors of the Universities were empowered to nominate 80 per cent. of the ordinary members of the Senates and to approve the election of the remainder. The Government retained the power of cancelling any appointment, and all university resolutions and proposals for the affiliation or disaffiliation of colleges were to be subject to Government sanction. The universities were given the responsibility of granting recognition to schools and of inspecting all schools and colleges, the inspection of schools being ordinarily conducted by the officers of the Department of Public Instruction. Permission was also given to the universities to undertake direct teaching functions and to make appointments, subject to Government sanction, for these objects but their scope was in practice limited to post-graduate work and research. The territorial limits of each university were defined, so that universities were precluded from any connexion with institutions lying outside those boundaries. Neither the Commission nor the Government discussed the fundamental problems of university organisation, but dealt only with the immediate difficulties of the Indian system. They did not inquire whether the existing system could be replaced by any other mode of organisation, nor whether all services which be placed under some public authority which would be representative of the universities and of the departments. They assumed the permanent validity of the existing system, its main features, and set themselves to improve and to strengthen it.

Statement of Educational Progress in British India.

	1927-28.	1928-29	1929-30.	1930-31	1931-32.	1932-33
Area in square miles	1,001,333	1,091,335	1,091,359	1,093,422	1,094,152	1,094,094
Population	127,042,063	127,042,463	127,043,304	140,077,750	140,077,258	140,022,643
{ Male	120,287,183	120,287,483	120,287,301	131,710,612	131,701,897	131,669,261
{ Female	6,754,880	6,754,980	6,756,003	8,367,138	8,375,361	8,353,382
Total Population	127,042,063	127,042,463	127,043,304	140,077,750	140,077,258	140,022,643
<i>Recognised Institutions for Males.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	217	223	222	224	223	228
Number of high schools*	2,497	2,556	2,612	2,724	2,801	2,886
{ English	3,391	3,521	3,663	3,798	3,875	3,902
{ Vernacular	5,134	5,486	6,706	5,927	5,501	5,790
Number of primary schools	163,618	171,396	172,696	172,330	168,835	166,736
<i>Male Scholars in Recognised Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges (a)	71,051	73,936	70,333	71,895	78,014	81,310
In high schools*	766,078	802,016	813,715	844,707	862,517	873,216
Middle Schools	380,880	408,097	422,721	412,182	410,159	400,344
{ English	630,650	690,017	713,235	722,866	731,121	737,271
{ Vernacular	7,031,534	7,213,518	7,332,674	7,381,190	7,377,237	7,364,183
In primary schools	7,229	7,710	7,67	6,99	6,96	6,91
Percentage of male scholars in Recognised Institutions to male population.						
<i>Recognised Institutions for Females.</i>						
Number of arts colleges ‡	10	19	10	20	20	24
Number of high schools*	262	274	302	312	324	328
Middle Schools	295	311	318	339	341	360
{ English	417	420	401	441	400	483
{ Vernacular	28,631	30,502	31,403	32,154	32,045	33,170

* High Schools include vernacular high schools also in some provinces.

‡ Includes Intermediate and Second Grade Colleges of the new type.

(a) Includes scholars in University Departments and the Intermediate and Second Grade Colleges (including Intermediate colleges of the new type)

Statement of Educational Progress in British India—contd.

	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
<i>Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In art colleges (a)	2,000	2,280	2,702	2,744	2,000	3,580
In high schools	62,770	60,540	70,605	85,870	90,180	90,180
.. .. { English	30,807	40,585	44,184	48,272	51,315	55,038
.. .. { Vernacular	29,365	101,500	113,188	122,625	130,113	130,712
In primary schools	1,081,411	1,900,073	1,891,406	1,981,549	2,077,103	2,107,502
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population.	1.58	1.60	1.79	1.72	1.80	1.88
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS in recognised institutions.</i>						
.. .. { Male	9,200,200	9,515,109	9,748,740	9,700,083	9,752,937	9,715,753
.. .. { Female	1,800,800	2,032,398	2,140,853	2,200,154	2,309,520	2,176,384
Total	11,001,000	11,547,507	11,889,593	12,000,237	12,062,457	12,192,137
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions</i>						
Percentage of total scholars to population.	11.775,222	12,105,830	12,515,126	12,689,080	12,706,537	12,853,532
.. .. { Male	770	780	807	736	731	732
.. .. { Female	1.06	1.78	1.88	1.80	1.80	1.08
Total	4.70	4.02	5.00	4.07	1.70	4.73
<i>Number of Pupils in Class IV..</i>						
.. .. { Male	717,931	704,176	708,051	877,033	882,053	893,753
.. .. { Female	285,522	33,284	103,005	120,404	133,783	110,030
Total	803,453	857,400	899,010	998,407	1,016,136	1,010,383
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>						
From provincial revenue	Rs. 12,00,92	Rs. 13,18,10	Rs. 13,25,38	Rs. 13,60,97	Rs. 12,16,01	Rs. 11,35,50
From local funds	2,52,71	2,59,25	2,75,00	2,81,17	2,80,01	2,51,08
From municipal funds	1,20,17	1,31,80	1,40,56	1,51,12	1,58,17	1,52,38
Total expenditure from public funds	10,15,80	17,12,24	17,60,93	17,99,26	10,81,19	16,12,50
From fees	5,14,72	5,78,18	6,01,61	6,14,50	6,22,70	6,20,60
From other sources	3,02,26	4,16,00	3,88,17	4,17,70	4,11,08	4,06,60
<i>GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE</i>	23,32,78	27,07,42	27,12,82	28,31,61	27,18,57	25,78,76

* High schools include vernacular high schools also in some provinces.

(a) Includes scholars in University Departments and in the Intermediate and Second Grade Colleges (including Intermediate colleges of the new type).

N.B.—In the educational tables of most provinces the new census figures of 1931 have been used; hence the percentages for 1931 are not strictly comparable with those for 1930.

Recent Developments.

Government of India Revolution in Indian Educational Policy.—The Indian Universities Act of 1904 was followed by two important revolutions of the Government of India on Indian Educational Policy—one in 1904 and the other in 1913. The resolution of 1904 was comprehensive in character and reviewed the state of education in all its departments. The following picture from its summary is the intention of Government.—

"The progressive evolution of primary, secondary and collegiate education upon private enterprise and the continuous withdrawal of Government from competition therewith was recommended by the Educational Commission in 1883 and the advice has generally been acted upon. But while accepting this policy, the Government of India at the same time recognises the extreme importance of the principle that in each branch of education Government should maintain a limited number of institutions, both as models for private enterprise to follow and in order to uphold a high standard of education. In withdrawing from direct management it is further essential that Government should retain a general control, by means of efficient inspection, over all public educational institutions." The comprehensive instructions contained in this resolution were followed in the next few years by the appointment to the provinces of local Imperial grants, mainly for University, technical and elementary education. The resolution of 1913 advocated, *inter alia*, the establishment of additional but smaller Universities of the teaching type, it reaffirmed the policy of reliance on private effort in secondary education, it recommended an increase in the salaries of teachers and improvement in the amount of grant-in-aid, and it insisted on proper attention being paid to the formation of character in the education given to scholars of all grades. It further directed the desirability of imparting manual instructions and instruction in hygiene; the necessity for medical inspection, the provision of facilities for research, the need for the staffing of the girls' schools by women teachers and the expansion of facilities for the training of teachers. The policy outlined in 1913 materially accelerated progress in the provinces, but the educational developments foreshadowed were in many cases delayed owing to the effects of the Great War.

Department of Education, Health and Lands of the Government of India.—In 1910 a Department of Education was established in the Government of India with an office of its own and a Member to represent it in the Executive Council. The first Member was Sir Harcourt Butler. In 1923, the activities of the Department were widened, in the interests of economy, by absorption in it of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture. The enlarged Department has been designated the Department of Education, Health and Lands. Kunwar Jagdish Prasad and Mr. G. S. Bajpai are the present Member and Secretary, respectively. The Department possesses an educational adviser styled Educational Commissioner.

The present Educational Commissioner is Sir George Anderson, Bt., C.S.I., C.I.E., who has an eminent intellectual and wide experience and has served on several Commissions and Committees on Education in India.

Calcutta University Commission.—The Report of the Calcutta University Commission was published in June 1919 and in the following January the Government of India issued a resolution summarising the main features of the Report and the recommendations of the Commission.

The Government of India drew special attention to the following points in the Report:—

- (i) High schools fail to give that breadth of training which the developments of the country and new streams of employment demand.
- (ii) The intermediate section of University education should be recognized as part of school education and should be separated from the University organization.
- (iii) The defects of the present system of affiliated colleges may be alleviated by the establishment of a strong central teaching body, the incorporation of unitary universities (as occasion arises), a modification of the administrative machinery which will admit of fuller representation of local interests, and supervision of different classes of institutions by several appropriately constituted bodies.

The Commission gave detail suggestions for the reorganization of the Calcutta University, for the control of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal and for the establishment of a unitary teaching University in Dacca. These measures concerned only Bengal but it was generally recognized that some of the criticism made by the Commissioners admit of a wider application. Committees were consequently appointed by the Universities of Madras, Bombay, Patna and the Punjab to consider the findings of the Commission. In the United Provinces two committees were appointed, one to prepare a scheme for a unitary teaching University at Lucknow, the second to consider measures for the reorganization of the Allahabad University and the creation of a Board to control secondary and intermediate education.

In Bengal the first outcome of the Commission's Report was the passing of the Dacca University Act in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920. It is remarkable that the University which appears to have been least affected by the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission has been the Calcutta University itself. In spite of many discussions and draft proposals by both the University and the Government the organisation of the Calcutta University has remained unaffected.

The Reforms Act.—The Reforms Act of 1919 has altered the conditions of educational administration in India. Education is now a 'transferred' subject in the Governors' provinces and is, in each such Province, under the charge of a Minister. There are, however, some exceptions to this new order of things.

The education of Europeans is a 'Provincial reserved' subject, i.e., it is not within the charge of the Minister of Education; and to the Government of India are still reserved matters relating to Universities like Aligarh, Benares and Delhi and all such new universities as may be declared by the Governor-General in Council to be central subjects. The Government of India are also in charge of the Chiefs' Colleges and of all institutions maintained by the Governor-General in Council for the benefit of members of His Majesty's Forces or of other public servants or of the children of such members or servants.

Hartog Committee on Education—The most notable event in recent years has been the appointment of the Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission, under the Chairmanship of Sir Philip Hartog, to report on the growth of education in India. The report of the Committee, which was published in 1920, constitutes a valuable document on the present state of education in India.

Lindsay Commission—Another Commission, which deserves mention, was appointed in 1929 by the International Missionary Council to investigate the various problems connected with the higher education provided by the various Missionary bodies working in India. It was presided over by Dr A. D. Lindsay, Master of Balliol College, Oxford. The Commission visited India in 1930-31 and its report was published in 1931.

The Punjab University Enquiry Committee was appointed in 1932 and submitted its report in the following year. The committee reported that "the University is overburdened by the immense area of its jurisdiction and by the ever-increasing number of its students many of whom are ill-fitted for such education." The main recommendation was that the school system should be re-adjusted so that many pupils would be diverted at an earlier age to vocational and other forms of education.

Administration—The transfer of Indian education to the charge of a Minister responsible to the Provincial Legislative Council, of which he himself is an elected member, has brought the subject directly under popular control in the ten major provinces. Generally speaking, education, excluding European education, is not, however, under the charge of a single Minister in all the provinces of India. Certain forms of education have been transferred to the technical departments concerned and come within the purview of the Minister in charge of those departments. In each province, the Director of Public Instruction is the administrative head of the Department of Education and acts as adviser to the Education Minister. He controls the inspecting staff and the teaching staff of Government institutions and is generally responsible to the local government for the administration of education. The authority of Government, in controlling the system of public instruction, is in part shared with and in part delegated to Universities as regards higher education and to local bodies as regards elementary and vocational education. In some provinces, boards of secondary, or of secondary and intermediate, education have also been set up and have to some extent relieved the Universities in those

provinces of their responsibilities in connection with intermediate education and with entrance to a University course of studies. Institutions under private management are controlled by Government and by local bodies by "recognition" and by the payment of grants-in-aid, with the assistance of the inspecting staff employed by Government and in rarer cases by local bodies.

Educational Services.—Until recently, the educational organisation in India consisted mainly of three services—(i) the Indian Educational Service, (ii) the Provincial Educational Service, and (iii) the Subordinate Educational Service. The Indian Educational Service came into existence as a result of the recommendations made by the Public Service Commission of 1886, and in 1896 the Superior Educational Service in India was constituted with two divisions—the Indian Educational Service staffed by persons recruited in England and the Provincial Educational Service staffed by persons recruited in India. These two divisions were originally considered to be collateral and equal in status, though the pay of the European recruit was higher by approximately 50 per cent. than the pay of the Indian recruit. Gradually, however, status came to be considered identical with pay and the Provincial Educational Service came to be regarded of inferior status to the Indian Educational Service. Later as a result of the recommendations of the Illington Commission of 1912-16, the Indian Educational Service was formed into a superior educational service and all posts were thrown open to Indian recruitment. The Provincial Educational Service was simultaneously reorganised and a number of posts, generally with their Indian incumbents, were transferred to the superior service. This reorganisation resulted in a considerable Indianisation of the superior educational services in India. It was then laid down that the proportion of Indians in this service should on an average be 50 per cent of the total strength, excluding the posts in Burma.

In 1924, all recruitment to the Indian Educational Service was stopped as a result of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the superior services in India. The Commission recommended that "for the purposes of local Governments no further recruitment should be made to the all-India services, which operate in transferred fields. The personnel required for these branches of administration should in future be recruited by local Governments." The Commission further recommended in regard to the question of the future recruitment of Europeans that "It will rest entirely with the local Governments to determine the number of Europeans who may in future be recruited. In this matter the discretion of local Governments must be unfettered but we express the hope that Ministers of the Crown will endeavour to obtain the co-operation of Europeans in the technical departments and that qualified Europeans on the other hand may be prepared to take service with local Governments. It is clear that in the past the recruitment of Europeans has been largely under the control of the Secretary of State. As a result of the acceptance of the recommendations of the Indian Educational Service Commission, with the freedom of recruitment to the

members, the history of the service which has had a brief but fine record will be brought to an end. The present organisation of education in the provinces is largely the work of members of this service; while in the sphere of higher education, it has trained many men of more than ordinary attainments.

The new Provincial Educational Services, which function under provincial control as the superior educational services, have been constituted in most provinces. These schemes vary from province to province, but it may be generally remarked that, while the rates of pay are not uniform, they consist of two main classes—class I into which the existing Indian Educational Services have been merged for the time being,

and class II which may be said to represent the old Provincial Educational Service.

The existing Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services in the provinces have been affected, more in some provinces than others, by the changes which have taken place since 1919. Communal interests have influenced recruitment, and in some places they have influenced promotions also, in a direction which has not always tended towards service contentment. But these results are the natural consequences of the devolution of control of education and power of recruitment to provincial and local authorities and will for some time continue to affect the efficiency of the Education Departments in the provinces.

Statistical Progress.

The two tables given below afford useful comparisons with previous years and serve to illustrate the growth and expansion of education in India.

(a) STUDENTS.

Year.	In Recognised Institutions.			In All Institutions (Recognised and Unrecognised).		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total
1916-17	6,050,840	1,156,468	7,207,308	6,621,527	1,230,419	7,851,946
1921-22	6,401,434	1,340,842	7,742,275	6,962,979	1,418,422	8,381,401
26-27	8,777,739	1,751,611	10,529,350	9,315,140	1,842,356	11,157,496
27-28	9,260,266	1,899,890	11,160,156	9,778,787	1,996,445	11,775,222
1928-29	9,515,109	2,032,388	11,547,497	10,028,086	2,137,753	12,165,839
1929-30	9,743,749	2,149,853	11,893,602	10,256,914	2,258,212	12,515,126
1930-31	9,796,683	2,260,154	12,056,837	10,313,493	2,375,593	12,689,086
1931-32	9,752,937	2,369,529	12,122,466	10,278,888	2,492,649	12,766,537
1932-33	9,715,753	2,476,884	12,192,137	10,247,002	2,606,470	12,853,532

(b) EXPENDITURE.

Year.								Total expenditure on education in British India.	
								Public Funds.	Total.
								Rs.	Rs.
1916-17	6,14,80,471	11,28,83,068
1921-22	11,49,61,178	18,37,52,969
1926-27	15,59,23,968	24,58,47,572
1927-28	16,45,80,915	25,82,78,819
1928-29	17,12,24,514	27,07,32,253
1929-30	17,50,03,644	27,42,82,018
1930-31	17,99,26,248	28,31,61,446
1931-32	16,84,19,016	27,18,56,622
1932-33	15,39,56,219	25,78,75,868

In 1932-33 the total expenditure on education in British India amounted to Rs 25,78,75,868 of which 44.0 per cent came from Government funds 15.8 per cent from District Board and Municipal funds 24.4 per cent, from fees and 15.8 per cent from all other sources.

The average annual cost per scholar amounted to Rs 21-2-5 as follows: to Government funds Rs. 9-5-0, to local funds Rs. 3-5-5, to fees Rs 5-2-8 and to other sources Rs 3-5-4.

It may be noted that, out of a total of 9,377,743 pupils in primary and secondary schools for boys, 3,816,360 pupils were enrolled in Class I or the lowest class alone. In the case of primary and secondary schools for girls, the corresponding figures were 2,452,753 and 1,441,095. There is thus much wastage and stagnation in the lowest classes. Efforts are being made in all provinces to check this wastage, but the evil cannot be eradicated so long as the number of single-teacher schools is not appreciably reduced.

The different types of institutions with the scholars in attendance at them are shown in the following table —

Types of Institutions.	Number of Institutions		Number of Scholars	
	1932	1933	1932.	1933.
<i>Recognised Institutions.</i>				
Universities	16	16	9,091	10,041
Arts Colleges	243	252	72,351	75,329
Professional Colleges	74	72	18,048	18,391
High Schools	3,125	3,224	955,051	978,702
Middle Schools	10,616	10,537	1,342,465	1,318,365
Primary Schools	201,470	199,706	9,454,360	9,531,070
Special Schools	7,200	6,759	271,094	259,339
Total of Recognised Institutions	222,804	220,566	12,122,466	12,192,137
Unrecognised Institutions ..	34,988	34,781	644,071	661,395
Grand total of all Institutions	257,792	255,347	12,766,537	12,853,532

Primary Education.—The primary schools are mainly under the direction of the local boards and municipalities. In recent years, eight provincial legislatures have passed Primary Education Acts authorising the introduction of compulsory education by local option. All the Acts are drafted on very similar lines. If a local body at a special meeting convened for the purpose decides by a two-thirds majority in favour of the introduction of compulsion in any part of the area under its control, it may then submit to Government, for approval, a scheme to give effect to its decision. The scheme must be within the means of the local body to carry out with reasonable financial assistance from Government. Ordinarily the age limits of compulsion are from six to ten years though provision is made for prolonging the period. Provision is also made in all the Acts for the exemption of particular classes and communities and for special exemption from attendance in cases

of bodily infirmity. Walking distance to a school is generally defined as one mile from the child's home. The employment of children, who should be at school, is strictly forbidden and a small fine is imposed for non-compliance with an attendance order. The Acts generally provide that, subject to the sanction of the local Government, education where compulsory shall be free. The Madras Elementary Education Act of 1920 contained such provision, but it has recently been amended so as to allow fees to be charged in school's under private management situated in areas where education is compulsory, reserving however a number of free places for poor pupils in such schools in areas where there are no free schools. Such in brief are the ordinary provisions of the various provincial Education Acts. Local bodies have not however shown as yet any great activity in availing themselves of the opportunities afforded them by these Acts.

Compulsory Primary Education—The following tables show the urban and rural areas in which compulsion had been introduced by the year 1932-33—

Province	Acts.	Areas under "Compulsion"		
		Urban area	Rural areas	No of Villages in Rural areas
Madras	Elementary Education Act, 1920	05	7	101
Bombay	Primary Education (District Municipalities Act 1918)	1	.	.
	City of Bombay Primary Education Act, 1920	(a) 1	.	.
Bengal	Primary Education Act, 1923	7	2	150
	Primary Education Act, 1919 & 1930	1	.	.
United Provinces	Primary Education Act, 1919	36	.	.
	District Boards Primary Education Act, 1926	.	24	351
Punjab	Primary Education Act, 1910	60	3,013	.
Bihar and Orissa	Primary Education Act, 1919	1	2	2
Central Provinces and Berar	Primary Education Act, 1920	21	131	431
Assam	Primary Education Act, 1926	.	.	.
Delhi	(Punjab Act extended to Delhi, 1925)	(b) 1	10	10
Total		155	3,332	

(a) Two Wards

(b) Six Wards.

N.B.—This table does not include areas for which schemes of compulsory primary education are under consideration or have been sanctioned but not yet introduced. It includes, on the other hand, areas in which such schemes have been partially introduced.

The poverty of local bodies is usually the cause assigned to their diffidence to introduce compulsory education to any appreciable extent.

Secondary and High School Education.—Some attempts have been made to give a greater bias towards a more practical form of instruction in these schools. The Commission of 1882 suggested that there should be two sides in secondary schools, "one leading to the entrance examination of the universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial and other non-literary pursuits." Some years later, what were called B and C classes were started in some schools in Bengal but, as they did not lead to a university course, they have not been successful. In more recent years the Government of India have advocated the institution of a school final examination in which the more practical subjects may be included. Efforts have also been made to improve the conduct of the matriculation and to emphasise the importance of oral tests and of school records. In Madras, this examination, which was placed under the direction of a Board representative of the University and of Government, proved somewhat cumbersome and certain modifications were made in the United Provinces and the Central Provinces the control of secondary education has been made over to special Boards created for this purpose. Similarly, the Administration of Delhi has established a Board of Secondary Education for that province and the Government of India have established a Board of Intermediate and High School Education, with headquarters at Ajmer, for Rajputana, Central India and Gwalior. In

the Punjab the school leaving examination is conducted by a Board. But the main difficulty has not yet been touched. The University which recognises the schools has no money wherewith to improve them and the Department of Public Instruction, which allots the Government grants, has no responsibility for the recognition of schools and no connexion whatever with the private unaided schools. This dual authority and this division of responsibility have had unhappy effects. The standard of the schools also is very low so that the matriculates are often unable to benefit by the college courses. In some provinces an endeavour has been made to raise the standard of the schools by withdrawing from the University the intermediate classes and by placing them in a number of the better schools in the State.

As has already been stated, there is now a widespread desire to cure these evils by a radical reconstruction of the school system of education. The main defect of the present system is that all pupils, even those in the primary stages, are educated on the assumption that they will ultimately proceed to a university. In consequence, very many pupils drift on to a university and prolong unduly their purely literary studies. In order to counteract this tendency, the school system should be divided into separate stages, each with a clearly defined objective released from the trammels of a university. On the successful completion of each stage, pupils should be encouraged either to join the humbler occupation of life or to proceed to separate vocational institutions, which should be provided in more ample measure than at present.

Reconstruction along these general lines was first proposed by the Punjab University Committee, and was subsequently endorsed by the Universities Conference which met in Delhi in 1934. Its details have been worked out in later detail in an important Resolution of the Government of the United Provinces later in the same year.

There are schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians which are placed under the control of special inspectors for European Schools. The education of the domiciled community has proven to be a perplexing problem, and in 1912 a conference was summoned at Simla to consider the matter. The difficulty is that European Schools are very remote from the general system of education in India. But efforts are being made to bring these schools more into line with the ordinary schools, and Indian Universities generally are affording special facilities for Anglo-Indian boys who may proceed for higher education in Indian colleges.

Recently, as a result of the recommendations made by the Irwin Sub-Committee of the Third Indian Round Table Conference, Provincial Boards for Anglo-Indian and European Education have been constituted in almost all Provinces, and an Inter-Provincial Board has also been constituted, the first meeting of which was held in January 1935 under the auspices of the Government of India.

Medium of instruction in public schools—The position of English as a foreign language and as a medium of instruction in public schools was discussed by a representative conference which met at Simla in 1917 under the Chairmanship of Sir Sankaran Nair, the then Education Member. Although it was generally conceded that the teaching of school subjects through a medium which was imperfectly understood led to cramming and memorising of text-books, the use of English medium was defended by some on the ground that it improved the knowledge of English. The result of the conference was therefore inconclusive. Some local authorities have since then approved of schemes providing for the recognition of local vernaculars as media of instruction and examination in certain subjects. There seems to be no doubt that the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction and examination is gradually increasing all over India.

The main difficulty, however, is that school classes have often to be split up at considerable expense into a number of language sections. This problem needs further investigation, especially in the direction of evolving a common script for at least a single province, if not for the whole of India. In this connection, Mr. A. Latif, I.C.S., has done good pioneer work in respect to the Romanised Urdu Script.

Boy Scout Movement—A happy development in recent years has been the spread of the boy scout movement which has had an excellent effect in all provinces in creating amongst boys an active sense of good discipline.

It is gratifying that intimate contact is being established between the Boy Scout Movement and the Junior Red Cross and St. John's Ambulance Associations, as well as with movements for social uplift and improvement of village conditions.

Girl Guide Movement—This movement is making steady progress. There is, however, a lack of those competent and willing to give instruction.

Medical Inspection—Arrangements have been made for medical inspection of scholars but progress has been hampered by the shortage of funds and the continued indifference of parents. In the United Provinces, schools are now inspected by officers of the Public Health Department. In Madras, the scheme of medical inspection of schools has been made compulsory in all Government institutions, and it has been made a condition of recognition that all secondary schools should introduce the scheme. As a measure of economy, however, the payment of grants for medical inspection has been suspended, but the question of reorganising the system on an improved basis is under consideration. Owing to lack of funds, it has not been possible for the Bombay Government to set up an agency to direct and organise medical inspection work in schools on a satisfactory basis. In Burma, the grants-in-aid for medical inspection have been temporarily suspended on account of retrenchment, but most medical officers have continued the inspection of pupils without remuneration. In Bihar & Orissa, certain posts of school medical officers were abolished in 1932, for the same reason, but it has since been found possible to revive them. There is, however, still need for adequate facilities for the treatment of children suffering from diseases. In a few towns in the Punjab, satisfactory arrangements exist not only for medical inspection but also for effective treatment, and an extension of this useful scheme is under contemplation.

The activities of Junior Red Cross and St. John Ambulance Societies have been particularly beneficial in improving the health of school children and in interesting them in the health of others.

Intermediate Colleges—One important part of the Calcutta University Commission's recommendations has been accepted by the Government of the United Provinces and the Government of India and incorporated in the Acts establishing the Lucknow and Dacca and reconstituting that of Allahabad, namely, the separation of the intermediate classes from the sphere of university work and of the two top classes of night schools from the rest of the school classes. The separated classes have been combined together and the control over them has been transferred from the University to a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education. Such a Board was constituted for the Dacca University area by a notification of the Government of Bengal in 1921.

The United Provinces Board was constituted by an Act passed in the same year. The Aligarh Muslim University has, however, reverted to the old system under which the intermediate classes form part of the University, and the separate Intermediate College has been abolished. In Ajmer-Merwara, the intermediate classes are under a separate Board which operates in Rajasthan, Central India and Gwalior. Intermediate Colleges of the same type have also been established in the Punjab, but they are still tied to the Punjab University.

Professional and Technical Education—A research institute in agriculture was started by Lord Curzon at Pusa in Bihar, which has done valuable work. Conferences have been held at Pusa, Shimla and Poona, with the object of providing a suitable training in agriculture. A Royal Commission on Agriculture has submitted its report and as a result of its recommendations an Imperial Council of Agricultural Research has been established by the Government of India at their headquarters. Among commercial colleges, the most important is the Sydenham College of Commerce in Bombay. Industrial institutions are scattered about India, some maintained by Government, others by municipal bodies or local boards, and others by private bodies. The most important are the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute in Bombay, The Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore, the product of generous donations by the Tata family. The tendency in recent years has been to place these institutions under the control of

the Departments of Industries. In addition to a number of engineering schools, there are Engineering Colleges at Doodhice, Siliguri, Poona, Madras, Ranchi, Patna and Benares each of which except that at Doodhice is affiliated to a university. The engineering colleges maintain a high standard and great pressure for admission is reported from several provinces. There are schools of art in the larger towns where not only architecture and the fine arts are studied, but also practical crafts like pottery and iron work. There are two forest colleges at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore and a Technical Institute is in existence at Cawnpore and a Mining School at Dhanbad. Mining and metallurgy are also taught by the Mining and Metallurgical College at Dehra Dun which provides a 4-year course leading to a B.Sc. degree in each subject. Provision has been made by the Government of India for the training of cadets for the Merchant Marine Service and a ship "I.M.T.S. Dufferin" has been stationed for this purpose in Bombay waters.

The following table shows in summary form the number of institutions and of students attending them—

Type of Institution	1932		1933.	
	Institutions.	Students	Institutions.	Students.
I. Colleges—				
Training	21	1,462	22	1,590
Law	12	7,151	12	7,632
Medical	11	4,075	11	4,447
Engineering ..	7	2,171	7	2,142
Agricultural ..	8	941	8	871
Commercial ..	7	1,860	6	2,052
Forest	2	87	2	67
Veterinary ..	4	449	4	438
Total	73	18,337	72	18,862
II. Schools—				
Normal and Training ..	654	28,768	592	27,876
Law	2	127	2	113
Medical	31	6,719	32	7,655
Engineering ..	11	2,052	11	1,926
Technical and Industrial ..	453	26,711	451	25,645
Commercial ..	135	6,246	132	5,411
Agricultural ..	13	564	12	492
Forest	1	1	1	68
Schools of Art	16	2,454	15	2,128
Total	1,325	72,531	1,248	69,706
GRAND TOTAL ..	1,398	91,768	1,320	88,567

Universities.

The first University in India, that of Calcutta, was founded in 1857. Between 1857 and 1857 four new Universities, at Bombay, Madras, Lahore and Allahabad were added. These five universities were all of the affiliating type. The Government of India had recognised in their resolution of 1913 the necessity of creating new local teaching and residential universities in addition to the existing affiliating

universities. The development of this policy was accelerated by the strength of communal feeling and the growth of local and provincial patriotism, leading to the establishment of a number of teaching universities. The new type of universities has since been strongly advocated by the Calcutta University Commission which has offered constructive proposals as to the lines to be followed in university reform.

There are now 18 Universities in India, of which two are situated in Indian States. The following table gives the latest available figures and certain other particulars about these Universities —

Statistics of Universities—1933

University	Type †	Original Date of Foundation	Faculties ‡	No of Members of Teaching Staff		No of Students		No of Students who graduated in Arts and Science in 1932	REMARKS.
				In University Departments	In Affiliated Colleges §	In University Departments	In Affiliated Colleges §		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Calcutta	Affiliating and Teaching.	1857	A, Sc, L, M, Eng.	231	1,364	1,391	24,021	2,309	Degrees in Commerce and Education are also awarded
2. Bombay	Affiliating and Teaching	1857	A, Sc, L, M	4	621	102	15,223	1,373	Degrees in Commerce, Education, Agriculture and Engineering are also awarded.
3. Madras	Affiliating and Teaching	1857	A, Sc, Ed, L, M, Eng, Ag, Com, O, F A	31	1,260	130	15,374	2,168	Degrees and Diplomas in Oriental Learning and Economic are also awarded.
4. Punjab	Affiliating and Teaching	1882	O, A, Sc, M, L, Ag, Com, Eng	98	983	168	16,526	1,409	Faculty of Arts includes Law
5. Allahabad	Unitary	1887	A, Sc, L, Com.	108	..	689	..	424	Reconstituted in 1921.
6. Benares Hindu	Unitary	1916	A, Sc, O, Th, L, M	..	215	..	3,303	291	..
7. Mysore*	Teaching	1916	A, Sc, M, Eng & Teach	..	282	..	2,634	286	Degrees in Commerce and Education are also awarded
8. Patna	Affiliating	1917	A, Sc, L, Edn, M, Eng	..	331	..	4,276	285

* Situated in an Indian State outside British India

‡ In constitution of 1932.

† An "Affiliating" University is a University which recognises external colleges of instruction in its courses of studies; a "Teaching" University is one in which some of the teaching is controlled and conducted by teachers appointed by the University; a "Unitary" University is one, usually localised in a single centre, in which the whole of the teaching is conducted by teachers appointed by and under the control of the University.

‡ Faculties — A = Arts; Ag = Agriculture, Com = Commerce, Ed = Education (Teaching), Eng = Engineering; F = Forestry, FA = Fine Arts, L = Law; M = Medicine, O = Oriental Learning, Sc = Science; Tech = Technology; Th = Theology.

§ The term "Affiliated Colleges" here includes all colleges related to, or recognised by a University of any type.

Inter-University Board—The idea put forward by the Indian Universities Conference in May 1924 for the constitution of a central agency in India took practical shape and an Inter-University Board came into being during 1925. Twelve out of fifteen universities joined the Board. Its functions are—

(a) to act as an inter-university organisation and a bureau of information,

(b) to facilitate the exchange of professors,

(c) to serve as an authorised channel of communication and facilitate the co-ordination of university work,

(d) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries;

(e) to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or International conferences on higher education;

(f) to act as an appointments bureau for Indian universities;

(g) to fulfil such other duties as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Indian Universities.

Each member University has to make a fixed annual contribution towards the expenses of the Board.

The meetings of the Board are held yearly. The Board consists of one representative of each of the member Universities and one representative of the Government of India.

The Board has not yet had much influence on University policy in India but it has done a considerable amount of useful work in collecting information and in stimulating thought regarding current University problems.

The Third Quinquennial Conference of Indian Universities was held in 1934 under the auspices of the Board. It was opened by H. F. the Viceroy and passed several important resolutions.

Education of Indian Women and Girls—There is still a leeway to be made good. All the influences which operate against the spread of education amongst the boys are reinforced in the case of women by the *purdah* system and the custom of early marriage.

Arts colleges, medical colleges, and the like admit students of both sexes, and a few girls attend them. The Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women at Delhi gives a full medical course for medical students. The Shreeamaji Nathibai Damodhar Thackersey Indian Women's University was started some ten years ago by Professor Karve. It is a private institution and is doing good pioneer work.

The All-India Women's Conference on Educational Reform, which holds its meetings annually and has constituent conferences established all over the country, is also doing much useful work. An All-India Women's Education Fund Association has also been established in connection with this Conference. This association appointed in 1930 a special committee to enquire into the feasibility of establishing a central Teachers' Training College of a specialised Home Science character. This committee reported at the end of the year recommending the establishment of such a college "on absolutely new lines which would synthesise the work of existing provincial colleges by psychological research" and the Governing Body of the Association supported the proposal at the Annual General Meeting of the Association which has adopted it. A college, called the Lady Irwin College, has since been established in New Delhi.

The comparative statement below shows the state of women's education during 1932-33—

	No of Institutions.		No of Scholars.	
	1932	1933	1932	1933
Recognized Institutions—				
Arts Colleges .. .	20	24	1,337	1,640
Professional Colleges . . .	8	8	223	297
High Schools	324	338	81,249	83,122
Middle Schools	844	845	122,616	123,777
Primary Schools	32,926	33,170	1,298,414	1,349,513
Special Schools	270	281	15,576	16,521
Unrecognized institutions . . .	4,241	3,625	92,174	97,771
Total	38,433	38,754	1,611,941	1,677,244

Provincial Statistics—The four tables, which are given below, summarise the salient features of educational progress in the different provinces in British India, and will be of general interest.

(1) *Number of Institutions, 1932-33*

Province.	NO OF RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS			NO OF UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS			TOTAL NO. OF INSTITUTIONS.		
	1932.	1933	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)	1932	1933	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)	1932.	1933	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)
Madras . . .	53,547	51,075	—2,472	1,580	1,408	—172	55,127	52,483	—2,644
Bombay . . .	15,962	15,757	—205	1,247	1,114	—133	17,209	16,871	—338
Bengal . . .	67,406	68,773	+1,367	1,680	1,554	—126	69,086	70,327	+1,241
United Provinces . . .	23,520	22,941	—579	2,325	2,418	+93	25,845	25,359	—486
Punjab . . .	12,000	11,673	—327	6,472	6,236	—236	18,472	17,909	—563
Burma . . .	7,303	7,356	+53	18,194	18,205	+11	25,497	25,561	+64
Bihar and Orissa . . .	29,036	28,952	—84	1,178	2,443	+1,265	31,214	31,396	+182
Central Provinces and Berar . . .	5,335	5,326	—9	257	320	+63	5,592	5,646	+54
Assam . . .	6,594	6,586	—8	600	619	+19	7,194	7,205	+11
North-West Frontier Province . . .	987	992	+5	179	162	—17	1,166	1,154	—12
British India *	222,810	220,566	—2,244	34,988	34,781	—207	257,798	255,347	—2,451

* Includes figures for Minor Administrations and Provinces (centrally administered areas).

(10) November, 20, 1935, 1935-36

Province	No. of Scholars in Recognised Institutions		No. of Scholars in Unrecognised Institutions		Increase (+) or Decrease (-)	Total No. of Scholars in All Kinds of Institutions		Percentage of Total Scholars to Population	
	1932	1933	Increase (+) or Decrease (-)	1932	1933	Increase (+) or Decrease (-)	1932	1933	Increase (+) or Decrease (-)
Madras	2,877,304	2,881,597	-12,007	17,478	17,928	450	2,921,882	2,912,525	-9,357
Bombay	1,300,618	1,298,192	-2,426	31,809	33,807	1,998	1,337,517	1,320,207	-17,310
Bengal	2,720,001	2,797,387	77,386	63,161	65,704	2,543	2,783,225	2,856,001	72,776
United Provinces	1,157,907	1,170,740	12,833	53,991	54,803	812	1,217,904	1,225,543	7,639
Punjab	1,200,600	1,104,820	-95,780	172,407	130,350	-42,057	1,373,007	1,235,890	-137,117
Burma	525,013	521,804	-3,209	202,701	203,170	469	727,714	724,974	-2,740
Bihar and Orissa	1,098,631	1,051,200	-47,431	20,180	13,911	-6,269	1,118,811	1,065,111	-53,700
Central Provinces and Berar	150,191	157,077	6,886	9,114	11,271	2,157	159,305	168,382	9,077
Assam	718,306	732,753	14,447	24,012	26,024	2,012	742,318	758,777	16,459
North-West Frontier Province	87,018	88,000	982	4,501	3,703	-798	91,519	91,703	184
Total-Burish India*	12,122,160	12,101,137	-21,023	611,071	601,795	-9,276	12,733,931	12,702,932	-30,999

* Includes figures for Minor Administrations and Provinces (centrally administered areas)

(iii) Distribution of Schools

referred to in the following table are recognized institutions, 1933

Province.	No. of Schools in Institutions for Males.							TOTAL.
	In Universities	In Arts Colleges	In "Central" Colleges	In High Schools,	In Middle Schools	In Primary Schools.	In Special Schools.	
Madras	631	11,902	2,258	157,943	28,513	2,249,618	23,089	2,472,854
Bombay	102	9,598	3,118	82,814	25,087	907,843	14,857	1,104,228
Bengal	1,859	20,359	5,040	269,309	161,699	1,725,386	119,103	2,302,752
United Provinces	5,634	8,035	4,039	80,817	97,805	1,138,474	21,520	1,356,434
Punjab	31	13,443	2,088	127,922	481,837	378,951	16,186	1,020,468
Burma	1,645	188	18	58,730	127,469	259,242	19,200	465,142
Bihar & Orissa	3,529	914	50,104	81,523	327,162	18,677	981,908
Central Provinces and Berar	2,039	578	8,283	90,094	303,844	2,503	416,411
Assam	1,521	63	20,933	44,348	249,119	4,795	320,778
North-West Frontier Province	541	23	12,916	28,596	31,281	166	73,523
BRITISH INDIA *	10,041	73,659	13,084	892,580	1,188,582	8,182,151	242,783	10,907,910

* Includes figures for Minor Provinces and Administration (centrally administered areas).

Province.	NO. OF SCHOLARS IN INSTITUTIONS FOR FEMALES						TOTAL.
	In Arts Colleges	In Professional Colleges.	In High Schools.	In Middle Schools.	In Primary Schools.	In Special Schools	
Madras ..	512	70	17,151	6,874	361,762	5,574	391,743
Bombay	16,068	3,719	172,712	2,465	198,964
Bengal ..	608	53	16,285	8,882	466,745	2,162	494,635
United Provinces ..	245	10	7,118	37,114	68,700	729	118,916
Punjab ..	321	26	12,153	30,769	96,282	2,798	58,422
Burma	8,509	12,388	36,980	606	72,384
Bihar and Orissa ..	7	..	1,913	5,522	64,069	873	40,666
Central Provinces and Berar	11	388	6,983	82,466	818	31,777
Assam	2,172	6,114	23,879	112	18,486
North-west Frontier Province	382	5,454	7,549	51	18,486
BRITISH INDIA *	1,640	307	86,122	129,788	1,340,819	16,556	1,584,227

* Includes figures for Minor Administrations and Provinces (centrally administered areas)

(iv) *Tendency of Education, 1932-33*

Province	TOTAL EXPENDITURE			PERCENTAGE OF EXPENDITURE					AVERAGE ANNUAL COST PER SCHOLAR.					
	1932.	1933	Increase (+) or Decrease (-)	Rs	%	Govern- ment Funds	Total Funds. (a)	Fees	Other Sources	Govern- ment Funds.	Local Funds (a)	Fees	Other Sources	Total Cost
Madras	5,67,61,851	5,31,38,978	-36,02,873	15.08	11.12	17.88	20.22	8.90	2.91	3.71	1.17	18.07	1.17	18.07
Bombay	1,00,40,519	3,81,71,846	-1,8,02,703	11.1	18.0	22.2	11.5	13.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.20
Bengal	1,22,87,036	1,17,51,371	-5,35,485	32.1	7.9	13.8	16.0	1.12	1.32	6.80	2.6	3.11	1.1	5
United Provinces	3,80,21,112	3,71,20,587	-18,00,525	53.7	13.0	18.7	11.6	11.9	1.3	1.11	7.3	11.0	0.25	3.11
Punjab	3,08,31,113	3,00,56,120	-7,74,723	51.10	12.80	25.77	10.03	11.11	9.2	15.6	5.15	7.2	5.3	3.1
Burma	2,11,11,085	1,09,03,281	-11,17,804	38.00	28.15	20.07	13.82	12.1	10.9	1.9	6.7	8.1	7.7	3.10
Bihar and Orissa	1,73,01,805	1,67,08,763	-5,93,042	30.00	29.15	21.15	15.11	1.11	0.1	10.8	7.13	3.2	7.2	13.7
Central Provinces and Berar	1,03,79,760	97,02,520	-5,87,240	13.13	28.10	19.05	9.63	9.3	10.6	0.7	1.1	3.2	1.1	6.9
Assam	50,10,281	18,06,100	-1,13,881	57.0	13.0	18.0	12.0	7.14	5.1	12.10	2.8	0.1	9.7	12.10
North-West Frontier Province	27,21,802	27,20,082	-2,720	03.9	10.2	10.7	10.2	23.5	11.3	7.2	3.9	11.3	7.1	13.11
TOTAL—BRITISH INDIA.*	27,18,50,022	25,78,75,868	-1,39,80,754	11.0	15.8	21.1	15.8	0.3	0.3	5.5	5.2	8.3	5.4	2.5

* Includes figures for Minor Administrations and Provinces (territories administered are 14).
(a) Includes both District Board and Municipal Funds.

BOY SCOUTS.

The Boy Scouts movement, initiated in England by Lord Baden Powell (the Chief Scout), has spread widely in India, both among Europeans and Indians. The Viceroy is Chief Scout of India and the heads of Provinces are Chief Scouts in their own areas. The aim of the Association is to develop good citizenship among boys by forming their character—training them in habits of observation, obedience and self-reliance—inculcating loyalty and thoughtfulness for others—and teaching them services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to themselves.

It is confidently anticipated that in the Boy Scout Movement will be found a natural means of bridging the gulf between the different races existing in India. The movement is non-official, non-military, non-political and non-sectarian. Its attitude towards religion is to encourage every boy to follow the faith he professes. Every boy admitted as a Scout makes a three-fold promise to do his best: (1) to be loyal to God, King and country, (2) to help others at all times, and (3) to obey the Scout law. The law referred to lays down—

- 1 That a Scout's honour is to be trusted;
- 2 That he is loyal to God, King and country, his parents, teachers, employers, his comrades, his country and those under him,
- 3 That he is to be useful and to help others,
4. That he is a friend to all and a brother to every other scout, no matter to what social class the other belongs,
- 5 That he is courteous;
6. That he is a friend to animals,
7. That he obeys orders,

8 That he smiles and whistles under all difficulties,

9. That he is thrifty,

10. That he is clean in thought, word, and deed

INDIAN HEADQUARTERS

Patron—H. R. H. The Prince of Wales, K. G.

Chief Scout for India—His Excellency The Right Hon'ble The Earl of Willington, G. C. S. I., G. M. I. E., G. C. M. G., G. B. E.

Chief Commissioner (Acting)—

E. C. Meeville, Esq., C. S. I., C. M. G.

Deputy Chief Commissioner—Raj Sahib G. Dutta

General Secretary for India—N. N. Bhose Esq., B. A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law, D. C. C.

Travelling Secretary for India—G. T. J. Thaddaeus, Esq., B. A., D. C. C. (S. & B.), Ak. L. (for India)

General Council for India—

Ex-officio—The Chief Commissioner for India

The Provincial Commissioners

The Presidents of Provincial Councils

Elected—(Not completed)

Nominated—(Not completed)

The Boy Scouts Association (India and Burma)

No.	NAME	No. of Groups			Sections of Group			Officers Warranted on Probation			
		Open	Centred	Total	1st	2nd	3rd	C. S. M.	Ex. S.	Pat. S.	Sec.
1	Ajmer-Merwara ..			75	31		2	7	60		
2	Assam ..	1	22	91	79	17	2	1	64	26	2
3	Baluchistan ..		11	11	15	1		4	10	11	2
4	Bombay ..	2	22	24	17	6	1	1	21	18	1
5	Bengal ..	16	40	119	107	13	74	15	76	171	50
6	Bihar & Orissa ..		25	27	24	1	1	117	25	104	8
7	Bombay ..	15	1,170	1,517	1,110	302	1	157	1,112	323	6
8	Central India ..		12	15	6	1		10	12	19	
9	Central Provinces ..	91	1,008	1,099	127	64	50	76	517	10	24
10	Dacca ..	1	61	64	10	2		1	26	1	4
11	Hyderabad British Administered Areas ..	1	10	52	2	1		2	15	57	1
12	Madras ..	20	171	191	230	85	57	5	287	592	72
13	N. W. I. P. ..	8	27	95	74	1	19	19	92	45	17
14	Punjab ..	17	1,107	1,510	1,100	410	1	68	1,146	425	7
15	United Provinces ..	34	251	588	371	151	1	36	313	161	65
16	Western India States ..	3	37	10	48	2	7	6	45	1	1
17	Bhopal State ..		6	5	2	2	1	1	3	4	1
18	Barsani State ..		3	2	2	0			3	1	
19	Bharatpur State ..		15	15	15	15	7	1	24	20	6
20	Bhopal State ..		2	12	12			1	30		
21	Biljwar State ..		1	1	1	1		1			
22	Charkhari State ..		1	1	1	1			1		
23	Chattarpur State ..		1	1	2	1		4	15	1	
24	Cochin State ..	6	51	60	51	7	14	11	64	25	15
25	Dacca State ..	2	0	6	2	2		1	1	2	
26	Dhar State ..		37	39	39				39		
27	Dhenkanal State ..	51	78	120	79	39	3	13	32	47	4
28	Jaipuri State ..	1	75	70	73	25	8	25	64	29	
29	Jammu & Kashmir State ..	1	71	75	60	76	3	7	87	83	
30	Jath State ..		1	1	1	1		1	5		
31	Jhabua State ..		1	1	1			1			
32	Khilchilpur State ..		1	1	1				1		
33	Kolhapur State ..	5	50	61	53	8	3	7	81	5	3
34	Kurwai State ..		1	1	1				2		
35	Marwar State ..		105	105	60	10	5		18	45	5
36	Mysore State ..	27	318	375	254	271	60	116	295	224	54
37	Nagod State ..		3	3	3			1	2		
38	Narsinghar State ..		1	1	1			1			
39	Nawanagar State ..	4	23	27	25	22			25	1	1
40	Orchha State ..		7	7	7		1		7	1	1
41	Patla State ..	10	25	44	61	17		27	33	6	
42	Pudukhottai State ..		17	18	10	13	1		13	17	2
43	Rajgarh State ..		1	1	2	1		2			
44	Rampur State ..		1	1	2	1		1	2	1	
45	Ratlam State ..		1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2
46	Sailana State ..		1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
47	Sangli State ..		18	18	16	3	2		18	3	2
48	Tonk State ..		1	1	1	1		1		1	
49	Travancore State ..	7	40	77	70	13	13	23	137	46	17
GRAND TOTAL ..		308	7,205	7,603	5,611	3,000	513	1,331	7,040	3,251	172

Branch), General Headquarters—Census 1934.

Total	Number of					Total Scouts, Cubs & Rovers.	No. of.		1934 Grand Total all ranks	No. of Units
	Scouts.	Sea Scouts.	Cubs	Rover Scouts.	Rover Sea Scouts.		Commissioners	Local Association Officers		
1	630		121	319		890	4		950	
1	1,089		929	48		2,966	4	17	3,253	
3	327		248	99		674	3	5	715	
12	412		301	47		850	7	19	918	
4	7,382		3,360	499		11,247	30	118	12,009	
2	6,171		2,427	310		8,908	31	11	9,037	
1	28,111	38	10,896	1,214	48	40,307	7	324	42,916	
4	245		314	31		590	5	22	661	
1	10,937		14,370	1,240		32,547	46	428	34,718	
9	875		461	27		1,363			1,457	
6	532		560	54		1,146		20	1,234	
6	7,807		4,710	1,032		13,009	3	55	14,693	
1	2,485		1,050	318		3,860	8	42	4,110	
2	39,474		8,009	954	13	48,437	5	83	51,150	1
6	8,198		2,811	1,164		12,173	5	208	13,117	
1	1,302		151	122		1,575			1,631	
1	58		56	16		130		3	143	
1	52		31			83		5	92	
1	383		273	49		705		66	827	
1	893					893		3	994	
1	24		32			56		1	59	
1	30		20	8		58		3	63	
3	309		6	12		327		18	377	
1	953		445	188		1,591		44	1,758	
1	139		44			183		3	194	
3	847					847		5	891	
1	1,935		1,740		116	3,791	00	5	3,978	
1	1,865		434	231		2,530	7	22	2,704	
1	1,712	45	1,487	110		3,354	11		3,554	
1	164		13			195			202	
1	48					48		2	65	
1	17		22			39		4	45	
1	1,758		493	250		2,512		52	2,861	
2	40		30			70		1	75	
1	1,247		793	76		2,121		16	2,272	
6	6,054		4,060	991		11,105	47		11,841	
3	00					60		3	67	
2	40					40			43	
2	664	24	63	24		775		4	808	
1	150		148	12		316		7	343	
4	595		164			759			801	
3	231		248	14		493		7	535	
2	80		15			9		5	103	
4	48		32					1	86	
6	11		23	22				7	63	
4	48	24	24						109	
2	429		58	28					541	
2	40		8	2				11	64	
223	1,339		525	119		1,983	12	5	2,223	
12,097	145,211	131	62,129	9,450	177	17,104	532	2,223	231,950	6

Kynnersley, R H Parker, R D Fraser, G H Cooke, J P, J Wilson and J B Greaves, M L C General Secretary—Lieut-Colonel H C Smith, O B E, M C, M L C

Branches are already in existence in Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Karachi, Assam, Lahore and Rangoon, and others will be formed as and when occasion demands. The application for membership should be made to the General Secretary of the Association at 41, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay, or to the Secretaries of the Branches Bombay P O No 853, Calcutta P O Box 2285, Madras P O Box 1270, Karachi P O Box 168, Assam P O Mohanaghat, Lahore, P O Box 165, Rangoon P O Box No 333

INDIAN SOCIETY OF ORIENTAL ART (Calcutta)—President Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee, Kt, K C I E, K C V O. Vice-Presidents The Hon'ble Raja Sir Monmotha Nath Roy Chowdhury of Santosh, Kt, Mr J N Basu, V A, M L C, and Mr G N Tagore, Joint Honorary Secretaries Mr P N. Tagore and Mr N N Tagore, Hon'y Treasurer Rai F L De, Bahadur, Asst Secretary Mr P K Chatterjee Office 11, Samavaya Mansions, 1st Floor, Calcutta

INDIA SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION—The India Sunday School Union is an interdenominational organisation having for its object the strengthening of religious and moral education in the Christian schools throughout the Indian Empire. It has six full time workers, both Indian and European. It was founded in Allahabad in 1876. Its General Committee is composed of representatives from the National Christian Council, from the Provincial Representative Councils and from local Sunday School Unions which are Auxiliaries of the I S S U

The headquarters of the Union are at Coonoor on the Nilgiri Hills, where besides the office and well-stocked book shop, there is the St Andrew Teacher Training Institution. In this institution Summer Schools are held where a short but intensive course of study and training is offered to leaders in religious education from all parts of India.

Besides the activities at headquarters, the Union offers courses of lectures in any part of the country, delivered by members of its staff. A Quarterly Journal is published in English, and Lesson Notes for teachers in English and several vernaculars. Text-books on subjects connected with the work of Bible teaching are also published in various languages, and Scripture examinations are organised.

The officers of the Union are as follows —

President The Hon Sir David Devadass, Madras

Treasurers W H Warren, Madras, and J. G. Fritsch, Coonoor; **General Secretary** E A. Annett, Coonoor. **Assistant Secretary** Rev N Franklin, Madras

The most recent statistics show that there are in India 18,322 Sunday Schools with 80,428 teachers, and 707,204 scholars

INSTITUTION OF ENGINEERS (INDIA)—The organisation of the Institution began in 1919 and it was inaugurated by H E Lord Chelmsford early in 1921. Its objects to promote and advance the science, practice and business of engineering in India on the same lines as are adopted by the Institutions of Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineers, in the United Kingdom. The standard of qualification is the same. Membership is divided into five classes, viz Ordinary Members, Associate Members, Companions, Honorary Life Members and Honorary Members. There are also additional classes, viz, Students, Associates and Subscribers. **President** Sir Guthrie Russel, Kt, M I E, (Ind), **Secretary** C C Seal. Offices 6, Gokale Road, P O Elgin Road, P O Box 660, Calcutta

MADRAS FINE ARTS SOCIETY—Patron H E The Governor of Madras, **President** The Lady Beatrix Stanley, **Hon. Secretary** C A Henderson, Esq, I O S, C/o Development Secretariat, Fort St George, Madras

MADRAS LITERARY SOCIETY AND AUXILIARY OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY—Patrons H E Lt-Col Rt Hon Sir George Frederick Stanley, P C, G C I E, C M G, and the Lord Bishop of Madras, **President** Sir Justice G H B Jackson, M A, I O S, **Hon'y Secretary** M Rethnaswamy, Esq, M A, Bar-at-Law, and **Librarian** U S Phannell. Address College Road, Nungambakam, Madras

THE SOCIETY'S LIBRARY—Possesses a fine library containing more than 97,000 volumes. Admission by Subscription

NATIONAL HORSE BREEDING AND SHOW SOCIETY OF INDIA—Formed in 1923, by Major-General Sir Bernard James, C B, C I E, M V O, who was President from 1923 to 1925. Objects To form a national body of public opinion on horse-breeding matters, to encourage and promote horse-breeding in India, to protect and promote the interests of horse-breeders and to give them every encouragement; to improve and standardise the various types of horses bred in India, to prepare an Indian stud book; and to promote uniformity in all matters connected with horse shows in India. **Patron-in-Chief** H E The Viceroy, **President** (for 1934-35) Brigadier Sir Terence Keyes, K C I E, C S I, C M G, **Secretary** Major-General Sir Bernard James, C B, C I E, M V O. The Society issues the following publications "Horse Breeding" An Illustrated Quarterly Journal in English, Stallion Register and Supplement, Indian Stud Book, Record of Country Breed Racing, Show Judging Pamphlet. The Second Volume of the Indian Stud Book was published at the end of 1930. The Society holds the Imperial Delhi Horse Show annually in February. **Registered Office**—Delhi

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION—Founded in 1870. Its objects are—(a) To extend in England, knowledge of India, and interest in

the people of that country (b) To co operate with all efforts made for advancing Education and Social reform in India (c) To promote friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India In all the proceedings of the Association the principle of non-interference in religion and avoidance of political controversy is strictly maintained. It has branches in Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad, Nagpur and Calcutta *Hon Secretary*, Miss Beck, 21, Cromwell-road, London Publication *The Indian Magazine and Review*, (8 numbers a year) which chronicles the doings of the Association in England and in India, and takes note of movements for educational and social progress It publishes articles about the East to interest Western readers, and articles about the West to interest readers in the East *Life Members*—Ten Guineas *Annual Subscriptions*—Members one Guinea, County Members, Ten Shillings, Associate Students, Seven shillings and Six pence

PASSENGERS AND TRAFFIC RELIEF ASSOCIATION (Established in 1915) *Head Office*—Albert Building, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay *Objects* (a) To inquire into and ascertain grievances with respect to passengers in India generally (b) To petition Government, Local bodies, Railway, Steamship and other companies carrying passenger and traffic, to take all proper and necessary steps to obtain redress with regard to the said grievances (c) To hold periodical meetings and discuss questions relating to grievances (d) To start a fund to meet expenses for carrying out the objects of the Association *President*—L R Taisee, *Vice-Presidents*—Behram N Karanjia, J P, and Sheth Purshottamdas Jivandas, *Hon Jt Secretaries*—Khan Bahadur P E Ghamat and Gordhandas G Morari *Asst Secretary*—N M Raju

PHIATELIC SOCIETY OF INDIA—Formed March 1897, Annual subscription Rs 10 *Secretary*, Dr K D Cooper, Candy House, Apollo Bunder, Bombay 1

PHOTOGRAPHIC SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta)—Annual subscription Rs 30 (Town members) and Rs 15 (Mofussil members) Entrance fee Rs. 20 and Rs 10 The Society is affiliated to the Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain, London, and holds annual exhibitions, distributes a monthly journal to members, and undertakes developing, printing and enlarging work from its members only There are excellent work-rooms apparatus and reading room at the Society's Headquarters at 229, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta *Hon Secretary* A Hearn, 229, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta

POONA SOVA SADAN SOCIETY.—This Institution was started in 1909 by the late Mrs Ramabai Ranade, Mr G K Devadhar, and a few other ladies and gentlemen in Poona and registered in 1917. It is now working independently though for a few years in the beginning it was conducted as a branch of the Bombay Sova Sadan Its main object is to make women self-reliant and to train them for mis-

sonary work undertaking educational and medical activities for their sisters and brethren, especially the former in backward areas and working on a non-sectarian basis Nominal fees are now being charged for instruction in all classes There are eight different departments sub-divided into 60 classes Arrangements are made for training Nurses and Midwives and women Sub-Assistant Surgeons at the Sassoon Hospitals, Poona, and a hostel is maintained for the former and another for those attending the Sub-Assistant Surgeon's Classes There is a Public Health School affiliated to the Lady Chelmsford League for Maternity and Child Welfare, Delhi, with a hostel The number in these three hostels is now about 85 Besides, there is a full-fledged Training College, named after Bai Motibai Wadia with about 65 students excluding those in the V F Class for being trained as Mistresses for Vernacular schools This College is probably the only college in India maintained by a non-official, non-Christian missionary body teaching the full course. The results of the Certificate Examinations held in the year 1931-32 under the authority of the local Government Training College for Women were as follows I year senior B and II year 7 The total number of certificates granted so far is 350 now The Practising Schools for little girls attached to the Training College has now eleven classes with 290 students reading up to the Marathi VI Standard, English being taught in the V and VI standard classes Primary Classes for grown up women teaching up to the Marathi V Standard are attended by about 100 women It is here that poor women are recruited for their training as a teacher, nurse, midwife, or doctor Special classes for teaching English, First Aid, Home Nursing were attended by about 90 students, the Music Classes by 30 students, and the Work-room Classes for teaching Sewing, Embroidery, Hosiery, Composing, Weaving, etc, by 130 Women Thus, the total number of pupils is about 900 to-day There are two branches of the Society started at Satara and Baramati which are named after Lady Vithaldas Thakarsey, the wife of the greatest helper of the Society so far, the late Sir Vithaldas D Thakarsey Besides there are branches started at Bombay (Dadar and Girgaum), Sholapur, Ahmednagar, Aihag, Nasik, Nagpur, and Gwalior for either educational or medical work or for both Thus the total number of women and girls including about 150 duplications on the rolls at these various Centres of the Society is over 1,500 There are in Poona five hostels, three of which are located at the headquarters and the other two in the Somvar Peth for Nurses, etc, under training at the Sassoon Hospital The number of resident students is above 200 in these five hostels One of the three hostels at the headquarters is intended for women of depressed classes The number of these women at present is 8 In connection with the medical branch a Committee has been formed in England, which will enable the Society to send fully qualified Nurses there to undergo further training Two fully qualified Nurses have so far been sent by the Society for their post graduate course in Public Health Nursing at Bedford College for women,

London, with the partial help of a scholarship of the League of Red Cross Society, Paris. There is an active Infant Welfare centre and ante-natal clinics with the average daily attendance of 50 excluding expectant mothers. The Society has extended its medical activities in Bombay by undertaking, with the help of two charitable Trusts in Bombay, to work out the scheme of Maternity, Infant Welfare, Child Welfare and General Nursing for the women and children of the Bhatia Community under the supervision of Mr G. K. Devadhar, the organizer of the society. This scheme has a Maternity Hospital and Nursing Home, and three Infant Welfare centres. Besides, there are Maternity Hospitals and Nursing Homes at Almodnagar, Ahbab, Nasik, and Sholapur under the management of the society in connection with other organizations. Now Her Excellency the Countess of Irwin, the Countess of Reading, Lady Wilson, Lady Lloyd, Lady Willingdon, Lady Sydenham and Lady Chelmsford are Hon. Patronesses. The institution is largely dependent upon public contributions and Government assistance. The annual expenditure of the whole organization now exceeds Rs. 2,50,000. *President* Shrimant Saubhagya-ati H. H. the Raulsaheb of Sangli, *Honorary Organizer and General Secretary* Mr Gopal Krishna Devadhar, M.A., O.B.E.; *Local Secretary and Treasurer* Mrs Yamunabai Bhat; *Lady Superintendent and Secretary for Development and Collections* Mrs Janakibai Bhat (Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal), *Joint Lady Superintendents* Mrs Saralabai Nalk, M.A., and Miss Dwarakabai Bhat, B.A., B.T., *Hon. Secretaries, Nursing and Medical Education Committee* *Joint Hon. Secretaries* Dr V. C. Gokhale, L.M.S.; Dr N. L. Ranade, B.A., M.B.B.S., and Dr V. R. Dhamdhare, M.B.B.S.

PRESS-OWNERS' ASSOCIATION, Bombay— Started on 30th April 1919 to promote the interests of the printing and litho presses and allied trades, to bring about harmony and co-operation among press owners and proprietors and to take such steps as may be necessary in furtherance of the above objects.

Office—Galwadi, Girgaum, Bombay 4.

President—Shet Pandurang Javjee, J.P.

Secretary—Mr Manilal C. Modi.

RANGOON LITERARY SOCIETY—*Patron* H. E. The Governor of Burma, *President* J. M. Symms, Esq., M.A., I.E.S., Director of Public Instruction, *Vice-President* Dr H. B. Osborn, *Hon. Secretary* Mrs C. Peacock, 35, York Road.

RECREATION CLUB INSTITUTE—This Institution was started in 1912-13 by the members of the Ismaili Dharmaic (religious) Library in Bombay. Its central office is in Bombay with branches at Ahmedabad, Ahmednagar, Karachi, Hyderabad (Sindh), Poona, Warangal, etc. The aims and objects of the society are to elevate and improve the social, economic and spiritual condition of the depressed and poor classes of people and with that

intent to found primary schools, associations and such departments and to take all constructive means to achieve the above objects. The Institute has 2 orphanages with 150 inmates, industrial works, domestic industries, sales depots, clubs, libraries, etc. It also issues two Anglo-Vernacular papers, *The Ismaili* (a weekly) and *The Nizari* (a monthly). *Hon. Secretary*, Gulamhussein Virjee.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS, INDIAN SECTION.—This Society was founded in London in 1754. Its recently published history by Sir Henry Trueman Wood, late Secretary of the Society, gives the following account of the Indian Section. In 1857 a proposition was made by Mr Hyde Clarke, who wrote to the Council suggesting that "a special section be formed for India, another for Australia, one for English America and so on." It was suggested that the Indian Section should meet once a fortnight for the reading of papers. Nothing came of the suggestion until ten years later when Mr Hyde Clarke returned to England, and in 1868 he renewed his proposal, but only proposing the formation of a Committee which should organize conferences on Indian subjects. This time the suggestion was taken up more warmly. Mr Hyde Clarke himself was placed on the Council, and the Indian Conferences, which soon developed into the Indian Section, were started. "The Indian Section thus established became a most important department of the Society. It has had great results in India by spreading information as to the directions which the development of Indian manufactures and Indian products could most usefully take, and in England by giving similar information as to the industrial resources and progress of India itself. The Section has received great help from the Indian press and it has in return been of service to the Indian press in supplying useful information to it. It has been of great value to the Society itself as the means by which many members have been added to its list, so that in fact, thanks to a very large extent to the work of the Indian Section and of the allied section for the Dominions and Colonies, a large proportion of the present number of members come from the dependencies of the Empire abroad." *Secretary of the Society* G. K. Menzies, O.B.E., M.A., *Secretary of the Indian and Dominions and Colonies Sections* W. Perry, B.A., I.O.S. (retired) 18, John Street, Adelphi, London, W. C. 2.

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY—The Servants of India Society, founded by the late Hon. Mr G. K. Gokhale in 1905, is a body of men who are pledged to devote all their lives to the service of the country on such allowances as the Society may be able to give. Its objects are to train national missionaries for the service of India and to promote, by all constitutional means the interests of the Indian people. Its present strength is 21 Ordinary members, 8 members under training, 1 permanent assistant, and 1 probationer. The Society has its headquarters in Poona with branches at

Madras, Bombay, Allahabad and Nagpur and other centres of work at Dohad in Gujarat, Mysaur, Coimbatore, Mangalore and Calicut in the Madras Presidency, Lucknow in U. P., Lahore in the Punjab and Cuttack in Bihar and Orissa.

The Society's work is primarily political but as it believes in all round progress of the Indian people, it has always paid equal emphasis on social, economic, educational, labour and depressed class activities and has worked in the fields. The political work is done through the legislatures, the non-official political organizations, deputations to foreign countries and propaganda. The Right Hon. V. S. Srinivas Sastri was in the old Imperial Legislative Council and in the new Council of State till 1924 and has to his credit many achievements. Pandit Hriday Nath Kunzru was a member of the U. P. Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. He takes special interest in the questions of the Indianization of the Army, public services, education and class overseas. Mr. N. M. Joshi has been a nominated member of the Assembly since 1921 and has to his credit many a labour legislation. Mr. N. A. David was for three years a member of the U. P. Council. Mr. Joshi was a member of Bombay Municipal Corporation and Mr. J. B. Bakhale a member of the Board of the Port of Bombay for a short period. Mr. Kunzru has been the General Secretary of the National Liberal Federation of India, and Messrs. Joshi, S. P. Andrews, Dube and K. P. Kaul are Secretaries of its Provincial branches and have all done the work of organising political conferences. Messrs. Sastri and Kunzru were members of the Liberal Party's deputation to England during the Reforms period of 1919-20. Mr. Sastri again toured some of the Dominions in 1921 on behalf of the Government of India to secure legitimate rights for Indians there, attended as India's representative the Assembly of the League of Nations and the Washington Naval Disarmament Conference, went to England in 1923 as a Leader of the Kenyan Deputation of the Indian Legislature, went in 1927 to South Africa as Agent-General of the Government of India under the now famous Cape Town Agreement for eighteen months, and lastly went to Kenya in 1929 on behalf of Government to place the Kenya Indians' case before Sir Samuel Wilson. His achievements in South Africa are a marvel to the world and brought the White and Indian communities together. Mr. Kunzru went in 1929 to Kenya to preside over the East African Congress and to England as the spokesman of the Kenya Indians to put their case before the British Government. Mr. P. Kodand Rao was in South Africa with Mr. Sastri and in Kenya with Mr. Kunzru and has mastered the question of Indians there. Mr. Joshi was a member of the Nehru Committee which is the author of the now famous Nehru Report on Constitutional Reforms. Messrs. Sastri and Joshi were members of the Round Table Conference and Mr. Joshi of the Consultative Committee and a Delegate to the Joint Select Committee.

In the field of social, economic and educational work, the Society's activities are equally varied. Some of its members are practically the founders

of such institutions as the Poona Seva Sadan, Bombay and Madras Social Service League, the U. P. Seva Samiti, the Hill Seva Mandal catering for the needs and uplift of the aboriginal tribes in Central. The Seva Sadan has been a model institution for the education of women which gives training to over 1,500 girls and women in all useful directions. It has many branches in different parts of India carrying on social and educational work. The Social Service League has done good co-operative, educational and welfare work for the mill workers in Bombay by starting Co-operative Societies, adult night and technical schools and conducting welfare centres. The Seva Samiti is an unique organization in Upper India doing service to the pilgrims going to religious places such as Haridwar and Benares and working in times of epidemics. Its Co-operative organization is a well built body recognized both by the public and Government. Mr. Chitalla conducts the Bhagini Samiti for social, educational work among the Gujarati Indians. The Society has been conducting a mobile Depressed Class Mission in Malabar and the Devalath Malabar Reconstruction Trust activities at silent. In the Co-operative movement the Society has done the pioneering work in the Bombay and Madras presidencies. During natural calamities such as floods, famines and epidemics, the Society has done relief work in every part of India. By its work in the Mughal rebellion, the Society has become a household name in Malabar. Mr. Sastri was for many years a member of the Madras University Senate. Mr. Kunzru is a member of the Allahabad and Banaras University Senates and Syndicates and Mr. Dube, a member of the Lucknow University Court and of the Lucknow District Local Board.

The Society has taken equally prominent part in various labour activities. Messrs. Joshi and Bakhale have been General and Assistant Secretaries of the All-India Trade Union Congress since 1923 and are greatly responsible for the shape given to the labour movement and for the organisational work particularly in Bombay. They have been President and General Secretary of the Bombay Textile Labour Union since 1926 and have conducted many Textile strikes. Mr. Joshi attended five times the International Labour Conference at Washington and Geneva as Indian Worker's Delegate and the British Commonwealth Labour Conference in 1923. Mr. Bakhale went to Europe in 1928 to attend on behalf of Indian Labour, the Geneva International Labour Conference, the British Commonwealth Labour Conference, the International Textile Worker's Congress, the Labour and Socialist International Congress and the British Trades Union Congress. He studied the Trade Union movement in Great Britain, Germany and Russia. Mr. Parulekar and a few other members of the Society are doing similar labour work. Messrs. Sastri and Joshi were members of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour.

The Society conducts three papers—The *Servant of India*, an English weekly of which Mr. S. G. Vaze is Editor, the *Dnyan Prakash*, the oldest Marathi daily of which Mr. Limaye is the Editor and the *Itihasad*, a bi-weekly. Mr. Parulekar conducts the *All-India Trade Union Bulletin*, and Mr. A. V. Patwardhan,

the *Sansham Sivaraj*, a Marathi weekly for the benefit of the subjects of Indian States. The Society has also published several pamphlets on public questions of the day.

The question of the subjects of the Indian States has also engaged the attention of the Society and some of its members, particularly Messrs A V. Patwardhan, S G Vaze, and A V Thakkar are devoting a part of their energies for that work.

Mr G K Devadhar, M.A., O.B.E., is the President and Mr H N. Kunzru, is the Vice-President and Mr S G Vaze, the Secretary. Messrs V Venkatasubbarya, Joshi, Kunzru and David are senior members of the four branches.

The Society is a non-communal, non-sectarian body which does not recognise any caste distinctions.

SEVA SADAN—The Seva Sadan Society was started on the 11th of July 1908, by the late Mr B M Malabari and Mr. Dayaram Gidumal. It is the pioneer Indian ladies' society for training Indian sisters in ministrant and serving (through them) the poor, the sick and the distressed. To spread its Gospel far and wide, the first branch was opened at Poona as early as 1909. The Society has its headquarters in Gamdevi, Bombay. The Society maintains the following departments of work: (1) Home for the Homeless, (2) Ashrams (Training Homes), (3) Marathi Normal Classes with a primary School, (4) Home Education Classes, (5) Industrial Department including a workroom, Sewing, Cutting, Hosiery, Cooking and Pastry and machine and hand Embroidery are among the chief industries taught. Total number of women in the different classes is nearly 300.

Secretary, Miss B. A. Engineer, M.A., LL.B., M.B., J.R.

CONSUMPTIVES' HOMES SOCIETY—This Society was started by the late Mr. B. M. Malabari and Mr. Dayaram Gidumal on the 1st of June 1909. It was registered under Act XXI of 1860. Mr. Malabari secured a large grant of land in a Himalayan pine forest in Dharampur (Simla Hills) from H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala, for a Sanatorium for Consumptives. His Highness also gave a donation of Rs one lakh in 1911 by special permission the Sanatorium was named "The King Edward VII Sanatorium." The Sanatorium has its special water works known as the Lady Hardinge Water Works, presented by the late Sir Chinubhai Madhavji, Bart., of Ahmedabad. The Sanatorium has a Guest House. The Noshirwan Adni Guest House for visitors to Dharampur. It has accommodation for 90 patients including the special Punjab Block built from a grant of the Punjab Government and reserved for European patients. Most of the blocks and cottages are built by Parsis. The Sanatorium has its own dairy and is called the Bal Proybal R. M. Patuck Dairy. The Sir Chinubhai Madhavji Dispensary has an out-patient department. The Recreation

Hall is called "The Sir Bhupinder Singh Recreation Hall" after the name of the Maharaja of Patiala. Mr. Malabari collected an Endowment Fund of about Rs 67,000 lodged with the Treasurer, Charitable Endowments, under Act VI of 1890. Nearly Rs 2,98,000 have been spent on laying out the site, buildings, etc., and the current annual expenditure is about Rs 56,000. The Senior and Junior Medical Officers are in charge of the Sanatorium. The Office of this Society is situated at the Seva Sadan Buildings Gamdevi, Bombay. Mr. S. P. Wadia is the Hon. Secretary and Diwan Bahadur K. M. Jhaveri is the Hon. Treasurer.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN IN WESTERN INDIA—Office and Homes at King's Circle, Matunga.

Founded—To prevent the public and private wrongs of children and the corruption of their morals, to take action for the enforcement of the laws for their protection, and, if necessary, to suggest new laws or amendments of the existing laws, to provide and maintain an organization for these objects; to promote education, and to do all other lawful things incidental or conducive to the attainment of the foregoing objects. Subscription for annual membership, Rs. 10, for Life Membership, Rs. 100. President: Dr. Sir Temuji B. Nariman, Kt.

Honorary Secretaries: Dr. Mrs. D. A. D'Monte, Mrs. R. P. Masani and Mrs. K. Kanna. Hon. Treasurer: Khan Bahadur H. S. Katrak.

WESTERN INDIA AUTOMOBILE ASSOCIATION—(8, Queen's Road, Bombay)—The objects of the Association include the encouragement and development of motoring, the improvement of road communications, the provisions for its members of a centre of information and advice on matters pertaining to motoring, the provision for its members of protection and defence of their rights as motorists, free legal advice and defence, facilities for touring abroad and the use of International Touring Documents. Tel. Address—"Windantas" Phone No 22482.

Patron: H. E. The Right Hon'ble Lord Brabourne, G.C.I.E., M.C., Governor of Bombay. President: H. E. Ormerod, J.P., Vice-President: N. M. Chinoy and S. Guevrek. Members of the Managing Committee: A. W. Barker, Ranchhodas Harkisondas, Gordhandas Jadiaji, J. M. Kamadar, P. P. Kapadia, FRIBA, B.A., B.E., J.P., M.D. Karaka, M. K. Kaul, T. R. S. Kynnersley, M.C., M.I.C.E., E. A. Nadirshah, B.A., B.E., B.Sc., S.N.C. Patuck, A. M.D. Pitt, M.W.R. Sell, and C. H. Reynolds. Secretary: A. H. C. Sykes, B.A.

OTHER MOTORING ASSOCIATIONS IN INDIA BURMA AND CEYLON, are: The Automobile Association of Bengal, 40, Chowringhee, Calcutta, Burma Motor Association, Graham's Building, No 80 Strand Road, Rangoon, The Automobile Association of Ceylon, Chamber of Commerce Building, Fort, Colombo, Nilgiris Automobile Association,

Ootacamund, Nilgiris, The Automobile Association of Northern India, 75, The Mall, Lahore Automobile Association of Southern India, Post Box No 352, Madras, and The United Provinces Automobile Association, 32, Canning Road, Alnabad

WESTERN INDIA NATIONAL LIBERAL ASSOCIATION—Founded in 1919—The Association was formed in pursuance of clause (b) of Resolution XI of the First Session of the All-India Conference of the Moderate Party, with a view to do untainted work for the political progress and the moral and material welfare of the people, to give expression from time to time to the considered opinion of the Party on matters of public interest, and to inform and educate public opinion in this presidency in support of its views, policy and methods

The objects of the Association are the attainment by constitutional means of full Dominion Status for India at the earliest possible date. For the promotion of these objects, the Association shall adopt constitutional methods of agitation and work and shall foster a spirit of broadminded liberalism based on principles of liberty, equality and fraternity among the different classes and communities of the people. For the fulfilment of these objects the Association shall carry on educative, and propagandist work by means of leaflets, pamphlets and other publications, (a) representations to Government, (c) meetings or conferences, lectures and all such methods as may be deemed practicable and expedient to educate public opinion, and (d) for advancing the interests of the Liberal Party by organising and influencing elections to the legislatures, Central and Provincial, to Municipalities and District Local Boards

The affairs of the Association are conducted by a Council consisting of 46 members who are elected every two years

President Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad, K.C.I.E., LL.D., **Vice-Presidents** The Hon. Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, K.T., C.I.E. and Sir Cowasji Jehangir (Jr.), K.C.I.E., **Hon. Secretaries** Mr. Kazi Kabiruddin, Mr. J. R. B. Jeejeebhoy, Mr. A. D. Shroff and Mr. D. G. Dalvi, **Assistant Secretary** Mr. V. R. Bhande

Office—107, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay

WOMEN'S INDIAN ASSOCIATION (PANTHEON GARDENS, LEWIS, MADRAS)—This Association was started in Madras, in July 1917, with aims of service

Aims and Objects—To present to women their responsibilities as daughters of India. To secure for every girl and boy the right of Education through schemes of Compulsory Primary Education, including the teaching of religion. To secure the abolition of child-marriage and to raise the Age of Consent for married girls to sixteen. To secure for women the vote for Municipal and Legislative Councils on the same terms as it is or may be granted to men. To secure adequate representation of women on Municipalities, Taluk and Local

Boards, Legislative Councils and Assemblies. To secure for women the right to vote and to be elected for the Council of State. To establish equality of rights and opportunities between men and women. To help women to realise that the future of India lies largely in their hands; for as wives and mothers they have the task of training, guiding and forming the character of the future rulers of India. To band women to groups for the purpose of self-development and education and for the definite service of others

It has 48 branches and over 4,000 members. Each branch is autonomous and works according to the needs of the locality.

The Association grants scholarships to girls, interests women in maternity and child-welfare work in the uplift of the depressed class and in other social and welfare activities for the general betterment of Indian society, has worked successfully for securing Franchise for women in India, (see pages 93 and 94 of the Simon Report, Vol. II) and compulsory education for girls and also actually helped in the passage of Child-Marriage Restraint Act in the Assembly and the Acts for the Suppression of Traffic in women and children and the abolition of the Devadasi system, in the local legislature. Holds regular meetings of women to educate them as to their duties as wives, mothers and citizens, publishes a monthly magazine titled *Stri-Dharma*, now edited by Mrs. Meheroo H. Dadabhoi for carrying out of the above objects. The Association is an All-India body. Its largest branch being in Bombay and its branches are spread throughout India and flourishing as far as Kashmir and Lashkar. It is found that women everywhere welcome the opportunities given for their self-development and self-expression. The Association is affiliated to all the important progressive women associations in India and throughout the world. It was the initiator of the All-India Women's Conference and the First All-Asian Women's Conference at Lahore. The Madras Seva Sadan and the Madras Children's Aid Society, the Montessori School owe their origin to the efforts of this Association. The Association have now opened a Rescue Home to facilitate the working of the Rescue Section of the Immoral Traffic Act, which have been enforced by Government. The Home was opened on 21st March 1934 by Lady Beatrice Stanley

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION—This Association, which was founded by the late Sir George Williams in 1844, is now a world-wide movement, well established in almost every country in both the hemispheres. The aim of the Association is, through its religious, social, educational, and physical work to answer the fourfold—spiritual, social, mental and physical—needs of young men and boys

The Young Men's Christian Association, though relatively new to India, is spreading rapidly. The 'local' Associations are autonomous and governed by local Boards of Directors. These Associations in Convention

elect a National Council which is responsible for the supervision and expansion of all forms of the Association work in India, Burma and Ceylon.

There are now over 60 Associations affiliated to the National Council and many other village Associations with many thousands of members of all races and creeds. The following Associations own one or more buildings which serve as the local headquarters—Allahabad; Alleppey, Pangalore, Bombay, Calcutta, Calicut, Combaratore; Colombo, Delhi, Galle, Hyderabad, Jubbulpore; Kandy, Karachi, Kunnammulam, Kotlavam, Lahore, Madras, Madura, Nagpur, Naini Tal, Ootacamund, Poona, Rangoon; Raipur, Secunderabad, Simla, Trivandrum, Wellington. The others use rented or rent-free buildings.

The work of the National Council and of the local Association is carried on by numerous voluntary workers and Committees, assisted by 85 specially trained full-time Secretaries. A feature of the Y M C A in India is the international character of its Secretariat. It is made up of 7 Americans, 2 Canadians, 6 Englishmen, 3 Scotchmen, 1 Swiss, 1 Swedish, 4 Anglo-Indians, 1 Dane, 2 Australians, 1 Burman and 58 Indians and Ceylonese.

The classes of people reached by the Indian Y M C A and the lines of service it attempts to do for them may be stated as follows.—

Generally—1 Literature—Publication of original works and reprints SIX series

"Heritage of India," "Religious Quest of India," "Religious Life of India," "Builders of Modern India," "Education of India," "Heritage of Ceylon," "Women of India"

2. Lecture Bureau—Many thousands of slides on a wide variety of educational and recreational topics serving a clientele in over 700 centres in India.

3 Physical—Training Physical Director for schools and colleges, fostering playground movement, Olympics

Boys—Scouting, Boys' Clubs, Camps, etc

Students—Hostels and Institutes in most University Centres

Indian students in Britain—Specially in London, Edinburgh and Glasgow

"Citizens"—(i.e., English-educated Indians, Ceylonese and Burmese) Reading Rooms, Libraries, Lectures, Group Conferences, Study-Circles, handling many subjects of vital interest—social, intellectual and religious.

Soldiers—Institutes and Holiday Homes for British Soldiers in a number of centres including the N. W Frontiers

Anglo-Indians—Hostels, Institutes, Employment Bureaux

Europeans—Hostels, Institutes, Employment Bureaux.

Labourers in Mills—"Welfare" Work.

Rural Communities—"Rural Reconstruction" work embracing Co-operative Banking, Distribution, Cattle Insurance and Arbitration, Cottage Industries, and Adult Education in four Selected Centres.

A monthly magazine, the **YOUNG MEN OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON** is issued at Rs 2-8-0 per annum, including postage.

The work of the National Council (excluding that of the 50 local Y M C As) called for a Budget of Rs 1,25,002 in 1933. Of this sum Rs 28,790 had to be raised from the public in India.

The Headquarters of the National Council is 5, Russell Street, Calcutta. The officers are—

Patron—His Excellency the Earl of Willingdon, GCSI, GMB, GCMG, GBE, Viceroy and Governor-General of India

President of the National Council—The Most Rev Dr Foss Westcott, Metropolitan of India

General Secretary—B L Rallia Ram, BSc, BT

The Bombay Association now possesses four well-equipped buildings—Wodehouse Road, Lamington Road, Rebsch Street, and Reynolds Road. The President is The Hon Mr Justice K Barlee and the General Secretary is Mr H W Bryant, MBE. In connection with each branch there is a well managed hostel providing accommodation for over 200 young men. These branches are managed by a Committee working under the Board of Directors. Each Branch organisation directs many and varied activities designed to meet the physical, spiritual, social, and mental needs of their members. A Welfare Service agency for labourers started in 1924 is now conducting eight centres, serving mill workers, Municipal mental employees, Port Trust and Railway employees. A programme of education, lectures, physical culture, play and general uplift, profitably fills up the leisure time of the workers and their families. The Association is responsible for the direction of three public playgrounds in the city, which are financed by the Municipality.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON—This Association founded in the year 1875 was organised nationally in 1896.

The aim of the Association is to unite women and girls of India, Burma and Ceylon in fellowship and mutual service for their spiritual, intellectual, social and physical development. The Association exists for Indian, Anglo-Indian and European girls and women. There are

The Bombay Branch has done good work in connection with the formation of the Social Purity Committee and has, through a special sub-committee, organized public meetings for women on subjects affecting their interests about which legislation was being or had been recently enacted.

A valuable part of the work of the Association was the establishment of Women's Employment Bureau in Calcutta and Bombay. They were remarkably successful. The Bombay Bureau was eventually merged into the employment Bureau established by the Women's Council, the Calcutta Bureau has ceased to exist.

As a means of promoting friendships between women from various parts of the United Kingdom, with widely differing tastes and interests and spheres of life in India, and as an instrument for affording opportunities for usefulness to educated women, the Association of University Women has a useful function to perform.

This Association is Federated to the "Federation of University Women in India," and thus forms one of the Units of the Indian Federation.

Federation of University Women in India

This is an organization conceived to unite for service and fellowship all University Women of whatever race or University who may be resident in India. Units representing British Universities, Indian Universities and American Universities severally have existed since 1913 (Britain) and 1920 (India and America) respectively.

These Units are now affiliated to the F U W I and are as such affiliated to the International Federation of University Women which embraces 31 countries of the world and has its headquarters at Crosby Hall, Cheyne Walk, London.

This International Federation is then a kind of League of Nations in which the University is the Unit and the opportunities it affords for better understanding for world-friendship, and world service, will easily be imagined.

As forming one Family, its Members help the common cause of women: they help one another by inspiration and interchange of service they help the country for which as individual Units they stand, inasmuch as that country is swept forthwith by reason of its place within the International Federation alone, into world statistics and the dignity of recognition by the League of Nations at Geneva.

ASSOCIATION OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY ALUMNI IN INDIA—This is an organization conceived to unite for service and fellowship all Columbia alumni who may be resident in India. It was founded in 1931, and is a constituent member of the Alumni Federation of Columbia University, New York, U.S.A. There are more than fifty such Columbia Associations including one in London, Paris, Madrid and Berlin. The India Association has its Headquarters in Bombay.

President of the Association—Dr. Jal Dastur C. Pavry, M.A., Ph.D., 63, Pedder Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

The benefit to Members individually also is great. The Club Houses of the Federation all over the world are open to them. Equally so are all Scholarships and Fellowships offered by the Federation.

During 1929 these last have included, Scholarships from Great Britain and America which gave free tuition, board and residence at certain Colleges to students for a degree, residential scholarships at Crosby Hall, valuable Fellowships and Prizes offered chiefly for Medical or Scientific research by Australia and America.

A special scholarship was offered in 1929 by Barnard College, Columbia University to under-graduates from India.

Membership is open to Women Graduates of any University through the Unit representing that University. Colonial Graduates are at present attached to the British Unit. The Bombay Presidency Women Graduates' Union offers membership to a graduate of any recognised University in the whole world.

Subscriptions—Each Unit pays capitation at 8 as per head.

The Federation has Branches in Bombay, Lahore, Madras, Kodaikanal. Each Branch has its local Committee. But as a whole the Federation is under a Central Committee with Headquarters at Calcutta for the years 1928 and 1929. Headquarters are at Bombay from 1930.

OFFICE BEARERS, CENTRAL COMMITTEE.

President, Dr. Muthulakshmi Reddi, M.B., O.M.

LOCAL REPRESENTATIVES

Bombay Mrs. C. M. Scott

Miss I. Baptist.

Punjab Mrs. Skemp

Madras Miss Joseph

Kodaikanal, Mrs. C. McClelland

Honorary General Secretary, Mrs. Doctor, Hiral Mansions, Gowalia Tank Road, Bombay 6.

Applications for membership should be made to the Honorary General Secretary who will forward the same by the Local Secretary to whose Unit it may appertain.

Hon. General Secretary, Mrs. Gulbann J. B. Doctor, Federation of University Women in India.

Name of Club	Estab- lished	Club-house	Subscription			Secretary
			Ent	An- nual	Mon- thly	
JHANSI	1887	Next to Public Gar- dens, Jhansi.	Rs. 50	Rs. .	Rs. 12	Captain T Edmond
MADRAS	1831	Mount Road, Madras.	250	20	12	J A Thomson.
MADRAS COSMOPOL TAN.	1873	Mount Road .	150	24	5	Rao Bahadur Dr A Lakshmanaswami Mudaliar, M D.
MALABAR	1864	Beach Road, Calicut .	100		12	
MATMYO	1901	100	12	20	Major T C Bell, M.B.E
MOOLTAN	1892	Mooltan	50		12	Major J M Mackenzie, R.A.M.O.
NAINITAL .. .	1884	150	12	10	Col J de Grey, O.B.E
OOTACAMUND .	1840	Ootacamund, Nilgiri Hills	150	18	12	Major Arthur Johnson.
ORIENT	Chowpaty, Bombay.	150	72	6	Mr I N Mehta and Captain A C Rich- ards
PEGU .. .	1871	Prome Road, Rangoon	300	20	12	R O B Perrott
PESHAWAR .. .	1833	Peshawar ..	50		12	Major E E Hills
PUNJAB .. .	1879	Upper Mall, Lahore		15	12	Capt R. G Saulx
QUETTA . . .	1879	Quetta.. ..	120	.	21	Major W H Preston
RANGOON GYMNASIA	1874	Haipin Rd., Rangoon	75	6	10	R H Hughesdon, M O
RANGOON BOAT CLUB	.	Royal Lakes, Rangoon	48	12	5	Edward Thomson
RAJPUTANA ..	1880	Mount Abu . .	50		8	R. E Coupland.
ROYAL BOMBAY YACHT CLUB.	1880	Apollo Bunder ..	300	18	12	Lt-Col C Cobb, C.B.E.
ROYAL CALCUTTA TURF CLUB.	1861	11, Russell Street .	500	25		P V Doucet
ROYAL WESTERN INDIA GOLF CLUB.	..	Nasik .. .	75	15	12	H G Lang
SAFURDAY	7, Wood Street, Cal- cutta	175	12	12	E. P J Ryan
SECUNDERABAD ..	1883	Secunderabad(Deccan)	50	.	14	Major H S Morris, M C
SHILLONG .. .	1878	Northbrook Road, Shillong.	100	12	23	J O Ritter
SHAIKOT	Shaikot, Punjab ..	32		21	Capt M C B Steele
SIND	1871	Karachi . . .	200	12	12	H L Walker
TRICHINOPOLY .	1869	Cantonment ..	90	12	12	E Geoghagan
TUTICORIN	1885	Tuticorin ..	50	6	10	R S Kemp Scriven
UNITED SERVICE CLUB	1866	Simla . . .	100	12	12	Major L B Grant, T.D
UNITED SERVICE CLUB, LUCKNOW	1861	Obutter Manzil Palace	100		12	A L Mortimer
UPPER BURWA .	1889	Fort Dufferin, Man- dalay	50	12	20	A Douglas Marshall
WESTERN INDIA TURF.	.	Bombay and Poona ..	150	25	.	C C Gulliland.
WILLINGDON SPORTS	1917	Clerk Road, Bombay	500	120	.	W Botterill
WHEELER LTD ..	1863	The Mall, Meerut ..	50		15	Capt W. J. A. H Auchincloss

The Church.

The Church of England in India became on March 1, 1930, a self-governing branch of the Anglican Communion. Until that date it had been an integral part of the Church of England and its bishops were considered to be suffragans of the Archdiocese of Canterbury. This legal bond was severed by the passing of the Indian Church Act and Measure in 1927, and from the date of severance appointed under the Act, the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon has been free to manage its own affairs, although, as it states in the Preamble to its Constitution, it has no intention or desire "to renounce its obligations to the rest of the Holy Catholic Church and its fundamental principles, but on the contrary acknowledges that if it should abandon those fundamental principles it would break spiritual continuity with its past and destroy its spiritual identity."

Like all the other branches of the Anglican communion the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon is Episcopal. It is composed of fourteen sees, Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Colombo, Lahore, Rangoon, Travancore and Cochin, Chota Nagpur, Lucknow, Tinnevely and Madras, Nagpur, Dornakal, Assam and Nasik. Of these the first to be erected was Calcutta in 1814 and the last was Nasik in 1930. Vacancies on the Episcopal Bench are filled by election, each diocese electing its own bishop. The Bishops rule the Church and to them is reserved the final word in all matters of faith and order, but they rule in conjunction with a system of Councils which has been framed so as to give the greatest possible amount of representation to the whole body of the faithful. The foundation of the system is the Parochial Council of which the Parish Priest is the convenor and chairman. Every baptised, and confirmed member of the Church residing in the parochial area who contributes, in some recognised way, to the financial support of the Church, is a member of the Parochial Council of the ecclesiastical area in which he resides and is called a Qualified Elector.

Above the Parochial Councils come the Diocesan Councils. All Priests holding the Bishop's license are members of the Diocesan Council and to it are sent Lay Representatives elected by the Qualified Electors of every Parochial Council. The Diocesan Councils manage all purely domestic matters and have the right of petitioning the General Council about any subject of wider importance which may interest them. They elect a given number of priests and laymen to be their representatives on the General Council. General Councils are held not less than every three years and usually at Calcutta. They consist of three "Houses," Bishops, Priests and Laymen. Every Diocesan Bishop has a place in the House of Bishops. The other two Houses are formed by the elected representatives of the Diocesan Councils. The three Houses usually sit and vote together,

but any House has the right to meet alone if it desires to do so in order to formulate its policy or classify its opinions. A "Canon" of the Church is a Resolution passed with additional precautions ensuring due consideration by all three Houses. In all questions touching faith or Order the position of the episcopate as the divinely authorised teacher of the Church is most carefully safeguarded and the Bishops alone, without the concurrence of the other Houses, can issue Determinations about both subjects. But no Determination of the Bishops can be the subject of disciplinary action until it has become a Canon.

Every priest before being licensed to work in the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon takes an oath of obedience to the Canons.

The Ecclesiastical Establishment—At the time of the passing of the Indian Church Act and Measure the Government of India acknowledged that it was responsible for providing for the spiritual needs of the Soldiers and Civilians whom it brought out to India. These responsibilities it discharges by maintaining an establishment of chaplains and churches for the four principal denominations of Christians—Anglican, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic and the Free Churches. The Chaplains of the two first named groups are appointed by the Secretary of State for India, the Anglicans on the recommendation of a Selection Committee of which the Archbishop of Canterbury is the Chairman. They are paid by Government and pensioned after a covenanted period of service. Although they form a definite Department of Government they are not subject to the orders of anyone save their own ecclesiastical superiors. The Presbyterian Chaplains are sometimes appointed to stations and sometimes to regiments. The Anglican chaplains are always chaplains of stations and have the pastoral care of all the inhabitants of the station who do not deliberately withdraw themselves from their ministrations, but when troops are included in the number of their parishioners Government orders that they shall have the first claim on their services. The chaplains and their congregations are members of the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon during their residence in India and have full rights of representation in the Councils of the Church. Their right to the use in worship of the Prayer Book of the Church of England is not only acknowledged in the Constitution of the Church but is also safeguarded by clauses in the Indian Church Act.

Government gives to the Metropolitan an annual block grant which is divided between the seven bishops whom Government recognises as having jurisdiction over the Establishment Chaplains and their congregations. These are the Bishops of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Lahore, Lucknow, Rangoon and Nagpur.

statesman and the publicist are chiefly interested in the excellent moral effect produced by these institutions amongst the educated classes, and the higher educational ideals maintained by their staffs. The principal University colleges under Protestant auspices are the Madras Christian College, the Duff College, Calcutta, the Wilson College, Bombay, the Forman College, Lahore, and three women's colleges—the Women's Christian College at Madras, the Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow, and the Women's Christian Medical College at Ludhiana. The Roman Catholics have a large number of educational institutions, ranging from small village schools to great colleges preparing students for University degrees. But the proportion of Christian students in their institutions is very much larger than in those of the Protestant bodies. The proportion of literates amongst native Roman Catholics is probably lower than amongst the Protestant converts, but compared with Hindus and Mahomedans it is conspicuously higher. The Roman Catholics have some 3,000 elementary schools in which 98,000 boys and 41,000 girls are receiving instruction. In middle and high schools they have 143,000 boys and 73,000 girls and in University colleges about 5,000 students of both sexes. These figures, however, include a large proportion of Europeans and Eurasians, who are an almost negligible quantity in Protestant mission schools and colleges.

More recent, but producing even more widespread results, is the philanthropic work of Christian missions. Before the great famine of 1878, missionaries confined themselves almost exclusively to evangelistic and educational activity. The famine threw crowds of destitute people and orphan children upon their hands. Orphanages and industrial schools became an urgent necessity. But the philanthropic spirit is never satisfied with one kind of organisation or method. A great stimulus was also given to medical missions. Hospitals and dispensaries have sprung up in all parts of the mission field, and leper asylums are almost a monopoly of Christian missionary effort. In 1911 the total number of medical missionaries working under Protestant societies in India was 118 men and 217 women, the majority of the former being also ordained ministers of religion. There are 184 industrial institutions in which 59 different arts and crafts are taught, ranging from agriculture to type-writing. In this department the Salvation Army hold a prominent place, and the confidence of Government in their methods has been shown by their being officially entrusted with the difficult work of winning over certain criminal tribes to a life of industry. The indirect effect of all this philanthropic activity under missionary auspices has been most marked. It has awakened the social conscience of the non-Christian public, and such movements as "The Servants of India" and the mission to the Depressed Classes are merely the outward and visible sign of a great stirring of the philanthropic spirit far beyond the sphere of Christian missionary operations.

Reunion.—For very many years Indian Christians have shown that they felt much

more acutely than Europeans the scandal and disadvantage of the divisions of Christendom. These divisions are due to a very much greater extent than is always recognized to political causes, and in the political conflicts of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when they became crystallised, India had no part. Even those differences amongst Christians which have a purely religious origin and foundation seem to be of very little account to Indian converts. For them the great dividing line is that between Christ and Mohammed or Shiva and Vishnu. Standing before a background of paganism they are conscious of a real fundamental unity in Christ. Compared with the greatness of the gulf which separates Christian from non-Christian, the differences of "confession" and "order" which separate Christians from Christians seem to be wholly artificial and negligible. In consequence the reunion movement, which is noticeable all over the world, is nowhere so strong as in India. In South India it has already resulted in the formation of the South India United Church, which is a group union of five of the principal Protestant communions, and as these bodies are in communion individually with all, or almost all, the other Protestant bodies at work in India the Union may be regarded as a Pan-Protestant Union. The S.I.U.C. is at present negotiating with the Anglican Church. If as seems probable the negotiations are successful the result will amount to a union of all the Christian bodies in South India, except the Roman Catholics, on the basis of the last Lambeth encyclical. This will mean that a real National Indian Church will come into being. Although it will be tolerant of almost every expression of Evangelical opinion and will retain the freedom of development characteristic of Protestantism, by its acceptance of the Catholic creeds and the historic Episcopate, it will be linked up with the Catholic tradition of the Anglican Church.

Anglican Missionary Societies.

The Church Missionary Society carries on work in India in seven different missions—the United Provinces, South India, Travancore and Cochin, Bengal, Western India, Punjab and Sind and the Central Provinces and Rajputana. The names are in order of seniority. Work was begun in what are now called the United Provinces in 1813, in Bombay in 1820, in the Punjab in 1851, and in the Central Provinces in 1854. The Society has always kept Evangelistic work well to the fore, but it also has important medical missions, especially on the N.-W. Frontier, and many schools of the Primary, Middle and High standards. The Church of England Zenana Missionary Society is an offshoot of the C. M. S. controlling the work of 162 missionary ladies. The number of ordained European missionaries of the C. M. S. in India and Ceylon is 160, European laymen 80 and European laywomen 258. The Society claims a Christian community of 2,21,359 of whom 63,555 are adult communicants.

Society for the propagation of the Gospel.—Statistics of the work of this Society are not easily ascertained, as much of it is done through Diocesan institutions, which, while financed and in many cases manned by the S. P. G., are

BENGAL ECCLESIASTICAL DEPARTMENT—*contd*

PROBATIONARY.

Randolph, Rev T B, M A Senior Chaplain, St. Paul's Cathedral, Calcutta

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

Dodd, The Rev George Edward, M A, B D, J P, H O F Presidency Senior Chaplain, Church of Scotland, Bengal (On leave, *ex-India* preparatory to retirement)
 Lee, The Rev Robert Ewing, M O, B D, J P Officiating Presidency Senior Chaplain, Church of Scotland, Bengal, and Senior Chaplain, St Andrew's Church, Calcutta
 McLellan, The Rev Duncan Tait Hutchison, M A Senior Chaplain (On leave)
 McEdward, The Rev Lachlan, M A Junior Chaplain Attached 1st Battalion, The Black Watch (R H), Barrackpore
 Buchanan, The Rev George, M A Chaplain on Probation, Second Chaplain, St Andrew's Church, Calcutta.

CHURCH OF ROME

Perier, The Most Rev Dr Ferdinand, S I Archbishop, Calcutta
 Bryan, Rev Leo, S J Chaplain, Alipore Central Jail

Bombay Ecclesiastical Department.

Acland, The Right Rev Richard Dyke, M A Lord Bishop of Bombay
 Ashley Brown, The Ven'ble William, L T H Archdeacon
 Arthur Patrick Lillie Registrar of the Diocese
 Eastley, C M Registrar of the Diocese (Officiating)

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Dart Rev Canon John Lovering Campbell, M A Senior Presidency Chaplain, Bombay (On leave)
 Wornald, Rev, Robert Leonard, M A, M B E Chaplain of Belgaum (On leave)
 Ashley-Brown, Rev W, L T H Chaplain of St Mary's, Poona Archdeacon of Bombay (in addition) and Chaplain of Mahableshwar (in addition)
 Dossator, Rev F E, M A Chaplain of Deolali (On leave)
 Fortescue, Rev C F, L T H (Dur) (On leave)
 Seaman, Rev Alfred Jonathan, M A Chaplain of Ahmedabad
 Johnston, Rev. G F Chaplain of Karachi
 Bartels, Rev R C Chaplain, Hyderabad (Sind)

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS.

Harding, Rev J A Chaplain, Kirkee
 Cowburn, Rev F, B A Chaplain of Colaba
 Elliott, Rev T R H, M A Chaplain of Ahmednagar
 Barnes, Rev J, B A Chaplain of Orater, Aden
 Ball, Rev Henry, M A Chaplain of Belgaum
 McPherson, Rev K O Senior Presidency Chaplain, Bombay
 Stansfield, Rev H R Chaplain, Steamer Point, Aden
 Lewis, Rev O G Chaplain of Deolali
 Ruddell, Rev J F W, B A Chaplain of Ghorpuri
 Lindsay, Rev W T, M A Garrison Chaplain, Bombay

FIELD SERVICE POST

NW

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

Chaplains.

MacKenzie, Rev D F, M A Senior Chaplain, St Andrew's Church, Bombay
 McCaul, Rev. M Presidency Senior Chaplain (On leave)
 Ingram, Rev. J W., M A, B D The Presidency Senior Chaplain, Church of Scotland and Senior Chaplain, St Andrew's Church, Bombay Officiating
 Matheson, Rev R W. Chaplain, St Andrew's Church, Karachi.

CHAPLAIN OF THE CHURCH OF ROME.

Iama, The Most Rev Dr Joachim R Presidency.

MADRAS ECCLESIASTICAL DEPARTMENT—*contd*

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS

Hayward, Rev W G	Chaplain, St George's Cathedral
Wilson, Rev G A	Chaplain, St Mary's Church, Fort St George.
Clarke, Rev M	Garrison Chaplain, Fort St George
White, Rev Jack	Chaplain, Bolarum
Bry Rev E H	Chaplain (On leave)
James Phys, R	Chaplain, Trimulghery

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

McLean, Rev J	Presidency Senior Chaplain, Madras
Short, Rev G M D	Chaplain, St Andrew's Church, Bangalore

North-West Frontier Ecclesiastical Department.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Nil

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS

Devlin Rev T S	Chaplain of Kohat
Bradbury, Rev J H	Chaplain of Nowshera
Nicholl, Rev E M	Chaplain of Peshawar
Lawrence, Rev G	Chaplain of Razmak
Sahsburry, Rev Dr	Chaplain of Abbottabad
Rose, Rev T P	Assistant Chaplain, Peshawar
Morgan, Rev B I	Chaplain of Risalpur

Punjab Ecclesiastical Department.

Barne, The Right Rev George Dunsford, M A ,	Lahore Bishop of Lahore
CIL OBLE VD	
Garden, The Ven'ble H C , M A	(On leave)
McKelvie, Rev Robert Fritz Stanley, D D	(On leave)
Lister, Rev Canon J G , M A	Ambala
Marshall, Rev Canon Norinan Edwyn, M A	Rawalpindi
Johnston, Rev Canon G F , M A	Karachi
Devenish, The Ven'ble R O S , M A	Lahore Archdeacon of Lahore
Tumblng, Rev F G H	(On leave ex-India)
Rennison, Rev Eric David, M A	Jullunder
Gorrie, Rev, L M , TH L	(On leave ex-India)
Jones, Rev G W , B A	West Ridge, Rawalpindi
Storrs-Fox, Dev E A , M A	Murree
Nicholl, Rev E M , M A , M C	Peshawar
McKenzie, Rev D S , M A	New Dellu
Morgan, Rev B I , M A	Risalpur
Evers, Rev M S , M A , M C	Quetta
Devlin Rev T S , M A	Kohat
Sahsburry, Rev Mark, LL D	Abbottabad
Waterbury, Rev F G , B D	Dalhousie
Bartels, Rev R C , B A	Hyderabad, (Sind)

United Provinces Ecclesiastical Department.

Saunders, The Right Rev Charles John Godfrey,	Bishop of Lucknow, Headquarters, Allahabad
Bill, The Ven ble Sydney Alfred, M A	Archdeacon of Lucknow, Headquarters, Naini Tal
Westmacott, R , V D , Bar-at-Law	Registrar of the Diocese of Lucknow, Headquarters, Calcutta.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Bill, The Ven'ble Sydney Alfred, M A	Naini Tal
Cohu, The Rev Canon Clifford John, M A	On leave preparatory to retirement
Talbot, The Rev Alfred Dixon	(On leave)
Maynard, The Rev Bertram Martin, A B O	(On leave)
Broughton, The Rev Arthur Hardwicke, M A	Dehra Dun

UNITED PROVINCES ECCLESIASTICAL DEPARTMENT—*contd*SENIOR CHAPLAINS—*contd*

Bigg, The Rev Arthur Cecil Pietroni, M A.	Ranikhet (Almora).
Hare, The Rev. Canon Arthur Neville, M A	Fyzabad.
Patrick, The Rev Alexander, M A.	Jhansi
Porter, The Rev John, L TH	Agra
Douglas, The Rev Percy Sholto, M A	Muttra
Southern, The Rev Gerald Holte Brackbridge, M A	Allahabad Garrison
Luckman, The Rev Sydney, M A	Cawnpore
Burn, The Rev John Humphrey, M A	(On leave)

Methodist Church.

BENGAL.

Reynell The Rev Arthur Jesse	Senior Methodist Chaplain in India, New Delhi
Frost, The Rev George Levecky, Hon C I	Rawalpudi
Keir, The Rev Robert Thomas, Hon C I.	Lahore
Poad, The Rev Frank Edger	Meerut.
Kelly, The Rev John Dwyer, Hon C I	Quetta
Thorpe, The Rev Percival Edward	Mhow
Glanville, The Rev J E	On leave
Wright, The Rev Raymond B, M A	Jhansi
Bryson, The Rev G M	Jubbulpore
Caunter, Rev J Govett	Peshawar
Clifford, The Rev F Wesley	Calcutta
Rolfe, The Rev Herbert E	Lucknow

MADRAS

Whittread, The Rev Arthur	Secunderabad
Hopkins, The Rev. Leonard J	Bangalore

BOMBAY.

Cullwick, The Rev William Edward, Hon C I	Bombay.
Munro, The Rev James Henry, Hon C I	Kirkc

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

With regard to numbers, the *Catholic Directory of India* gives the following tables—

	1911	1921	1931
1. <i>British India and Indian States—</i>			
(a) Latin Rite .. .	1,814,020	1,851,408	2,104,918
(b) Syriac Rites.. .	364,660	440,488	540,981
2 <i>French India</i> . ..	25,018	25,480	25,492
3 <i>Portuguese India</i> .. .	296,148	288,741	326,090
Total, India	2,301,346	2,606,117	3,067,081
4. <i>Ceylon</i>	322,103	393,980	394,993
Total, India and Ceylon .	2,623,500	2,970,103	3,462,074

NOTE (1) :—In 1860, the total for India and Ceylon was 1,170,854. In 1889 it had risen to 1,610,265 and in 1900 to 2,201,674.

NOTE (2) —In 1860 there were 1,504 priests In 1921 there were 3,156. In 1931 there were 3,625

The Catholic community as thus existing is composed of the following elements —

- (1) The "Syrian" Christians of the Malabar Coast, traditionally said to have been converted by the Apostle St. Thomas. They were brought under allegiance to the Pope by the Portuguese in 1599, and placed first under Jesuit bishops and then under Carmelite Vicar-Apostolics. They are at present ruled by an Archbishop and three suffragan Bishops of their own Syrian rite.
- (2) Converts of the Portuguese missionaries from 1500 and onwards, starting from Goa and working in the south of the peninsula and up the west coast, Ceylon, Bengal, etc
- (3) European immigrants at all times, including British troops
- (4) Modern converts from Hinduism and Animism in recent mission centres.
- (5) Recent converts from the Jacobite community in Malabar, of which 2 Bishops, 50 priests and some 10,000 lay have been "united" to the Catholic Church

The Portuguese mission enterprise, starting after 1500, continued for about 200 years, after which it began to decline. To meet this decline fresh missionaries were sent out by the Congregation *de propaganda fide*, till by the middle of the 19th century the whole country was divided out among them except such portions as were occupied by the Goa clergy. Hence arose a conflict of jurisdiction in many parts between the Portuguese clergy of the "Padroado" or royal patronage, and the propaganda clergy. This conflict was set at rest by the Concordat of 1886 (amended by the Agreement of 1928, abolishing "double jurisdiction"). At the same time the whole country was placed under a regular hierarchy, which after subsequent adjustments now stands as follows —

Under the Sacred Congregation of Extraordinary Ecclesiastical Affairs —

The archbishopric of Goa and Damaun (having some extension into British territory) with suffragan bishoprics at Cochin and Mylapore (both in British territory)

Under the Sacred Congregation of Oriental Churches —

The archbishopric of Ernakulam, with Suffragan bishoprics of Changanacherry, Kottayam and Trichur.

Immediately subject to the Holy See —

The archbishopric of Trivandrum, with suffragan bishopric of Tiruvella

Under the Sacred Congregation of Propaganda Fide —

The archbishopric of Agra, with suffragan bishoprics of Allahabad and Ajmere.

The archbishopric of Bombay with suffragan bishoprics of Poona, Mangalore, Calicut, Trichinopoly and Tuticorin, and the Missions of Ahmedabad and Karachi.

The archbishopric of Calcutta, with suffragan bishoprics of Ranchi, Dacca, Chittagong, Krishnagar, Dinajpur, Patna and Shillong and the Prefecture Apostolic of Sikkim.

The archbishopric of Madras, with suffragan bishoprics of Nellore, Hyderabad, Vizagapatam and Nagpur, the Prefecture-Apostolic of Jubbulpore, and the Missions of Cuttack and Bellary

The archbishopric of Pondicherry (French), with suffragan bishoprics of Mysore, Coimbatore, Kumbakonam, Salem and Malacca

The archbishopric of Simla, with suffragan bishopric of Lahore and the Prefecture-Apostolic of Kashmere

The archbishopric of Verapoly, with suffragan bishoprics of Quilon, Kottar and Vijayapuram

The archbishopric of Colombo (Ceylon), with suffragan bishoprics at Kandy, Galle, Jaffna and Trincomalee

Three Vicariates Apostolic and one Prefecture Apostolic of Burma.

The European clergy engaged in India almost all belong to religious orders, congregation or mission seminaries, and in the great majority are either French, Belgian, Dutch, Swiss, Spanish or Italian by nationality. They number about 1,300 besides which there is a body of secular clergy mostly Indian, etc., numbering about 2,200, and probably about 2,000 nuns. The first work of the clergy is parochial ministration to existing Christians, including railway people and British troops. Second comes education, which is not confined to their own people, their schools being frequented by large numbers of Hindus, Mahomedans, Parsis, etc. Among the most important institutions are St Xavier's College, Calcutta, St Peter's College, Agra, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, St Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, St Aloysius College, Mangalore, Loyola College, Madras, teaching university courses, besides a large number of high schools and elementary schools. The education of girls is supplied for by numerous convent schools worked by religious congregations of nuns to say nothing of orphanages and other charitable institutions. The total number under education amounted in 1904 to 143,051 boys and 73,164 girls, later figures being unavailable. As to missionary work proper, the country is covered with numerous modern mission centres, among which those in the Punjab, Chota-Nagpur, Krishnagar, Gujerat, the Ahmednagar district and the Telugu coasts may be mentioned. (Full particulars on all points will be found in the Catholic Directory already quoted.) The mission work is limited solely by shortage of men and money, which if forthcoming would give the means to an indefinite extension. The resources of the clergy after the ordinary church collections and pay of a few military and railway chaplains are derived mainly from Europe, that is, from the collections of the Society for the Pro-

pagation of the Faith and of the Holy Childhood, helped out by private or other donations secured from home by the different local missionaries. In mission work the fathers count as enrolled only those who are baptised and persevering as Christians, and no baptism except for infants or at point of death, is administered except after careful instruction

and probation. This, while keeping down the record, has the advantage of guaranteeing solid results.

The Holy See is represented by a Delegate Apostolic of the East Indies who resides at Bangalore. At present this post is occupied by the Most Rev Archbishop Klerkels, D.D., appointed in 1931.

THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

The Church of Scotland and the United Free Church have become one. The Union, effected in October 1920, has already exerted a profound influence upon the life of the Church of Scotland in India. The Chaplaincy work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1814, when the Rev Dr. Bryce landed in Calcutta, and organised a congregation of his Scottish fellow countrymen. The centenary of the churches in the three Presidency towns was celebrated: Calcutta, 1914; Bombay, 1919; Madras, 1921. Since 1903 there have been eighteen chaplains on the staff, of whom nine belong to the Bengal Presidency, five to Bombay, and four to Madras. These minister both to the Scottish troops and to the civil population of the towns where they are stationed, but when there is a Scottish regiment the chaplain is attached to the regiment, instead of being posted to the station where the regiment happens to be placed and as a rule moves with the regiment. There are three Presidency senior Chaplains in charge of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras respectively. There are churches in the chief towns of the Presidencies, and churches have also been built, in all considerable military stations, e.g., Obakrata, Lucknow, Peshawar, Ranikhet, Rawalpindi, Sialkot, Umballa and Jubulpore. In addition to the regular establishment there are a number of acting Chaplains sent out by the Colonial Committee of the Church of Scotland, and these are serving in such stations as Rawalpindi, Lahore, Cawnpore, Meerut, Mhow and Quetta. The Additional Clergy Societies in India contribute towards the cost of this additional establishment. In other places such as Sialkot, Murree, Dalhousie and Darjeeling, regular services are provided by Scottish Missionaries. Simla has a minister of its own sent out from Scotland.

The Mission work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1829, when Alexander Duff, one of the greatest of modern missionaries, was sent to Calcutta. He was the first to open schools where English was made the medium for instruction, and where religious teaching was given daily. Similar educational missions were soon afterwards started in Bombay and Madras. Educational work is still an important branch of the mission work of the Church, but the Bombay College was closed in 1919 and in 1907 the College in Calcutta was united with the College of the United Free Church of Scotland, to form the Scottish Churches College. In the Punjab Evangelistic work is being carried on from eight centres under seven missionaries. The baptised Chris-

tian community now numbers over 14,000. Work commenced in Darjeeling in 1870 is now carried on throughout the whole Eastern Himalayan district, and there is a Christian community there of over 8,000. In the five mission districts of Calcutta, the Eastern Himalayas, Madras, Poona, and the Punjab there were at the end of 1919 over 24,787 baptised Indian Christians. In connection with these missions the Women's Association of Foreign Missions does invaluable service in school, medical and zenana work, having in India 41 European missionaries, 163 teachers, over 50 schools, three hospitals and six dispensaries.

The Church of Scotland has also done much to provide education for European children in India. Its two Churches in Bombay have six representatives on the governing body of the Anglo-Scottish Education Society, and the two churches exercise pastoral supervision over the Bombay Scottish Orphanage. In Bangalore there is the St. Andrew's High School, and both in Bangalore and in Madras the local congregation supports the school for poor children. The Ayrcliff Girls' Boarding and High School is under the care of the Kirk-Session of St. Andrew's Church, Simla. The now well-known St. Andrew's Colonial Homes at Kalimpong, Bengal, though not directly part of the work of the Church of Scotland, were initiated by and are being locally managed by missionaries of that Church. The homes exist for the benefit of the domiciled European Community, and are doing magnificent work. There are now twenty cottages, and about 600 children in residence. Further information may be found in "Reports of the Schemes of the Church of Scotland," Blackwood & Sons; "The Church of Scotland Year Book" and "The Handbook of the Church of Scotland in India and Ceylon."

Though the former Churches of the United Free Church now belong to the Church of Scotland they remain independent of the establishment recognised by Government. They have only three purely European congregations in India, two in Calcutta, and one in Bombay.

The Church carries on Mission work in seven different areas. They are Bengal (Calcutta, Kalna and Ohinsura); the Santal Parganas, with five stations, Western India (Bombay, Poona and Ailbag), Hyderabad State (Jalna, Bethel and Parbhani), Madras (Madras City, Olungelput, Sriperumbudur and Coonoor); the Central Provinces (Nagpur,

Bhandara, Wardha, and Amraoti); Rayputana, where the extensive work instituted by the United Presbyterian Church in 1860 is now carried on from eleven centres

The work falls into three main divisions, evangelistic, medical, and educational. The Christian community has been organised in all the chief centres into congregations which form part of the Indian Presbyterian Church, and this Church is seeking to take an increasing share in the work of evangelism. There are nineteen Mission Hospitals, among which are four excellently equipped and staffed Women's

Hospitals, in Madras, Nagpur, Ajmer, and Jaipur. From the days of Duff in Calcutta and Wilson in Bombay the Mission has given a prominent place to education. It has many schools in all parts of its field and it has also made a large contribution to the work of higher education through four Christian Colleges. The Scottish Churches College, Calcutta, is well known. The Madras Christian College, which owes so much to the work of Dr. William Miller, is now under the direction of a Board representing several Missionary Societies. Other Colleges are Wilson College, Bombay, and Bishop College, Nagpur.

BAPTIST SOCIETIES.

THE BAPTIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN.—Formed in 1792, largely through the efforts of Dr. Wm Carey, operates mainly in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Punjab and Ceylon. The Baptist Zenana Mission and the Bible Translation Society have been united with this Society. The staff of the united Mission in India and Ceylon numbers 206 missionaries and about 978 Indian and Singhalese workers. Connected with the Society are 376 Indian and Singhalese Churches, 290 Primary Day Schools, 20 Middle and High Schools, and 1 Theological Training College. The Church membership at the close of 1933 stood at 23,245 and the Christian community at 59,812. The membership during the past ten years has increased by about 63 per cent, and the community by 50 per cent in the same period. Amongst the non-caste people great progress has been made in recent years, and many of the Churches formed from amongst these peoples are self-supporting.

Special work amongst students is carried on in Calcutta, Dacca, Cuttack, Patna and Delhi where hostels have been erected for the prosecution of this form of work.

EDUCATIONAL WORK.—Ranges from Primary School to Colleges. Serampore College with its Royal Charter granted by His Danish Majesty in 1827, confirmed by the British Government in the Treaty of Purchase of the Settlement of Serampore in 1845, and placed in 1856 by the College Council at the disposal of the Baptist Missionary Society to become a part of its Missionary Educational operations, in Arts and Theology. It was affiliated in 1867 to the newly-formed Calcutta University, reorganised in 1910 on the lines of its original foundation with the appointment of a qualified Theological Staff on an Inter-denominational basis for the granting of Theological Degrees to qualified students of all Churches.

In Arts and Science the College prepares for the Calcutta Examinations. *Principal* Rev. G. H. C. Angus, M.A., B.D.

There is a vernacular institute also at Cuttack for the training of Indian preachers and Bible schools in several centres.

There are 9 or 10 purely English Baptist Churches connected with the Society, but English services are carried on in many of the stations. Medical work connected with the Society is carried on in 7 Hospitals, and 12 Dispensaries. Two large Printing Presses for both English and Vernacular work are conducted at Calcutta and Outack. The Secretary of the Mission is the Rev D. Scott Wells; 44, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

The Headquarters of the Mission are at 19, Farnival Street, Holborn, London. The total expenditure of the Society for 1934 amounted to £172,034 of which £90,690 was expended in India & Ceylon.

THE CANADIAN BAPTIST MISSION.—Was commenced in 1873, and is located in the Telugu Country to the north of Madras, in the Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatam and Ganjam Districts. There are 22 stations and 608 outstations with a staff of 102 missionaries including 10 qualified physicians, and 1,371 Indian workers, with Gospel preaching in 1,536 villages. Organised Churches number 123, communicants 20,885 and adherents 19,000 for the past year. Forty-six Churches are entirely self-supporting. In the Educational department are 564 village day schools, with 19,284 children, 15 boarding schools, 2 High schools, 2 Normal Training schools, a Bible Training School for Women, a Theological Seminary providing in all for 1,000 pupils, and an Industrial school. There are 6 Hospitals, two leper asylums and an Orphanage. The Mission publishes a Telugu newspaper. Village Evangelisation is the central feature of the Mission, and stress is laid upon the work amongst women and children. During the last decade membership has increased by 65 per cent, the Christian community by 20 per cent, and scholars by 105 per cent. Indian Secretary is the Rev A. Arthur Scott, Tunl, East Godawari.

AMERICAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION SOCIETY, organized in 1814, has Missions in Burma begun 1813; Assam 1836, Bengal and Orissa 1836, South India 1840. It owes its rise to the celebrated Adoniram Judson. Until 1910 the Society was known as the American Baptist Missionary Union. There are 32 main stations in Burma, 13 in Assam, 10 in Bengal-Orissa, 29 in South India, besides many outstations. All forms of missionary enterprise come within the scope of the Society.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIETIES.

THE IRISH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH MISSION — Operates in Gujarat and Kathiawar with a staff of 36 Missionaries, of whom 18 are clerical, 14 Educationalists, 6 are Doctors and 2 Nurses. The Indian staff numbers 524, of whom 15 are Pastors, 57 Evangelists, 4 Colporteurs, 41 Bible-women, and 348 are Teachers. There are 19 Organised Churches, a communicant roll of 2,358, and a Christian Community of 7,739. In Medical work there are 4 Hospitals and several Dispensaries, with 1,714 in-patients, 17,377 new cases, and a total attendance of 67,819. The Mission conducts 3 High Schools, 1 Anglo-Vernacular School, 1 Preparatory School at Parantij and 131 Vernacular schools affording tuition for 6,724 pupils; also 1 crèche, 4 Orphanages, an Industrial School at Borsad, a Teachers' Training College for Women at Borsad, a Divinity Hall at Ahmedabad and a Mission Press at Surat. The Mission has made speciality of Farm Colonies, of which there are about a score in connection with it, most of the thriving.

The Jungle Trail Mission with 7 Missionaries is a branch of the activities of the above, working in the Panch Mahals and Rewa Kanth districts with Farm Colonies attached.

Secretary, Rev. George Wilson, F.A., Ahmedabad.

THE UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA — The Sikhote Mission of this Church was established at Sikhote in the Punjab in 1875. It is now carrying on work in several districts in the Punjab and two in the

North-West Frontier Province Its missionaries number 113, including married ladies and its Indian workers 316 Its educational work composes one Theological Seminary, one College, four High Schools, one Industrial school, seven Middle schools and 134 Primary schools The enrolment in all schools in 1930 was 13,209 Medical work is carried on through five Hospitals and four Dispensaries The communicant membership of the Church which has been established was 44,753 in 1931 and the total Christian community 95,216

General Secretary Rev H C Chambers, D D, Gordon College, Rawalpindi

THE AMERICAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION operates in three main sections known as the Punjab North India and Western India Missions The American staff, including women, numbers 256, and the Indian staff 1,135 There are thirty-four main stations and 229 out-stations Organised churches number 100, of which thirty-two are self-supporting There are 13,826 communicants and a total baptized community of 61,487

Educational work as follows—Two men's colleges and an interest in the Isabella Thoburn and Kinnaird Colleges for Women, students about 1,820, one Theological College, students thirty-four, two Training Schools for Village Workers, students about 180, twelve High Schools, students about 3,400, three Industrial Schools, three Agricultural Demonstration Farms, five Teachers' Training Departments, The Miraj Medical School and an interest in the Ludhiana Medical College for Women, students about 170, 230 Elementary Schools, 241 Schools of all grades, pupils about 12,023

Medical Work—Seven Hospitals, twenty-four Dispensaries

Evangelistic Work—331 Sunday Schools, with an attendance of 11,503 pupils Contributions for church and evangelistic work, on the part of the Indian church, Rs 71,254

The Hospital at Miraj, founded by the late Sir William J Wanless and now under the care of C E Vail, is well-known throughout the whole of S W India, and the Forman Christian College at Lahore, under the principalship of Dr S K Datta, is equally well-known and valued in the Punjab The Ewing Christian College (Dr C H Race, Principal) has grown rapidly in numbers and influence

Secretary of Council of A P Missions in India—Rev J L Dodds, D D, "Lowriston", Dehra Dun, U P

Secretary, North India Mission—Rev W L Alhson, B A, B D, Gwalior, C I

Secretary, Punjab Mission—Rev J B Weir, M A, Ewing Hall, Lahore

Secretary, Western India Mission—Rev D B Updegraff, M A, D D, Nipani, Belgaum District

THE NEW ZEALAND PRESBYTERIAN MISSION—Commenced as recently as 1910 at Jagadhri, Punjab

Secretary Miss B J. Hardie, Jagadhri, Dist Amballa.

THE UNITED CHURCH OF CANADA MISSION—Commenced in 1877 has 14 main stations in Indore, Gwalior, Rutlam, Dhar, Jaora, Sitamau, Bhopal and Banswara States The Mission staff numbers 80, Indian workers 200 This Mission works in-conjunction with the Malwa Church-Council of the United Church of Northern India, which reports for this part of its territory—Organised churches 22, Unorganised churches 8, Communicants 2,241, Baptised non-communicants 5,836, Unbaptised adherents 821, Total Christian Community 8,898

Educational work comprises Elementary and Middle Schools for boys and girls, a High School for girls, an Arts College for students of both sexes (The Indore Christian College), a Normal School for girls, and the Malwa Theological Seminary Women's industrial work is carried on in Mhow and Rutlam, and Vocational Training for boys is a feature of the Basalpara Boys' School, where training is provided in printing, tailoring, carpentry and motor mechanics

The Medical work is large There are three General Hospitals, where both men and women are treated, and five Women's Hospitals, and also a number of dispensaries in central and out-stations

General Secretary of Mission—Rev A A. Scott, M A, B D, B Paed, Indore, C I

Associate Secretary of Mission—Miss F E Clearihue, Khanna, C I (Via Mehidpur Rd Station)

Secretary of Malwa Church-Council—Rev F H Russell, M A, D D, Rutlam, C I

The Canadian Presbyterian Mission operates in two sections, the Northern Section with headquarters at Jhansi in the U P, and the Central India Section, known as the Southern Bhul Field

In Central India the five central stations are located in the States of Alirajpur and Jobat and Barwani, but the Mission comprises within its area the States of Jabua and Kathuwara, also part of Chhota Udaipur in the Bombay Presidency and parts of Dhar, Indore and Gwalior States bordering on the Jobat-Barwani Road The Staff in Central India consists of 20 missionaries and 42 Indian workers There are several elementary schools in the area and a central and vernacular School for boys and girls at Amkhut and Alirajpur States At Amkhut also there is a Children's Nursery Home and dispensary and a General Hospital for the area is located at Jobat In the district there are five organised and 3 unorganised churches with 273 communicant members and a baptised community of over 1,300

Secretary—Thomas Draper, M R C S (Lond), M R C P (Ed) Jobat, Via Dohad, Central India

The Jhansi Section formerly known as the Gwalior Mission was founded by the late Dr J. Wilkie in 1905 There is now a staff of twelve missionaries and twenty-five Indian workers who are engaged in Jhansi city, Esagarh, Baragaon and the surrounding villages.

Activities include Anglo-vernacular middle schools for both boys and girls and hostels for Christian pupils in each There is also an orphanage for children under school age, a

discrepancy and an industrial school for the
There is an agricultural college near the station
where the Mission has a field station.

There are two principal churches here, the
communicant membership of 1,000.

Secretary—The Rev. A. J. S. Sand, D.D., B.A., F.R.S.

THE WILSON GOSWAMI MISSION (PROTESTANT)
MISSION is established in 1870 with a staff
of 40 Missionaries. It has 100 stations, 100
stations in Assam in the Jhalakandi and Jorhat
Hills, the Lushai Hills and at Sathal and Chokor.
The Khasi language has been reduced to
writing, the Bible translated, and many books
published in that language. In the 1890s a
large amount of literature has been pro-
duced in the English language. The number of
number 20,000, the total Christian population
of 20,000, organized Churches 7,000, primary
schools number 675. Scholars 20,000. There
is a Industrial School and Training Institute
at Thakurpukur, Samtse. There are 100
Scholars 1,000. Four Hospitals at 1,000
dispensaries provide medical service for more than
10,000 patients.

Secretary—The Rev. A. J. S. Sand, D.D., B.A., F.R.S.

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIETIES.

THE AMERICAN BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS
FOR FOREIGN MISSIONS—has a large field
station in South India. The Marathi Mission
has a considerable part of the Burmese population
with centre at Bhamo, Mandalay, Sater
and Sholapur. It was commenced in 1841
the first American Mission in India. Its
activities are large and varied. In 1907
for 1907 consisted of 52 stations, 1,000
stations, and 700 Indian workers of native in 10
stations and 90 out-stations. There are 10
churches number 60 with 1,000 communicants
and 1,800 unapplied adherents. The religious
work for lepers at Sholapur. The educational
work includes 10 secondary and training schools
with 1,151 pupils, and 68 primary schools with
4,147 pupils, three-fifths of whom are non-
Christians. Zenana work and industrial work
are vigorously carried on, the latter embracing
carpentry and lace work. A school for the blind
is conducted in Bombay on both commercial
and industrial lines. In the hospitals and
dispensaries of the Mission last year, 57,797
patients were treated. This Mission was the
first to translate the Christian scriptures into
the Marathi tongue. At Sholapur a settlement
of Criminal Tribes is carried on by the Mission
under the supervision of Government. Secretary
Rev. W. Q. Swart, Ahmednagar.

MADRAS MISSION.—The Madras Mission
celebrated its centenary in January, 1904, and
at that time turned over administration of
work under its control to the Madras Mission
Sangam. The Mission still exists to deal with
certain matters relating to the maintenance of
missionaries. The Secretary is Rev. W. W.
Wallace, Madras.

MADRAS CHURCH COUNCIL.—The Madras
Church Council is a branch of the South India
United Church, and is in charge of the Christian
community that has developed through the work.

The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions has a large field station in South India. The Marathi Mission has a considerable part of the Burmese population with centre at Bhamo, Mandalay, Sater and Sholapur. It was commenced in 1841 the first American Mission in India. Its activities are large and varied. In 1907 for 1907 consisted of 52 stations, 1,000 stations, and 700 Indian workers of native in 10 stations and 90 out-stations. There are 10 churches number 60 with 1,000 communicants and 1,800 unapplied adherents. The religious work for lepers at Sholapur. The educational work includes 10 secondary and training schools with 1,151 pupils, and 68 primary schools with 4,147 pupils, three-fifths of whom are non-Christians. Zenana work and industrial work are vigorously carried on, the latter embracing carpentry and lace work. A school for the blind is conducted in Bombay on both commercial and industrial lines. In the hospitals and dispensaries of the Mission last year, 57,797 patients were treated. This Mission was the first to translate the Christian scriptures into the Marathi tongue. At Sholapur a settlement of Criminal Tribes is carried on by the Mission under the supervision of Government. Secretary Rev. W. Q. Swart, Ahmednagar.

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THE AMERICAN COLLEGE, MADRAS.—The American College, established at Pondicherry, was affiliated with the University of Madras as a second grade College in 1881. In 1904 the College Department was returned to Madras here for six years. It was incorporated in what is now the Union Christian High School building. In 1904 the College was removed to its present site in T. Nagar on the north side of the Vanni river. It was affiliated as a first grade College in 1904.

In 1904 at the time of the centenary of the Mission, the American College became broadly independent under its own governing Council. In the same year it was granted affiliation as an Honours College.

The present College site comprises about forty acres. On the College grounds are located the Main College Hall, the Ellen S. James Hall of Science, Binghamton Hall, the Chapel, Daniel Poor Memorial Library, Main Hostel, Zimbro Memorial Hostel, Dining Halls, Principal's residence, Warden's Lodge, four additional bungalows, and athletic fields.

THE SCANDINAVIAN ALLIANCE MISSION OF NORTH AMERICA—The mission staff in Khandesh is represented by sixteen missionaries, and 39 Indian workers. There are 202 church members in good standing with 741 in Sunday Schools. 14 Elementary Schools provide for 368 pupils.

Secretary—Miss Olga E. Norcen, Amalner, East Khandesh.

THE SWEDISH ALLIANCE MISSION—Working among B.Us, Hindus and Muhammedans in West Khandesh, has 22 missionaries and 49 Indian workers. There are 8 congregations with a total membership of 1,021 of whom 466 are communicants. There are 12 Elementary Schools, 2 Training Schools and 5 School Homes. The pupils in all schools are 507.

Secretary—The Rev. S. Ohlsson, Mandalwar, Via Taloda, W. Khandesh.

FINE CHURCH OF FINLAND MISSION—Total Mission staff is represented by 6 missionaries, 1 native pastor, 2 Catechists, 3 teachers. There are about 118 communicants and total membership 200. Three day schools, 1 evening school, 3 dispensaries and weaving industry.

Secretary—Rev. E. A. Olila, Ghum, D. H. Railway.

THE LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY—Commenced work in India in 1798 and occupies 9 centres in N. India, 12 in S. India and 7 in Travancore. The Mission engages in every form of Missionary activity.

The European staff numbers 87, Indian workers 2,450, Organised Churches 520, Communicants 25,311 and Christian Community 177,795. There are 1 Christian College, students 159, 2 Theological Institutions, students 70, 4 Training Institutions, pupils 114, 12 high schools, pupils 4,849, 25 Boarding schools, scholars, 1,167 and 862 Elementary schools with 46,371 scholars. In medical work Hospitals number 6, Nurses 7 Europeans and 33 Assistants, 14 qualified doctors, 9 Europeans and 62 Assistants and 10,413 in-patients and 206,276 out-patients for the year.

The main centres of the Mission in N. India are at Calcutta and Murshidabad District, Bengal. L. M. S. work in the United Provinces has been closed but a Union Mission of the W. M. S., C. M. S. and L. M. S. has been opened in Benares City with the Rev. J. O. Jackson of the L. M. S. as Superintendent. This Mission concentrates especially on work amongst pilgrims and students. Special efforts are made amongst the Nama Sudras. The S. India district and Travancore are divided into the Kanarese, Telugu, Tamil and Malayalam fields with 19 stations and 959 outstations. At Nagercoil (Travancore) is the Scott Christian College and High School with 985 students, a Church and congregation said to be the largest in India and a Printing Press, the centre of the S. Travancore Tract Society.

Bengal Secretary—Rev. H. A. Wilson, B. A., 16, Ashutosh Mukerji Road, Calcutta.

South India—Secretary and Treasurer—Rev. George Parker, M. A., B. D., 18, Lavelle Road, Bangalore.

Benares Superintendent—Rev. J. O. Jackson, Ramkatora, Benares Cantonment U. P.

ALL-INDIA MISSIONS.

THE CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE.—Dates from the year 1893 under the name of the International Missionary Alliance, but in number of its missionaries were at work Berar Province much earlier. Work is carried on in the Provinces of Berar, Khandesh and Gujarat. There is a staff of 50 missionaries and 80 Indian workers. The number of mission stations is 16 with additional outstations. There is a Christian community of 2,088 adults, there are 4 Boarding Schools, 2 for boys and 2 for girls, 1 Training School for Indian workers and 1 English congregation at Bhusawal.

Executive Secretary—Rev. K. D. Garrison, Akola, Berar, C. P.

THE CHURCH OF THE BRETHREN (AMERICAN)—Opened work in 1896, and operates in Broach, Surat and Thana Districts, also in Baroda and Rajpura States. Its staff number 40 foreign workers including missionaries' wives, and 200 Indian workers. The Baptized (immersed) membership stands at 5,213. Education is carried on in 7 Girls' Boarding Schools, 7 Boarding Schools for Boys, and 123 Village Day Schools. Females under instruction number 796, males 2,962, total under instruction 3,758. There are 125 Sunday

Schools having 200 teachers and a total enrolment of 4,947. There were 44,450 calls at mission dispensaries in 1932. The foreign medical staff consists of 2 doctors, 3 nurses. Industrial work is carried on in eight of the Boarding Schools. A vocational school, including teachers' training, village trades and agriculture for boys and a school of practical arts for girls are conducted at Anklesvar. Evangelistic, Temperance and Publication work receive due emphasis.

Secretary—L. A. Bhokenstaff, Bulsar, Surat District.

THE POONA AND INDIAN VILLAGE MISSION—Founded in 1893. Mission Stations—Khed, Shivapur, Poona District, Nasrapur (Bhor State), Poona District, Lonand, M. S. M. Ry, Satara District, Phaltan, Satara District, and Pandharpur and Nateputa, Akhuz Sholapur District. The Staff consists of 46 European and 47 Indian workers, with a community of about 67 Indian Christians and their families. The main work is evangelising in the villages, women's zenana work, and primary education. Medical work is conducted at each station, with a hospital at Pandharpur. Headquarters 44, Sassoon Road, Poona.

Secretary—J W Stothard.

THE AMERICAN CHURCHES OF GOD MISSION—Has four missionaries at Bogra, one at Kinnajapur, Bogra District, Bengal, and two at Ulubaria, Howrah District

Executive Secretary—Rev H. W. Cover, M. A., Bogra, B. B. R.

Recording Secretary—Rev. A. E. Myers, B.A., Ulubaria, Howrah Dist.

THE INDIA CHRISTIAN MISSION.—Founded in 1897, has 41 Organised Churches, 17 Missionaries, 53 stations and out-stations, 1,759 Communicants, 51 Primary schools and one Industrial School and Bible School in the Ellore District, also Station at Doddaballapur near Bangalore, S India, also Colony for young people of mixed parentage, Champawat, Almora, U. P. stations also in Nuwara Elyia, Malpotha Uva Province and Polghahwella, Ceylon, Girls' Orphanage at Nuwara Elyia, Industrial Homes for children of mixed parentage, Nuwara Elyia. Total Christian community 1,092. *Magazines*—English *Missionary Notes* and Telugu *I C M Messenger*

Directors—Rev Arnold Paynter, Champawat, Almora, U. P. and Mrs A. L. Paynter, Nuwara Elyia, Ceylon

THE CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE MISSION—Has its headquarters for India at Buldana, Berar, where it has a Boys' Boarding School. In Chikhal, 14 miles from Buldana there is a Girls' Boarding School. At present there are six missionaries in India and a force of 31 Indian Preachers, teachers and Bible women

President of the Council—Rev P. L. Beal, Buldana, Berar.

THE HEPHIZIBALE FAITH MISSIONARY ASSOCIATION—Has five missionaries in India. They are Rev S. V. Christensen, Rev and Mrs W. J. Brown, and Rev R. A. Dodd at Adra, B. N. Railway, and Miss E. K. Landis at Raghunathpur, Manbhum District

THE TIBETAN MISSION—Has 3 Missionaries with headquarters at Darjeeling, and Tibet as its objective. **Secretary**—Miss J. Ferguson, Darjeeling

THE INDIAN MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF TINNEVELLY (DORNAKAL MISSION)—Opened in 1903 operates in the Warangal District of the Nizam's Dominions as well as among the hill tribes called Palahs in the British and Travancore Hills. It is the missionary effort of the Tamil Christians of Tinnevely. There are now nearly 8,020 Telugu Christians in 135 villages and 416 Palayar Christians in the hills. The Society publishes monthly *The Missionary Intelligence* containing information about the Society's work in both the fields. **Secretary**—Rev D. S. David, Palamecottah

THE MISSION TO LEPERS—Founded in 1874, is an interdenominational and international Society for the establishment and maintenance of Homes and Institutions for Lepers and of their untainted children working in 20 countries but largely in India, China, Korea and Japan. Its work in India is carried on through co-operation with 30 Missionary Societies. In India alone the Mission now has 36 Asylums of its own with

upwards of 6,500 inmates and is aiding or has some connection with work for lepers at 22 other places in India. Altogether in India over 8,000 lepers are being helped.

The Mission also provides for the segregation of the healthy children of lepers from their diseased parents. More than 800 children are thus being saved from becoming lepers.

An important feature of the work of the Mission is the measure of successful medical treatment whereby early cures both adults and children are now benefiting.

Most of the Mission's income is received from voluntary contributions. Some funds are raised in India, but the bulk of the money expended by the Mission in India is received from Britain, although the provincial Government give regular maintenance grants.

There is an Indian Auxiliary of the Mission to Lepers, of which H. J. Lady Bradbourne, who represents the Bombay Presidency, is a Vice-President.

Hon Treasurer—P. B. Morris, Esq., P. O. Box 161, 6, Church Lane

Hon Treasurer, Bombay—R. C. Lowndes, Esq., C/o Messrs Killick, Nixon & Co., Bombay

The General Secretary of the Mission is Mr W. H. P. Anderson 7, Bloomsbury Square London, W. C. The Secretary for India is Mr. A. Donald Miller, Patna, Bihar.

THE REGIONS BEYOND MISSIONARY UNION—An inter-denominational Society commenced work at Mithilari, Bihar, in 1900, and now occupies 6 stations and 9 out-stations in the Champaran and Saran Districts, with a staff of 17 European and 2 Indian Missionaries and 40 other Indian workers. The Mission maintains 1 Hospital, 1 Girls' Orphanage, 1 Boys' Orphanage and Boarding School with Carpentry industrial department, 1 M. E. School with 200 pupils. Communicants number 80. **Secretary**

(Vacant) **Lankaria Hospital, Bagri P. O., Champaran District**

THE RANAU MEDICAL MISSION, affiliated with the Regions Beyond Missionary Union has 1 Hospital at Ranau, Champaran District, with 1 married European Doctor, 2 European Nursing Sister, and 7 Indian workers

Secretary—Dr H. C. Duncan

THE NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF INDIA—Established 1903, started, financed and managed by Indian Christians, has a staff of 27 Missionaries and 100 helpers and Voluntary workers operates in Montgomery District (the Punjab), Sirathu and Khagan, (U. P.), Haluaghat, Myimensingh District (Bengal), Jharsugudah (B. & O.), Murwahi (C. P.), North Kanara, Mirajgaon and Kurnool, Talukas (Bombay), Parkal Taluk (Nizam's Dominions) and Tirupattur Taluk (N. Arcot). Thirty-four Elementary Schools and 1 High School with hostel, one printing press, three Dispensaries and two Hospitals. Annual expenditure Rs 70,000. *The National Missionary Intelligence* (a monthly journal in English sold at Re 1 per year post free), *Qasid* (a monthly journal in Persian-Urdu) at Rs 2-8-0, *Deepika* (a monthly journal in Tamil and Kanarese) at 8 annas per year, post free

Address—N M S Buidmg, Royapettah, Madras

President—The Rt Rev Abraham Mar Thoma, M A, D D

General Secretary.—Rai Bahadur A C Marherji, B A **Associate Secretary** Thos David, B A B D

THE SEVENTH-DAY ADVENTIST MISSION—The Seventh-day Adventists commenced mission work in India in 1893, and now employ a staff of five hundred and seventy-seven workers European and Indian, including one hundred and seventy ordained and licensed ministers Evangelistic and educational work is conducted in sixteen vernaculars, beside work for English-speaking peoples in the large cities For administrative purposes, there are five branch organizations located as follows—

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—Western India (J S James, Superintendent) **Office Address** 6, Dhondy Road, Devlali Nasik District

Seventh-Day Adventist Mission—Burma (J L Christian, Superintendent) **Office Address** 30, Voyle Road, Rangoon Cantonment, Burma

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—Northeast India (G G Lowry, Superintendent) **Office Address** 17, Abbott Road, Lucknow.

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—Northwest India (G C Lowry, Superintendent) **Office Address** 17, Abbott Road, Lucknow

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—South India (L M Meleen, Superintendent) **Office Address** 19 Cunningham Road, Bangalore

The general headquarters for India and Burma is located at Salisbury Park, Poona A W Cormack, President. C L Torrey, Secretary and Treasurer (**Office Address** Post Box 15, Poona) On the same estate is an up-to-date publishing house devoted entirely to the printing or health, temperance, evangelical and associated literature (**Address** Oriental Watchman Publishing House, Post Box 35, Poona)

A large number of day and boarding vernacular and Anglo-vernacular schools are conducted in different parts of the country; and at Vincent Hill School, Mussoorie European education is provided, a regular high school course, with more advanced work for commercial and other special students, being available In all the denominational boarding schools increasing emphasis is being laid on vocational work, the students being required to share in the domestic work of the institution, and in many cases, to engage in some trades or other work

Eight physicians, one maternity worker, (C M B) and a number of qualified nurses are employed, regular medical work being conducted at thirty-two stations

The baptized membership (adult) is 4,400 organized into 105 churches; and in addition a substantial community of enquirers is receiving systematic instruction 278 Sabbath Schools are conducted with an enrolled membership of about 8870

The Bombay address is "Sorab House," Garden Road, Colaba, Bombay

THE AMERICAN MENNONITE MISSION.—Established 1899, works in the C Provinces, Mission staff numbers 37, Indian workers 55, Church members 1,400, adherents 717, Industrial Training institutions 2, Academy including High School, Normal School and Bible School—Anglo-Vernacular Schools 2, Elementary Schools 11, Orphanages 2, Widows' Home 1, Hospital 1, Dispensaries 7, Leper Home 1, Home for untainted children of lepers 2, Leper Clinic 5.

Secretary: A C Brunk, Dhamtar, C. P.

THE GENERAL CONFERENCE—MENNONITE MISSION—Started in 1901 in the C Provinces Workers number 23; Leper, Medical Orphan, Zenana, Evangelistic and Educational work carried on **Secretary**: Rev. P. W. Penner, Janpur, C P.

THE KURKU AND CENTRAL INDIA HILL MISSION—Established 1890 in the C P and Berar, has a mission staff of 15, Indian workers 20, Churches 8, Communicants 327, Christian Community 560, 2 Boarding Schools with 62 boarders and 2 elementary schools.

Secretary.—Rev Carl Wyder, Ellichpur, Berar, C P.

THE CEYLON AND INDIA GENERAL MISSION—Established 1892, occupies stations in Mysore State, in the Coimbatore and Anantapur Districts and also stations in Horana, Ceylon Mission staff 36, Indian workers 130, Churches 13, Communicants 900, Christian community 3,100, Orphanages 4; Elementary Schools 35, Pupils 1,300.

Secretary—N F Silsbee, 7, Pottery Road, Bangalore

THE BOYS' CHRISTIAN HOME MISSION—It owes its existence to a period of famine, was commenced in 1899 Mission staff about 10, Indian workers about 125 There are elementary schools with three orphanages, one for boys and two for girls, industrial training being given in all three

There are three main stations—At Dhond in the Poona District and at Orai and Benares in United Provinces. At Benares there is an Industrial Training Institution for learning Motor, Electrical and Carpentry trades It is for Indian young men but a few English, or European, young men have received training also There are some out-stations Director Rev John E Norton, Dhond, Poona District. Rev W K. Norton, who opened the North India work and who was Secretary of the Mission, died while on a visit to America His work goes on under his widow, Mrs W. K. Norton

Ladies' Societies.

ZENANA BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION.—This is an inter-denominational society, with headquarters, 33, Surrey Street, London, working among women and girls in 5 stations in the Bombay Presidency, 7 in United Provinces, and 4 in the Punjab. There are 75 European Missionary ladies on the staff and 32 Assistant Missionaries, 235 Indian teachers and nurses and 52 Bible women During 1933 there were 5,119 in-patients in the three hospitals supported

by the Society (Nasik, Lucknow and Patna). There were 23,515 out-patients, 88,000 attendances at the Dispensaries. In their 30 schools were 3,129 pupils and there is a University Department at Lahore. The evangelistic side of the work is largely done by house to house visitations and teaching the women in Zonanas, 1,256 women were regularly taught. Total expenditure in India £41,535.

Hon Treasurer The Lord Meslon of Dnnottar.

President—The Lady Kinnaird.

Secretaries—Rev E S Carr, M A. (Hon) Rev L B Butler, Miss I' Murlner and Miss Liesching.

WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN MEDICAL COLLEGE, WITH WHICH IS INCORPORATED THE PUNJAB MEDICAL SCHOOL FOR WOMEN.—In 1891 the North India School of Medicine for Christian Women was opened in Ludhiana in order to give a Medical Education under Christian influences to Indian Women. Doctor Edith Brown, D B M, M A, M D, was its Founder and Principal. The School was Inter-denominational, and trained students for various Missionary Societies.

Clinical work was at first given at the Charlotte Hospital which belonged to the Ludhiana Zonana and Medical Mission. The Memorial Hospital was opened in 1900, and has now 220 beds. In 1913 non-Christian students were also admitted for training, and the name was modified to its present title given above.

In 40 years 276 medical students qualified as doctors, besides 128 as compounders, 187 as nurses and 540 as dais and midwives.

At present 275 are in training—137 medical students, 26 compounders, 51 as nurses and 61 as nurse dais.

New laboratories have been built for Clinical Pathology, for Physiology, and for Chemistry and Physics. New quarters for Sisters, Nurses, Assistant staff and also a new Babies' Ward. The new Dispensary for out-patients has now become very popular.

THE MISSIONARY SETTLEMENT FOR UNIVERSITY WOMEN was founded in Bombay in 1890. Its work is religious, social and educational. The Settlement supplies a hostel for University students of all nationalities and a few Indian professional women. Classes for educated girls are provided and teaching is also given in pupils' homes. The Settlement staff take part in many of the organised activities for women's work in the city. The Social Training Centre is located at the Settlement. The course, lasting a year, includes both theoretical and practical work.

Warden—Miss R Navalkar, B A, Reynold's Road, Byculla, Bombay.

THE RAMABAI MUKTI MISSION (affiliated with the Christian and Missionary Alliance Mission in 1925) the well-known work of the late Pandita Ramabai, shelters about 600 deserted wives, widows and orphans, educating and fitting them to earn their living. The Mission is worked on Indian lines and carried on by Indian and European workers. Evangelistic work is carried on in the surrounding villages of Kedgaon, Poona District.

Miss Eunice Wells, *Secretary-Treasurer*.

Disciple Societies.

The India Mission Disciples of Christ, under the United Christian Missionary Society, Indianapolis, Indiana, U S A., began work in India in 1842. It works in the Central Provinces and South United Provinces. There are 60 missionaries, including missionaries' wives, and 260 Indian workers. There are 17 organized churches with the membership of 2,521. There is a Christian community of 5,000. There are 6 hospitals and 9 dispensaries, in which 2,208 in-patients, and 31,259 out-patients were treated last year, with a total of 1,31,414 treatments. There is an orphanage for children under 8 years of age, with the older orphans provided for in the boarding schools and hostels. Three boarding schools for girls and one for boys, with 1 hostel for boys show 611 inmates. There is one Leprosy Asylum with 120 inmates. A Tuberculosis Sanatorium admitted 120 patients during the year. An Industrial School is conducted at Darnoh in connection with which a 100 acre farm is used for practical work. The Mission Press at Jubbulpore printed last year about 3,000,000 pages of Christian Literature. 1 Normal, 2 Industrial Schools, 2 High Schools, 5 Middle Schools and 15 Primary Schools, with about 2,330 under instruction.

The Australian Branch has 3 Mission Stations in the Poona District. The Great Britain and Ireland Branch in Mirzapur District of U P and Pilaman District in Orissa. These two have no organized connection with the India Mission Disciples of Christ.

Secretary and Treasurer, D A McGarran, P O, Jubbulpore, C P.

Inter-denominational Missions.

"THE CENTRAL ASIAN MISSION Founded 1895. Head Office 35 Victoria Street, London, S W 1, near the N W 1 frontier at Mardun, advance stations at Mankand Pass, Chakdara, Birmahia, Bandapur, Gurez, Kargil, Shura and Knapin. Protestant, Evangelical, undenominational. Ten European Missionaries. Acting Chairman of Committee, Colonel G. Wingate, C I E."

THE FRIENDS' SERVICE COUNCIL—The Friends' Service Council works in seven stations of the Hoshungabad District and in Nagpur where there is a Hostel for College and High School boys.

The Church, which is composed of 6 Monthly Meetings united in the All India Yearly Meeting, is largely organised on the lines of the Society of Friends in England.

There are 10 missionaries, 12 on the field and 7 on furlough also 3 retired missionaries living in the district.

The principal activities are a hospital with dispensary and a Primary School and an Anglo-Vernacular Middle school at Itarsi. A Boarding school for Girls with Primary and Anglo-Vernacular Middle Departments at Sohagpur. A Home for women in Sohagpur where toys are made for sale. A Boys' Hostel at Hoshungabad for boys attending Primary, Middle and High

schools there Two villages in the Seoni Tahsil of the Hoshangabad district in one of which, Mahorlya, there is a dispensary and a Primary School

In 1935 an Ashram is to be opened near Itarsi by Miss Hilda Cashmore late Warden of the University Settlement, Ancotes, Manchester The work there will be of an educational and social nature

There is also a Weavers Colony at Khara Itarsi where hand loom cloth is made

There are 169 members and 1 332 adherents Mission Secretary T R Addison, Itarsi, C P Church Secretary Dhan Singh, Friends' Mission, Sohagpur, C P

THE AMERICAN FRIENDS' MISSION—With Missionaries is working in Bundelkhand, with Hospital for Women and Children at Chhatarpur, with Dispensary and Boys' school at Harpalpur, Orphanage, evangelistic and industrial work at Nowgong

Secretary: Miss E L Baird, Nowgong, C I

THE OLD CHURCH HEBREW MISSION was established in 1858, in Calcutta, and is said to be the only Hebrew Christian Agency in India Hon Secretary E C Jackson, Esq, 11, Mission Row, Calcutta

THE OPEN BRETHREN—Occupy 46 stations in the U Provinces, Bengal, S Mahratta, Godavari, Delta, Kanarese, Tinnevely, Malabar Coast, Coimbatore and Nilgiri Districts They hold an annual Conference at Bangalore

Lutheran Societies

THE INDIA MISSION OF THE UNITED LUTHERAN CHURCH IN AMERICA—Commonly known as the United Lutheran Church Mission Now working in close co-ordination with the Andhra Evangelical Lutheran Church, which is organized in 1927 The mission and Church together carry on work in East Godavari, West Godavari, Guntur, Nellore and Kurnool Districts Foreign staff on the field in 1934, 76 Indian staff of all grades, 2,784, Baptized membership, 169,953, schools, 1,064, pupils, 40,655 There are a First Grade College, three High Schools for boys, one High School for girls, one Normal Training School for Masters and one for Mistresses, a Theological Seminary, an Agricultural School, six Hospitals, a School for the Blind, a Tuberculosis Sanatorium, and a Printing Press

President of the U L C. Mission: Rev L A Gotwald, Churala, Guntur District

President of Andhra Evangelical Lutheran Church Rev J K Fink, Rentichintala, Guntur District

THE EVANGELICAL NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF STOCKHOLM, SWEDEN—A Church of Sweden Society, founded in 1856 occupies the Districts of Saugor, Betul, and Chhindwara in the Central Provinces

There are about 2,450 Church members constituted into an indigenous Church called the Evangelical Lutheran Church of the Central Provinces The European and Indian Staff numbers 31 and 176 respectively One Theological Seminary for training of Pastors and Catechists, and one Training School for training Women Workers 25 Primary and Anglo-

Vernacular Middle Schools with 1,173 Children 12 Sunday School with 675 Christians and 1,145 non-Christian Children, 9 Dispensaries with 36,035 patients during 1929 3 Workshops, one of them with an aided Carpentry School One Female Industrial School One Widows' Home with 68 Women 9 Orphanages with 158 boys and 236 girls One Boarding School for Christian Girls on the Middle School Standard Three Farms where the S C Modern Village Uplift is attempted.

Secretary—Rev G. A Bjork, B D, Chhindwara, C P

THE BASEL EVANGELIC MISSION with its headquarters in Mangalore, South Kanara, was founded in 1834 and is at present carrying on the work in the whole field occupied before the war with the exception of North Kanara and the Nilgiris It has at the beginning of 1934, 28 chief stations and 84 out stations with a total missionary staff of 45 European and about 900 Indian workers The membership of the churches is 24,468 Educational work embraces 109 schools, among which a Theological Seminary, a second grade college and 7 high school The total number of scholars is 18172 Medical work is done at Betger-Grady, Southern Maharatta, where a hospital for men and women and at Udipi, South Kanara, where a hospital for women and children is maintained The Mission maintains a Home Industrial Department for women's work and a large Publishing Department with a Book Shop and a Printing Press with about 150 workers at Mangalore, S Kanara, and is doing work in English and in a number of Indian languages

President and Secretary—Rev Dr J C Meyer, residing at Mangalore, South Kanara

THE CHURCH OF SWEDEN MISSION was founded, in 1874 It operates in the Trichinopoly, Coimbatore, Madura and Ramnad Districts with diaspora congregations in Ceylon In conjunction with the Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission (L E L M) it co-operates, with the Tamil Evangelical Lutheran Church which was constituted an autonomous Church on 14th January 1919 The C S M maintains an eye-hospital at Tirupatur, high schools for boys at Madura and Pudukotah, conducts in conjunction with the L E L M a high school for girls, at Tanjore

The European staff is 37, Schools 125; Teaching staff 246, Pupils, boys 4,491 and girls 1,635

President—The Rev H Fry Kholm, D Lc, Palladam, Coimbatore District

LEIPZIG EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN MISSION—European staff 14, Schools 10; Teaching staff 88; Pupils, boys 1,205 and girls 800

President—Rev R Frølich, D D, Kilpauk, Madras

INSTITUTIONS COMMON TO BOTH MISSIONS—School 1; Teaching staff 18; Pupils, boys 15 and girls 316

TAMIL EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN CHURCH—Organised Churches 47, Ordained Indian Ministers 39, other Indian workers 92, Baptized membership 30,613; Schools 230, Teaching staff 23, Pupils, 8,645 boys and 2,037 girls

President—Rt. Rev. J. Sandegren, M. A., D.D., L.X.O., Bishop of Tranquebar, Trichinopoly.

MISSOURI EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN INDIA MISSION, (MEIM)—Is located in North Arcot (Ambur, Vaniyambadi), Salem (Krishnagiri), Tanjore (Tanjore, Nagapatam), Madura (Madura, Aralsuranatti, Pathupatti, Vellakulam, Pekulam), Tinnevely (Valluor Vadakangulam) Districts, in Mysore (Kolar Gold Fields), in Travancore (Nagercoil, Trivandrum, Alleppey).

There are 43 missionaries (6 of these on furlough in America), 1 nurse, 2 zenana workers (1 of these on furlough), 2 lady educationists (1 of these on furlough), 1 American teacher in charge of a school-home for the children of missionaries, 1 male doctor (Indian), two training institutes for teacher-catechists, 1 Seminary for training pastors, 3 high schools, 1 hospital with 20 beds.

Statistics, November 1934 Souls, 16,081, baptized, 10,407, catechumens, 2,021, adherents, 3,634, 4 native pastors, 19 evangelists, 82 catechists, 166 teachers belonging to the Mission 28 other teachers; 10 boarding schools.

General Secretary The Rev. George C. Schroeder, Virudhunagar, Ramnad District, South India.

THE DANISH MISSIONARY SOCIETY, established 1863 in South Arcot, working there and in North Arcot, on the Shervaroi Hills, and in Madras, has a total staff of 341 Indian and 37 European workers, communicants 2,718, Christian community 6,737, one High School, one Secondary School, one Bible School for Women, three Boarding Schools, three Industrial schools, one Orphanage, one hostel, 97 Elementary schools, and two Hospitals, total scholars 5,838.

President—Rev. C. Bindeslev, Nellikuppam.

Treasurer—Rev. K. Heiberg, Madras.

THE SANTAL MISSION OF THE NORTHERN CHURCHES (formerly known as the Indian Home Mission to the Santals)—Founded in 1867, works in the Santal Parganas, Birbhum, Murshidabad, Malda, Rajshahi, Dinajpur and Goalpara. Work is principally among the Santals. Mission staff numbers 46 of whom 3 medical missionaries, Indian pastors 31, other Indian workers 500. Christian community in organized congregations 18,500, 6 boarding schools with 900 pupils, 130 elementary schools with 2,300 pupils, 1 industrial school with 60 pupils, 1 printing press, 1 orphanage with 30 orphans, 2 hospitals, 4 dispensaries, 1 leper colony with 300 lepers, 1 tea garden. **Acting Secretary** Rev. J. Gausdal, Dumka, Santal Parganas.

MISSIONS AND EMERY TRADING ACT.—In May 1918, the following notice regarding Missions was published in the "Gazette of India".—"The following missions or religious associations are declared companies under Act 2 (the Enemy Trading Act) of 1916.—The Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Hermansberg Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Schleswig-Holstein Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Gosner Evangelical Lutheran

Mission of the United Provinces and Behar and Orissa, the German Evangelical Lutheran Mission of Banahli, Behar and Orissa. The Governor-General in Council notifies that the powers conferred under Section 7 of the said Act shall extend to the property, movable and immovable, of these missions or religious associations."

In June, 1919, the Government of India stated—"Effect is already being given to the suggestion that enemy missions in India should be taken over by British societies. The properties and undertakings of hostile missions have been vested in the Provisional Custodian of Enemy Property with a view to their transfer to boards of trustees composed partly of non-official members nominated by the National Missionary Council of India with the approval of the Government of India and partly of Government officials, and those Boards of Trustees will in due course transfer the undertakings and properties to a missionary society to be selected by them with the approval of the Governor-General in Council."

Methodist Church.

THE METHODIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY commenced work in India, in 1817. The Mission in India apart from Ceylon is organised into 7 Districts with their separate District Synods working under 2 Provincial Synods. In connection with these Synods there is a large English work with 22 ministers giving their whole time to Military and English work.

The Districts occupied include 149 Circuits in Bengal, Madras, Mysore, Bombay, Punjab, North West Frontier Provinces, Baluchistan, Central Provinces, United Provinces and Nizam's Dominions. The European staff numbers 130 with 74 Indian ministers and 903 Catechists. There are 349 Churches with a Christian community of 151,296 and 26,133 Communicants. There are a number of Circuits with their Churches thoroughly organised and self-supporting. Educational work comprises 3 Christian Colleges with 89 teachers and 1,763 students, 5 Theological Institutes with 42 teachers and 373 students, 9 High Schools with 206 teachers and 4,539 students, 6 Industrial Institutes with 29 teachers and 263 students, 7 Boarding Schools with 103 teachers and 1,856 scholars, 1,141 Elementary Schools with 1,982 teachers and 38,282 scholars.

Medical work is represented by 12 Medical Institutions with 6 European and 10 Indian doctors, 3,090 in-patients and 139,567 Out-patients.

The Women's Department of the Society also carry on an extensive work in the places occupied by the Methodist Missionary Society. There are 104 Women Workers, including 16 doctors and 181 Bible Women; 115 Girl Day Schools with 473 teachers and 12,095 scholars, while there are 45 Boarding Schools and Training Institutions with 190 teachers and 2,505 boarders. The Women's Department is responsible for a very extensive Medical Work and have 15 Hospitals and 16 Dispensaries with 12,695 in-patients and 393,702 Out-patients.

The Methodist Episcopal Church is the organization in the United States of America which grew out of the Wesleyan revival in England and her American colonies during the latter part of the eighteenth century. This Church began its work in India in 1856, at first confining its activities to what is now the United Provinces. From that centre it spreads until the outposts of its work were found in Baluchistan, Burma, Malaya, Netherlands, Indies and the Philippine Islands. In 1920 a rearrangement of the mission field of the Church separated India, Burma and Baluchistan into what is now known as the Southern Asia division. Within this present field the Church now has a total baptized Christian community of 525,668.

The avowed task of the Church has been the uplift of the depressed classes, and its work has been largely among that class. As a matter of fact, however, it has large numbers who came from the Mohammedans and the caste Hindus, and among such its influence is extending.

The educational work of the Church is extensive, it having in this area a total of 1,100 schools of all grades, including three colleges, twenty-two high schools, and numerous normal training and theological institutions. The registered attendants in these schools number 40,000.

Special effort is made for the instruction and development of the young people of the Church, there now being 336 chapters of the Epworth League with 13,394 enrolled members, and 4,021 organized Sunday Schools with an enrolment 139,422.

The publishing interests of the Church are represented by the Lucknow Publishing House at Lucknow doing work in English, Urdu, Hindi and other vernaculars. The periodicals issued cover the interests of both the evangelistic and the educational field, the Indian Witness, the Junior Methodist and Christian Education being in English, while the *Kaukab-i-Hind*, and other periodicals are issued in several of the vernaculars.

The governing body of the Church is the General Conference held quadrennially in America in which the eleven conferences now existing in India are represented by twenty-four delegates. The policy of the Church in India looks forward to complete independence under the general governing body, there at present being but about two hundred American men and women as compared to 600 ordained and 4,000 unordained Indian and Burmese workers. At present the area is divided into seventy-two districts each in charge of a superintendent and among whom are many Indians. The work is supervised by three Bishops, elected by the General Conference, and residents as follows: Bishop John W. Robinson, Delhi; Bishop Brenton T. Badley, Bombay and Bishop Jashwant Rao Chitambar, Jubbulpore.

THE AMERICAN WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSION, Sanjan, Thana District Headquarters. Stations with Missionaries, Dandi Maroh, *via* Nargole, District Thana Pardi, District Surat. Eight Missionaries on field. Two on furlough. Four main stations. Two Boarding schools. One industrial school. One Bible School. One village farm project. Eight village schools. Chairman of Field Committee, Rev. P. D. Doty, Sanjan, District Thana.

THE METHODIST PROTESTANT MISSION began work in India in 1919, has a staff of six missionaries. The work is confined to Dhulla Taluka, with one Main station, Dhulla. There are two boarding schools, district evangelistic work and medical work. *Secretary*, Miss Paul Cassen, Dhulla, West Khandesh.

THE FREE METHODIST MISSION of North America—Established at Yeotmal, 1893, operates in Berar with a staff of 11 Missionaries and 40 Indian workers. Organised churches 5, 1 Theological school, 1 Girls' Boarding School, 1 Vernacular Middle school, 8 Elementary Schools, 1 Dispensary and 5 centres for Clinical and village health work.

Secretary, Persis M. Phelps, Yeotmal, Berar.

THE SALVATION ARMY

The work of the Salvation Army in India and Ceylon was commenced in 1882 by the late Commissioner Booth-Tucker, and was for many years under his control, with Headquarters in India. For some time now, the areas occupied have been divided for administrative purposes into 6 Territories, each under a Territorial Commander, and one smaller Command.

Northern Territory, with Headquarters at Lahore.

Western Territory, with Headquarters at Bombay.

Madras and Telugu Territory, with Headquarters at Madras.

Southern Territory, with Headquarters at Trivandrum, in Travancore State.

Ceylon Territory, with Headquarters at Colombo.

Eastern Territory, with Headquarters at Calcutta.

Burmah Command, with Headquarters at Rangoon.

The Commanders are directly responsible to the International Headquarters in London.

Northern Territory—The area in this Territory is the Salvation Army work in the Punjab, Delhi and United Provinces. The Territory is controlled from Lahore.

Evangelistic work, especially among the "depressed classes," is extensively carried on, both in the Punjab and the U. P.

A number of Settlements for the reformation of "Criminal Tribes" are under the control of the Salvation Army in the United Provinces (where this important reformatory work was commenced), and also in the Punjab, great progress has been made. A special Settlement has also been opened in the Andamans during the last few years.

Laws and the Administration of Justice.

The indigenous law of India is personal and divisible with reference to the two great classes of the population, Hindu and Mahomedan. Both systems claim divine origin and are inextricably interwoven with religion, and each exists in combination with a law based on custom. At first the tendency of the English was to make their law public and territorial, and on the establishment of the Supreme Court at Calcutta in 1773 and the advent of English lawyers as judges, they proceeded to apply it to Europeans and Indians alike. This error was rectified by the Declaratory Act of 1780, by which Parliament declared that as against the Hindu the Hindu law and usage, and as against a Mahomedan the laws and customs of Islam should be applied. The rules of the Shastras and the Koran have been in some cases altered and relaxed. Instances can be found in the Bengal Sati Regulation Act of 1829, the Indian Slavery Act, 1843, the "Caste Disabilities Removal Act of 1850", the Hindu Widows' Remarriage Act, 1856, and other Acts and Codes. To quote the Imperial Gazetteer, "A certain number of the older English statutes and the English common laws to a limited extent still in force in the Presidency Towns as applicable to Europeans while much of the old Hindu and Mahomedan law is everywhere personal to their native fellow subjects, but apart from these, and from the customary law, which is as far as possible recognised by the Courts, the law of British India is the creation of statutory enactments made for it either at Westminster or by the authorities in India to whom the necessary law-making functions have from time to time been delegated."

Codification.

Before the transfer of India to the Crown the law was in a state of great confusion. Sir Henry Cunningham described it as "hopelessly unwieldy, entangled and confusing." The first steps toward general codification were taken in 1833, when a Commission was appointed, of which Lord Macaulay was the moving spirit, to prepare a penal code. Twenty-two years elapsed before it became law, during which period it underwent revision from his successors in the Law Membership, and especially by Sir Barnes Peacock, the last Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. The Penal Code, which became law in 1860 was followed in 1861 by a Code of Criminal Procedure. Substantially the whole criminal law of British India is contained in these two Codes. One of the most eminent lawyers who ever came to India, Sir James Stephen, said "The Indian penal code may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities, systematically arranged and modified in some few particulars (they are surprisingly few) to suit the circumstances of British India. It is practically impossible to misunderstand the code." The rules of Civil Procedure have been embodied in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Indian Penal Code has from time to time been amended. The Code of Civil Procedure, was remodelled

in 1908 and the Code of Criminal Procedure in 1898. These Codes as amended from time to time are now in force.

Statute Law Revision.

In October, 1921, a committee was appointed under the presidency of the Hon. Mr. A. P. Muddiman, I.C.S., to deal with the question of statute law revision. The functions of the Committee are to prepare for the consideration of Government such measures of consolidation and clarification, as may be necessary to secure the highest attainable standard of formal perfection in the statute law of India. In several branches of the law consolidation has long been overdue, and it is suggested that the preparation of a Bill consolidating the existing law relating to merchant shipping, with such amendments therein as are necessitated or rendered desirable by the enactment of the English statutes since 1894 on the same subject should form the first duty undertaken by the Committee. Under the conditions resulting from the establishment of the reformed Constitution, increasing importance will attach hereafter to the periodical examination and revision of the Statute Book and the Government of India hope that the Committee will take its place as a permanent feature of the legislative machinery of the country.

European British Subjects

Whilst the substantive criminal law is the same for all classes, certain distinctions of procedure have always been maintained in regard to criminal charges against European British subjects. Until 1872 European British subjects could only be tried or punished by one of the High Courts. It was then enacted that European British subjects should be liable to be tried for any offences by magistrates of the highest class, who were also justices of the peace, and by judges of the Sessions Courts; but it was necessary in both cases that the magistrate or judge should himself be a European British subject. In 1883 the Government of India announced that they had decided "to settle the question of jurisdiction over European subjects in such a way as to remove from the code at once and completely every judicial disqualification which is based merely on race distinctions." This decision, embodied in the Ilbert Bill, aroused a storm of indignation which is still remembered. The controversy ended in a compromise which is thus summarised by Sir John Strachey ("India") "The controversy ended with the virtual, though not avowed, abandonment of the measure proposed by the Government Act III of 1884, by which the law previously in force was amended, cannot be said to have diminished the privileges of European British subjects charged with offences, and it left their position as exceptional as before. The general disqualification of native judges and magistrates remains, but if a native of India be appointed to the post of district magistrate or sessions judge, his powers in regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects are the same as those of an Englishman holding the same office. This

provision however is subject to the condition that every European British subject brought for trial before the district magistrate or sessions judge has the right, however trivial the charge, to claim to be tried by a jury of which not less than half the number shall be Europeans or Americans. Whilst this change was made in the powers of district magistrates, the law in regard to other magistrates remained unaltered. Since 1834 no distinction of race has been recognised in the civil courts throughout India.

After a discussion on this subject in the Legislative Assembly in September 1921, the following motion was adopted—“That in order to remove all racial distinctions between Indians and Europeans in the matter of their trial and punishment for offences, a committee be appointed to consider what amendments should be made in the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, which distinguish between Indians and European British subjects, and Americans and Europeans who are not British subjects in criminal trials and proceedings and to report on the best method of giving effect to their proposals.” As a result of the recommendations of the Joint Committee the committee on the subject was further modified and by the Criminal Law Amendment Act No. 1 of 1922 in place of the old Chapter XXIII of the Code (1898) the new Chapter XXIII of the Code (1922) with certain modifications were substituted. This is one measure which has reduced the difference between the trials of Europeans and of Indians under the Code.

High Courts.

The highest legal tribunals in India are the High Courts of Judicature. These were constituted by the Indian High Courts Act of 1861 for Bengal, Bombay and Madras, and later for the United Provinces and the Punjab superseding the old supreme and Sudder Courts. More recently High Courts have been constituted for Patna and Nagpur as well. The Judges are appointed by the Crown, they hold office during the pleasure of the sovereign; at least one-third of their number are barristers, one-third are recruited from the judicial branch of the Indian Civil Service, the remaining places being available for persons who have held certain judicial offices in India or lawyers qualified in India. Trial by jury is the rule in original criminal cases before the High Courts, but juries are never employed in civil suits in India.

For other parts of India High Courts have been formed under other names. The chief difference being that they derive their authority from the Government of India, not from Parliament. In Sind, N. W. P. Province and the Central Provinces and Berar the principal legal tribunal is known as the Court of the Judicial Commissioner. Quite recently the Secretary of State for India has approved the proposal for the establishment of a High Court in the Central Provinces and Berar.

The High Courts are the Courts of appeal from the superior courts in the districts, criminal and civil, and their decisions are final, except in cases in which an appeal lies to His Majesty in Council and is heard by the Judicial

Committee of the Privy Council in England. The High Courts exercise supervision over all the subordinate courts. Returns are regularly sent to them at short intervals and the High Courts are aided, by examining the returns, by sending for proceedings, and by calling for explanation, as well as from the cases that come before them in appeal, to keep themselves to some extent acquainted with the manner in which the courts generally are discharging their duties.

Lower Courts.

The Code of Criminal Procedure provides for the constitution of inferior criminal courts styled courts of session and courts of magistrates. Every province, while the Provincial Councils are in existence, has a sessions division consisting of one or more districts, and every sessions division has a court of session and a sessions judge, with a deputy. If need be, the sessions judge may refer cases to the place of the sessions judge. The courts are competent to try all crimes and offences duly committed, and to inflict any punishment authorised by law, but a sentence of death is not subject to confirmation by the High Court of criminal appeal in the provinces. Magistrates' courts are of two classes, with one or more sessions judges. Provision is made and largely utilised in the towns, for the appointment of honorary magistrates; in the Presidency towns Provisional magistrates deal with residential cases and benches of Provisional magistrates deal with other cases.

Trials before courts of session are either with one or more sessions judges, but do not bind the Judge by their opinions; or by the opinion of the majority provided it is accepted by the presiding Judge. The Indian law allows considerable latitude of appeal, but there is no appeal from the High Court and in the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council has reported that all Indian law is a Court of Criminal Appeal, there is no adequate machinery for appeal or revision as to the merits of criminal cases, and even civil offences and offences by the High Courts in those civil and criminal criminal jurisdictions. The prerogative of mercy is exercised by the Governor-General-in-Council and the Local Government concerned without prejudice to the superior power of the Crown.

The constitution and jurisdiction of the inferior civil courts varies. Broadly speaking one district and sessions judge is appointed for each district. As District Judge he presides in the principal civil court of original jurisdiction his functions as Sessions Judge have been described. For these posts members of the Indian Civil Service are mainly selected though some appointments are made from the Provincial Service. Next come the Subordinate Judges and Magistrates, the extent of whose original jurisdiction varies in different parts of India. The civil courts, below the grade of District Judge, are almost invariably presided over by Indians. There are in addition a number of Courts of Small Causes, with jurisdiction to try money suits up to Rs. 500. In the Presidency Towns, where the Chartered High Courts have original jurisdiction, Small Cause Courts dispose of money suits up to Rs. 2,000. As in

solvency Courts the chartered High Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras have jurisdiction in the Presidency towns. In the mofussil similar powers were conferred on the District Courts by the Insolvency Act of 1906.

Coroners are appointed only for the Presidency Towns of Calcutta and Bombay. Elsewhere their duties are discharged by the ordinary staff of magistrates and police officers aided by jurors.

Legal Practitioners.

Legal practitioners in India are divided into Barristers-at-Law, Advocates of the High Court, Vakils and Attorneys (Solicitors) of High Courts, and Pleaders, Mukhtars and revenue agents. Barristers and Advocates are admitted by each High Court to practise in it and its subordinate courts; and they alone are admitted to practise on the original side of some of the chartered High Courts. Vakils are persons duly qualified who are admitted to practise on the appellate side of the chartered High Courts and in the Courts subordinate to the High Courts. Attorneys are required to qualify before admission to practise in much the same way as in England. The rule that a solicitor must instruct counsel prevails only on the original side of the Bombay and Calcutta High Courts. Pleaders practise in the subordinate courts in accordance with rules framed by the High Courts.

Organisation of the Bar.

At Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay there is a Bar Committee presided over, *ex-officio*, by the Advocate-General. This body is elected by the barristers practising in each High Court, and its functions are to watch the interests of the Bar and to regulate its etiquette. At Allahabad, Lahore, Nagpore, and Rangoon a similar Bar Committee exists, but the electorate is extended to include the vakils or native pleaders, and the president is either the senior practising member of the Bar or the Government Advocate. In the larger Districts and Sessions Courts, an organisation representing the Bar is usually to be found, and in the subordinate Courts, including the Revenue Courts, similar machinery is generally in use. Pending an opportunity of detailed inquiries in India, these general descriptions must suffice. The recommendations of the Indian Bar Committee of 1923 relating to the constitution of Bar Councils for the several High Courts in India have been recently adopted by the Indian Bar Councils Act, XXXVIII of 1928. The aim and purpose of this Act is to abolish, as far as practicable the distinctions between the various classes of legal practitioners and promote the creation of a uniform Bar.

Composition of the Bar.

A considerable change is occurring in the composition of the Indian Bar. The following extract from an informing article in the *Times* (May 25, 1914) indicates the character and incidence of this development. "During the last forty years, a striking change has taken place in the professional class. The bulk of practice has largely passed from British to Indian hands, while, at the same time, the profession has grown to an enormous extent. One typical illustration may be quoted. Attach-

ed to the Bombay High Court in 1871 there were 38 solicitors, of whom 10 were Indian and 28 English, and 24 advocates, of whom 7 were Indian and 17 English. In 1911, attached to the same High Court, there were 160 solicitors, of whom more than 130 were Indian and the remainder English, and 250 advocates, of whom 16 only were English and the remainder Indian." Needless to say that this position has been still further accentuated during the 20 years that have elapsed since 1914, both in the direction of expansion and of Indianisation of the legal profession.

Law Officers.

The Government of India has its own law colleague in the Legal Member of Council. All Government measures are drafted in this department. Outside the Council the principal law officer of the Government of India is the Advocate-General of Bengal, who is appointed by the Crown, is the leader of the local Bar, and is always nominated a member of the Provincial Legislative Council. In Calcutta he is assisted by the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor. There are Advocates-General appointed by the Crown and Government Solicitors for Bombay and Madras, and in Bombay there is attached to the secretariat a Legal Remembrancer and an Assistant Legal Remembrancer, drawn from the Judicial Branch of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of Bengal consults the Bengal Advocate-General, the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor, and has besides a Legal Remembrancer (a Civil Servant) and a Deputy Legal Remembrancer (a practising barrister). The United Provinces are equipped with a civilian Legal Remembrancer and professional lawyers as Government Advocate and Assistant Government Advocate, the Punjab has a Legal Remembrancer, Government Advocate and a Junior Government Advocate, and Burma a Government Advocate, besides a Secretary to the Local Legislative Council. Under the Government of India Bill it is proposed to appoint an Advocate-General for each of the more important provinces.

Sheriffs are attached to the High Courts of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. They are appointed by Government, selected from non-officials of standing, the detailed work being done by deputy sheriffs, who are officers of the Court.

Law Reports.

The Indian Law Reports are now published in seven series—Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, Patna, Lahore and Rangoon under the authority of the Governor-General-in-Council. They contain cases determined by the High Court and by the Judicial Committee on appeal from the particular High Court. These appeals raise questions of very great importance, and the Council of Law Reporting for England and Wales show their appreciation by printing the Indian Appeals in a separate volume, and have also compiled a digest of Indian Appeals covering the period 1874-1893. The other Provinces and States have series of reports issued under the authority either of the Judiciary or the State.

Ghosh, J M, Bar-at-Law
Mitra, Kanai Lal
Palsett, F
Das-Gupta, Manmatha Bhushan, V A, B L
Ahmad, O U, M A (Cal), LL B (Bol), Bar-at-Law
De, Jatindranath
Ghatak, Niroj Nath, Bar-at-Law
Sen-Gupta Subodh Chandra
Badr-ud-Din Ahmad, Khan Bahadur B A

Moses, O Bar-at-Law
Hindley, N L, V A, I C S
D Abrew, P A
Badr-ud-Din Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, B A

Young, J J
Young, J J
Basu, Anukul Chandra
Chakrabatti, Bijay Krishna

Moigan, C Carey

Sunita, O R

Falkner, George McDonald, Bar-at-Law
Mukharji, Kanti Chandra (Advocate)

Registrar in Insolvency
Deputy Registrar
Assistant Registrar
Do
Do
Do
Do
Do
Secretary to the Hon'ble Chief Justice
and Head Clerk, Decree Department
(Officiating)
Clerk of the Crown for Criminal Sessions
Registrar and Taming Officer, Appellate
Jurisdiction
Deputy Registrar
Assistant Registrar Appellate Side,
English Office (Officiating Secretary
to the Hon'ble Chief Justice)
(Officiating)
Assistant Registrar (Paper Book and
Accounts Departments)
(Officiating)
Senior Bench Clerk and *ex-officio* Assistant
Registrar, Appellate Side (On
probation)
Administrator-General and Official
Trustee
Deputy Administrator-General and Official
Trustee
Official Assignee
Official Receiver

Bombay Judicial Department.

Baumont, The Hon'ble Sir J W F, Kt, K C, M A, (Cantab)
Blackwell, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Cecil Patrick, Bar-at-Law
Ringachar, The Hon'ble Mr Sajbha Shankar, B A, LL B, Bar-at-Law
Broomfield, The Hon'ble Mr Justice R S, B A, Bar-at-Law, I C S
Wadia, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Bomanji Jamshedji
Burlee, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Kenneth William, B A (Dub) Bar-at-Law, I C S
Kania, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Harilal Jaykisanadas, LL B
Divatia, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Harsidhbhai Vajubhai, M A, LL B
Wadia, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Naoroji Jehangir, Bar-at-Law, I C S
Maoklin, The Hon Mr Justice A S R, I C S
Tyabji, The Hon'ble Mr Justice F B, M A, Bar-at-Law
Chitre, The Hon Mr Justice A A
Kemp, Kenneth Mc I, Bar-at-Law
Sen, K C, I C S
Louis Walker, G

Vakil, J H, Bar-at-Law
O'Gorman, G C, Bar-at-Law
Mallabari, Khan Bahadur P B Bar-at-Law
Abuvala, N B
Vesuvala, N A
Vaidya, G A

Shungne, Dewan Bahadur Padmanabh Bhaskar, LL B

Chief Justice
Punsne Judge
Do (On leave)
Do
Do
Do
Do (On leave)
Do
Do
Do (Offg Addl Judge)
Do (Acting).
Advocate General
Remembrancer of Legal Affairs
Government Solicitor and Public Prosecutor
Clerk of the Crown
Editor, Indian Law Reports
Official Assignee
Deputy Official Assignee (On leave)
1st Assistant to Official Assignee
2nd Assistant to Official Assignee,
Officiating 1st Assistant
Government Pleader, Bombay

Laloo, C. M., LL.B.	Governor's Pleader at Police Cases Court, Madras
Mitchell, H. C. B.	Assistant Pleader at Police Cases Court, Madras
Ranchhodlal Bhulabhai Patel B. A., LL.B.	Prosecutor at Police Cases Court, Madras
G. R. Khuraz	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Vakil, H. A. Bar-at-Law	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Sequeira, A. L. B.A., LL.B. Advocate at Law	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
S. J. Raghunatha B.A., LL.B. Bar-at-Law	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Talim Ali Entich LL.B.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Mujumdar, T. H., Bar-at-Law	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Nakra, N. B., LL.B.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Gudre, T. H.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Mahabadi, M. A., LL.B.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Ayyar, A. R. N.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Kutikar A. H. Bar-at-Law	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Shapurji Behramji Raghunath Sir, LL.B.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Nemazu M. K.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Byadkar R. S. B.A. (Bombay, Central), LL.B.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Dhargalkar D. H. M.B.A., LL.B.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras
Athulakrishnan A. L. B.A., LL.B.	Magistrate at Police Cases Court, Madras

COURT OF THE JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER RESID.

G. J. S. Collins I.C.S.	Judge at Court of Sessions
Rupchand Jharam, B.A., LL.B.	Assistant Judge at Court of Sessions
Mehta, Dulabai, C. M.A., LL.B.	Assistant Judge at Court of Sessions
Havelwala, M. A., Bar-at-Law	Assistant Judge at Court of Sessions

COURT RECEIVER AND DEPUTY AND ASSISTANTS

Widia, H. H., M.A. Bar-at-Law	Court Receiver and Deputy
Chinnay, A. T. J. LL.B.	First Assistant to do.
Appabhai G. Doss, Bar-at-Law	Second Assistant to do.
Engineer, S. E., B.A., LL.B.	Third Assistant to do.

Madras Judicial Department.

Beasley, The Hon'ble Justice Sir H. O. C. Kt., Chief Justice	
Ramesam, The Hon'ble Sir V., Kt.	Judge
Venkatasubba Rao, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice M. B. A., LL.B.	Do
Mailhavai Nair, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice C. Bar-at-Law	Do
Jackson The Hon'ble Mr. Justice G. H. B., LL.B.	Do (On leave)
Panduranga Rao, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice I.C.S.	Do
Gurgeson, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice A. J., I.C.S.	Do
Cornish, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice H. D.	Do
Sundaram Chetti, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice K., Diwan Bahadur	Do (On leave)
Stone, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Gilbert	Do.
Walsh, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice T. P.	Do.

Varadachari, The Hon'ble Mr Justice S, Rao Bahadur	Judge
Lakshmana Rao, K P, The Hon'ble Mr Justice	Do
Vere Mockett, The Hon'ble Mr Justice	Do
Burn, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice S, ICS	Do
King, The Hon'ble Mr Justice A J, ICS	Do
Krishnaswami Ayyar, Sir Alladi, Kt, BA, BL	Advocate-General
Rangaswami Ayyangar, S, BA, BL	Administrator-General
Small, H M	Government Solicitor
Nayudu, Venkataramana Rao P, Rao Bahadur, BA, BL	Government Pleader
Rama Rao, K W	Law Reporter
Bewes, L. H, Advocate	Public Prosecutor
Aingar R N., Bar-at-Law	Editor, Indian Law Reports Madras Series
Rajagopalan, G, BA, ML	Law Reporter
Viswanatha Ayyar, A S, BA, BL	Do,
Shri Avengar, K V	Secretary, Rule Committee
Balasundaram Nayudu, M	Sheriff of Madras
Anantaraman, T S	Crown Prosecutor
White, G S	Registrar, High Court
Srinivasa Ayyar	2nd Assistant Registrar, Original Side
Appa Rao, D, Bar-at-Law	Master, High Court
Natyamurti Aiyar, R, MA, ML	Deputy Registrar, Appellate Side
Sankaranarayana, B C, MA, LL B, Bar-at-Law	Official Referee
Ganapathi, K N, Bar-at-Law	1st Assistant Registrar, Original Side
Jayaram Ayyar, R, MA, BL	Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side

Assam Judicial Department.

Lethbridge, M H B, ICS	Officiating Secretary to Government, Legislative Department, and Officiating Secretary to the Assam Legislative Council, Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, Administrator-General and Official Trustee Assam
Lodge, Ronald Francis, ICS	District and Sessions Judge, Assam Valley Districts
Masuli, Syed Mahomed, Bar-at-Law	District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar
Ghosh, Praphullah Krishna	Additional District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar
Mukharji, Satya Charan	Offg 2nd Additional Judge, Sylhet and Cachar
Barua, Sriyut Jogendra Nath	Temporary Additional District and Sessions Judge, Assam Valley Districts
Barua, Iswar Prasad	Second Additional Judge, Assam Valley

Bihar and Orissa Judicial Department.

Terrell, The Hon'ble Sir Courtney, Kt	Chief Justice
Wort, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Alfred William Ewart Bar-at-Law	Puisne Judge
Macpherson, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Thomas Stewart, Kt., CID, ICS, Bar-at-Law	Do
Fazlali, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Sayid, Bar-at-Law	Do
Khawja Muhammad Nur, OBE, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Khan Bahadur	Do
James, The Hon'ble Mr Justice John Francis Wilham, ICS, Bar-at-Law	Do
Dhavit, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Sankarn Balaji, ICS	Do

THE INDIAN POLICE.

Origins.—Cornwallis was the first Indian administrator to take the burden of policing the country off the zemindars and to place it on Government. He ordered the District Judges of Bengal in 1793 to open a Thana (Police Station) for every 400 square miles of their jurisdiction, and to appoint stipendiary Thannadars (Police Station Officers) and subordinates.

In Madras in 1816, Sir Thomas Munro took superintendence of police out of the hands of the sedentary judges and placed it in the hands of the peripatetic Collector, who had the indigenous village police system already under his control. In this way the Revenue Department controlled the police of the districts and still to some extent does so, especially in Bombay Presidency.

In Khandesh from 1826-36 Outram of Mutiny fame showed how a whole time military commandant could turn incorrigible marauders into excellent police, and Sir George Clerk, Governor of Bombay in 1848, applied the lesson by appointing full-time European Superintendents of Police in many Districts.

Madras had a torture scandal in 1853 which showed that 3 Collectors had no time for real police superintendence, in 1859 the principle of full-time European superintendence was introduced in a Madras Act of that year and the control of the Collector was removed.

The Mutiny led to general police overhaul and retrenchment and the Madras Act was mainly followed in India Act V of 1861, "An Act for the Regulation of Police", which still governs police working everywhere in India except Madras and Bombay, which has its own Police Act (IV of 1890).

Working.—Strictly speaking there is no Indian Police. With the doubtful exceptions of the Delhi Imperial Area Police, and the advisory staff of the Intelligence Bureau attached to the Home Department, the Government of India has not a single police officer directly under its control. The police provided for by the 1861 Act is a provincialised police, administered by the Local Government concerned, subject only "to the general control" of the Governor-General.

Within the Local Government area the police are enrolled and organised in District forces, at the head of each of which is a District Superintendent of Police with powers of enlistment and dismissal of constabulary, and Police Station Officers may also be dismissed by the D S P.

The D S P is subject to dual control. The force he commands is placed at the disposal of the District Magistrate for the enforcement of law and the maintenance of order in the District. But the departmental working and efficiency of the force is governed by a departmental hierarchy of Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Inspector-General of Police, and Home Department. Generally speaking, the D S P. has to correspond with his District Magistrate on judicial and magisterial topics, and with his departmental chiefs on internal working of his force.

The C. I. D.—The Carzon Police Commission of 1902-3 introduced police working by providing for the direct enlistment and training of educated Indians as Police Station Officers, and by creating specialised police agencies under each Local Government for the investigation of specialist and post-local crime. These agencies are known as Criminal Investigation Departments and work under a Deputy Inspector-General. They collect information about crime (all the *Crime Gazette*, take over from the District Police crime with ramifications into several jurisdictions, and they control the working of such special police developments as the Fingerprint Identification Bureau.

Headquarters and Armed Police.—At the chief town of each District the D. S. P. has his office and also his Headquarters Police Lines and parade ground. This is the main centre for accumulation and distribution to the Police Stations and Outposts of the District of clothing, arms, ammunition, and accoutrements. Here are the Stores and the Armoury. Here also constabulary recruits enlisted by the D S P. are taught drill, deportment, and duties and are turned out to all vacancies. The Headquarters Lines also contain the two hundred or so armed police who mount guard on Treasuries in the District, and also provide prisoner and treasure escort. Actually they form a small and mobile local army equipped with muskets (single loading) and bayonets. The most highly trained section of them go through a musketry course and are armed with 303 service rifles. At most head-quarters but by no means all, there is also a reserve of mounted and armed police.

Thannas and Thannadars.—Almost throughout India the popular terms for Police Station and Police Station Officer are "Thana" and "Thannadar." It is at the Police Station that the public are most in touch with the police and the police with the public. Whether it be in a large city or in a moorless hamlet the Thana is the place where people come with their troubles and their grievances against their neighbours or against a person or persons unknown. In dealing with such callers, the Thannadar, who like police of all ranks, is supposed to be always on duty, is chiefly guided in the Fourteenth Chapter of the Code of Criminal Procedure, and the Second Schedule at the end of that Code. This schedule shows nearly all penal offences and states whether or not they are "cognisable by the police." The Fourteenth Chapter lays down that a cognisable complaint must then and there be recorded, visited and investigated. A non-cognisable complaint is merely noted in a separate book and the complainant is told to go to court.

Police Prosecutors.—The complainant in a cognisable case not only has his complaint recorded but investigated without payment of fee. If the Thannadar succeeds in establishing a *prima facie* case against the accused, the prosecution in court is conducted free of charge by a police prosecutor, who is generally a junior pleader, engaged by Government to conduct police cases.

to the Sessions are conducted by the Public Prosecutor or one of his Assistants, and the reports of these officers and the comments of the judge are a means for the D S P. to know whether his Thanadars are doing their work properly.

Out Posts—When the Police Commission of 1860 devised the plan of police that still holds the field, they laid down two criteria of the numbers required. One was one policeman per square mile, the other was one per thousand of population. In towns it is well enough to have the available police concentrated at the police station. But in the mofussil the Thana is very often fifty miles distant from portions of its jurisdiction. It is in such cases profitable to detach a portion of the police station strength under a head constable to man an outpost where complaints can be received and investigation begun without the injured party having to undertake a long journey to the distant Thana. The secret of good mofussil police working in normal times is dispersion. A single policeman, however junior, represents the rule of law and is an agent of Government.

The Chain of Promotion—Ordinarily the constable may aspire to become a jamadar, or with ability and luck, a Police Station Officer or even Inspector. The directly recruited matriculate who comes in through the Police Training School as a Thanadar may ordinarily become an Inspector or a Deputy Superintendent, or exceptionally a Superintendent. The direct Deputy, an office reserved for Indians, has a good chance of becoming Superintendent, and perhaps Deputy Inspector-General. The direct Assistant Superintendent, whether from England, or from India, is sure of a Superintendentship, and has chances of D I G after 25 years' service. The period of service for all ranks for full pension is thirty years, and if an officer dies in the process of earning full pension his pension dies with him and all his dependents get his provident fund.

Presidency Police—In the Presidency Towns there is unified police control for the Police Commissioner is responsible for both law and order and for departmental training and efficiency.

The Commissioner of Police of a Presidency Town is not the subordinate of the Provincial Inspector-General of Police and he deals direct with Government, just as the Presidency Magistrates deal directly with the High Court. The Criminal Procedure Code of India is superseded in the Presidency Towns by special police Acts which prescribe police procedure. Justice in criminal cases in Presidency Towns is somewhat rough and ready, not only from this cause, but also because Presidency Magistrates can give upto six months or Rs 200 fine summarily, i.e., without formal record of proceedings, and if only whipping or fine up to Rs 200 is inflicted there need be not even any statement of reasons for the conviction.

Round Figures—The process of reorganisation and retrenchment goes on ceaselessly, annual administration reports for the ten major provinces and four minor administrations appeared tardily, and there are no unified statistics for the police of India and Burma. The following figures are therefore merely to be regarded as approximations, giving a general idea of the numbers of police and the volume of work put through yearly.—There are about 25,000 Military Police, chiefly in Burma, Assam, and Bengal, and these cost about one crore. The maintenance of them is a departure from the principles laid down by the 1860 Commission and the 1861 Act.

Provincial Police including Burma total about 200,000 and cost eleven and a half crores or an average of over one crore per major Province.

There are about 10,000 Thanads or Police Stations which annually investigate from five to six thousand murders, four thousand dacoities, twenty-five thousand cattle thefts, one hundred and seventy thousand ordinary thefts and as many burglaries. They place on trial every year about three-quarters of a million persons, of whom about half a million or more are convicted. The jail population of India, which is over a hundred thousand, consists of many habituals who on release proceed to prey on the public until such time as the police again secure their conviction and incarceration.

Statement (1) "Military Police" for 1932

Assam Rifles.

Commandants	Assist Comm	Sub and Jam	Hav and Naiks	Sepoys	Total.	Cost Rs
4	14	67	340	3,060	3,485	16,20,755
1	3	16	70	(Bengal) 753	Battn) 843	4,00,150
..	..	Bihar 13	and Oris 51	sa 415	479	2,79,700
11	41	Burma 238	Military 1,040	Police 10,947	12,327	75,88,000
5	0	Baluchistan 234	Milita 528	ry Police 4,087	4,860	24,68,556

Province.	Inspector-Generals and Deputy Inspectors-General.	Superintendents	Assistant Superintendents of Police	Deputy Superintendents of Police	Inspectors	Sub-Inspectors	Sergeants.	Head Constables.	Constables	Total.	Grand Total Cost	Proportion of Police	
												to area.	to population.
Assam ..	1	14	11	19	50	279	1	529	3,404	4,839	Rs 24,13,227	1 to 11.7	1 to 1,965.06
Bengal (excluding Calcutta)	7	45	47	28	254	1,821	47	2,612	19,650	24,511	1,67,49,182	1 to 2.9	1 to 2,091.02
Bihar ..	5	29	24	28	188	1,158	17	1,548	11,458	14,455	81,47,468	1 to 5.7	1 to 2,622
Bombay (excluding Bombay)	5	35	12	30	181	733	64	5,092	18,004	24,056	1,32,01,162	1 to 5.3	1 to 860
Burma (excluding Rangoon)	6	40	34	66	223	1,839	17	1,579	9,548	13,352	1,25,96,262	1 to 17.14	1 to 1,064
C. P. ..	4	23	18	14	147	748	31	1,730	8,002	11,312	56,61,879	1 to 9.1	1 to 1,370
Madras ..	7	35	32	47	276	1,411	207	2,871	23,283	28,109	1,58,88,442	1 to 5.1	1 to 1,659
N. W. F. ..	1	8	6	14	35	204	4	773	6,374	7,619	34,02,713	1 to 2.9	1 to 390.62
Punjab ..	5	36	17	48	134	841	40	3,483	18,106	21,770	1,17,80,996	1 to 4.6	1 to 1,035
U. P. ..	6	58	42	75	197	2,022	40	2,583	28,664	33,637	1,42,00,135	1 to 3.2	1 to 1,489
	47	323	238	360	1,685	11,056	468	22,680	147,443	184,300	10,40,51,486	1 to 6.7	1 to 1,430

The figures have been brought up to 1932.

STATISTICS OF POLICE WORK.

The undesirability of attaching undue importance to statistical results as a test of the merits of police work was a point upon which considerable stress was laid by the Indian Police Commission, who referred to the evils likely to result from the prevalence among subordinate officers of an impression that the advancement of an officer would depend upon his being able to show a high ratio of convictions, both to cases and by persons arrested, and a low ratio of crime. The objection applies more particularly to the use of statistics for small areas; but they cannot properly be used as a basis of comparison even for larger areas without taking into account the differences in the condition under which the police work; and, it may be added, they can at the best indicate only very imperfectly the degree of success with which the police carry out that important branch of their duties, which consists in the prevention of crime. These considerations have been emphasized in recent orders of the Government of India. Subject to these observations, the figures below may be given as some indication of the volume of work falling upon the police, and of the wide differences between the conditions and the statistical results in different provinces. They are statistics of cognizable crime —

Administrations	Number pending from previous year	Number reported in the year	Number of persons tried	Number convicted	Number acquitted or discharged	Number in custody pending trial or investigation on bail at end of year	
Bengal	8,487	222,331	201,822	187,364	14,458	9,625	
Bihar and Orissa .	2,897	46,478	35,424	27,267	8,157	4,682	
United Provinces .	12,081	134,977	107,105	93,191	13,914	15,333	
Punjab	10,439	66,060	71,196	45,425	25,736	5,494	
North-West Frontier Province	2,310	11,718	18,764	12,652	6,112	1,916	
Burma	6,932	73,434	74,916	48,842	26,104	5,232	
Central Provinces and Berar	3,259	45,035	26,820	16,663	5,849	4,308	
Assam	1,393	14,141	10,735	7,019	3,717	1,900	
Ajmer-Merwara	372	5,444	4,032	3,824	208	420	
Coorg	138	530	625	311	154	158	
Madras	15,732	195,129	185,444	107,907	17,537	6,179	
Bombay	8,833	120,020	137,344	114,840	22,498	12,376	
Baluchistan	139	3,512	3,141	2,788	340	302	
Delhi	392	7,278	6,298	5,072	1,226	171	
TOTAL, 1932 .	73,455	955,993	883,696	733,171	140,010	68,096	
TOTALS ..	1931 .	63,396	938,041	819,882	670,885	144,723	83,969
	1930 .	70,759	898,977	795,456	657,044	134,176	78,309
	1929 ..	67,540	1,018,522	867,940	730,459	134,529	71,245
	1928 .	63,079	941,955	797,866	661,755	133,268	68,233
	1927 .	57,630	886,675	738,856	602,956	132,313	63,550
	1926 .	57,412	858,777	711,493	582,346	126,215	61,007
	1925 .	56,554	877,780	712,697	578,908	176,423	50,336
	1924 ..	54,997	887,747	703,553	570,729	130,112	51,490
1923	56,314	846,664	649,101	521,861	124,821	50,604	

JAILS

Jail administration in India is regulated generally by the Prisons Act of 1894, and by rules issued under it by the Government of India and the local governments. The punishments authorised by the Indian Penal Code for convicted offenders include transportation, penal servitude, rigorous imprisonment (which may include short periods of solitary confinement), and simple imprisonment. Accommodation has also to be provided in the jails for civil and under-trial prisoners.

The origin of all jail improvements in India in recent years was the Jail Commission of 1889. The report of the Commission, which consisted of only two members, both officials serving under the Government of India is extremely long, and reviews the whole question of jail organization and administration in the minutest detail. In most matters the Commission's recommendations have been accepted and adopted by Local Governments, but in various matters, mainly of a minor character, their proposals have either been rejected *ab initio* as unsuited to local conditions, abandoned as unworkable after careful experiment or accepted in principle but postponed for the present as impossible.

The most important of all the recommendations of the Commission, the one that might in fact be described as the corner stone of their report, is that there should be in each Presidency three classes of jails. In the first place, large central jails for convicts sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment, secondly, district jails at the headquarters of districts, and, thirdly, subsidiary jails and "lock-ups" for under-trial prisoners and convicts sentenced to short terms of imprisonment. The jail department in each province is under the control of an Inspector-General, he is generally an officer of the Indian Medical Service with jail experience, and the Superintendents of certain jails are usually recruited from the same service. The district jail is under the charge of the civil surgeon, and is frequently inspected by the district magistrate. The staff under the Superintendent includes, in large central jails, a Deputy Superintendent to supervise the jail manufactures, and in all central and district jails one or more subordinate medical officers. The executive staff consists of jailors and warders, and convict petty officers are employed in all central and district jails, the prospect of promotion to one of these posts being a strong inducement to good behaviour. A Press Note issued by the Bombay Government in October, 1916, says.—"The cadre and emoluments of all ranks from Warder to Superintendent have been repeatedly revised and altered in recent years. But the Department is not at all attractive in its lower grades. The two weak spots in the jail administration at the moment are the insufficiency of Central Prisons and the difficulty of obtaining good and sufficient warders."

to all India legislation. The obvious advisability of proceeding along certain general lines of uniform application led lately to the appointment of a Jails' Committee, which conducted the first comprehensive survey of Indian prison administration which had been made for thirty years. Stress was laid by the Committee upon the necessity of improving and increasing existing jail accommodation, of recruiting a better class of warders; of providing education for prisoners, and of developing prison industries so as to meet the needs of the consuming Departments of Government. Other important recommendations included the separation of civil from criminal offenders; the adoption of the English system of release on license in the case of adolescents, and the creation of children's courts. The Committee found that the reformatory side of the Indian system needed particular attention. They recommended the segregation of habituals from ordinary prisoners, the provision of separate accommodation for prisoners under trial, the institution of the star-class system, and the abolition of certain practices which are liable to harden or degrade the prison population.

Employment of Prisoners.—The work on which convicts are employed is mostly carried on within the jail walls, but extra-mural employment on a large scale is sometimes allowed, as, for example, when a large number of convicts were employed in excavating the Jhelum Canal in the Punjab. Within the walls prisoners are employed on jail service and repairs, and in workshops. The main principle laid down with regard to jail manufactures is that the work must be penal and industrial. The industries are on a large scale, multifarious employment being condemned, while care is taken that the jail shall not compete with local traders. As far as possible industries are adapted to the requirements of the consuming public departments, and printing, tent-making, and the manufacture of clothing are among the commonest employments. Schooling is confined to juveniles; the experiment of teaching adults has been tried, but literary instruction is unsuitable for the class of persons who fill an Indian jail.

The conduct of convicts in jail is generally good, and the number of desperate characters among them is small. Failure to perform the allotted task is by far the most common offence. In a large majority of cases the punishment inflicted is one of those classed as "minor." Among the "major" punishments feters take the first place. Corporal punishment is inflicted in relatively few cases, and the number is steadily falling. Punishments were revised as the result of the Commission of 1889. Two notable punishments then abolished were shaving the heads of female prisoners and the stocks. The latter, which was apparently much practised in Bombay, was described by the Commission as inflicting exquisite torture. Punishments are now scheduled and graded into major and minor. The most difficult of all jail problems is the internal maintenance of order among the prisoners, for which purpose paid

The Jails Committee.—Since the introduction of the reformed constitution the maintenance of the Indian Prisons falls within the sphere of provincial Governments and is subject

warders and convict warders are employed. With this is bound up the question of a special class of well-behaved prisoners which was tried from 1905 onwards in the Thana Jail.

Juvenile Prisoners—As regards "youthful offenders"—i.e., those below the age of 15—the law provides alternatives to imprisonment, and it is strictly enjoined that boys shall not be sent to jail when they can be dealt with otherwise. The alternatives are detention in a reformatory school for a period of from three to seven years, but not beyond the age of 18; discharge after admonition; delivery to the parent or guardian on the latter executing a bond to be responsible for the good behaviour of the culprit; and whipping by way of school discipline.

The question of the treatment of "young adult" prisoners has in recent years received much attention. Under the Prisons Act, prisoners below the age of 18 must be kept separate from older prisoners, but the recognition of the principle that an ordinary jail is not a fitting place for adolescents (other than youthful habituals) who are over 15, and therefore ineligible for admission to the reformatory school, has led Local Governments to consider schemes for going beyond this by treating young adults on the lines followed at Borstal, and considerable progress has been made in this direction. In 1905, a special class for selected juveniles and young adults was established at the Dharwar Jail at Bombay, in 1908 a special juvenile jail was opened at Alipore in Bengal; in 1909 the Veikitta jail in Burma and the Tanjore jail in Madras were set aside for adolescents, and a new jail for juvenile and "juvenile adult" convicts was opened at Bareilly in the United Provinces; and in 1916 it was decided to concentrate adolescents in the Punjab at the Lahore District jail, which is now worked on Borstal lines. Other measures had previously been taken in some cases, a special reformatory system for "juvenile adults" had, for example, been in force in two central jails in the Punjab since the early years of the decade, and "Borstal enclosures" had been established in some jails in Bengal. But the public is slow to appreciate that it has a duty towards prisoners, and but little progress has been made in the formation of Prisoners' Aid Societies except in Bombay and Calcutta, though even in those cities much remains to be done.

Reformatory Schools—These schools have been administered since 1899 by the Education department, and the authorities are directed to improve the industrial education of the inmates, to help the boys to obtain employment on leaving school, and as far as possible to keep a watch on their careers.

Transportation—Transportation is an old punishment of the British Indian criminal law, and a number of places were formerly appointed for the reception of Indian transported convicts. The only penal settlement at the present time is Port Blair in the Andaman Islands.

Commission of Enquiry, 1919—A committee was appointed to investigate the whole system of prison administration in India with special reference to recent legislation and experience in Western countries. Its report, published in 1921, was summarised in the

Indian Year Book, 1922 (pages 670-671). A number of reforms were advocated but, owing to financial stringency, it has not yet been possible to introduce some of the more important of them.

Fines and Short Sentences—Those sections of the Indian Penal Code, under which imprisonment must be awarded when a conviction occurs, should be amended so as to give discretion to the court. Sentences of imprisonment for less than twenty-eight days should be prohibited.

The Indeterminate Sentences—The sentence of every long-term prisoner should be brought under revision, as soon as the prisoner has served half the sentence in the case of the non-habitual, and two-thirds of the sentence in the case of the habitual, remission, earned being counted in each case. The revision should be carried out by a Revising Board, composed of the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Sessions Judge and a non-official. In all cases, the release of a prisoner on parole should be made subject to conditions, breach of which would render him liable to be remanded to undergo the full original sentence. The duty of seeing that a prisoner fulfils the conditions on which he was released should not be imposed upon the police or upon the village headman, but special officers, to be termed parole officers, should be appointed for the purpose. These parole officers should possess a good standard of education, though not necessarily a university degree, and should both protect and advise the released prisoner and report breaches of the conditions of release.

Transportation and the Andamans—The future of the penal settlement of Port Blair was continually under the consideration of the Government of India from the time of the publication of the Jails Commission report, but it was not till 1926 that a definite decision was reached. It was then decided that henceforth only those convicts should normally be sent to the Andamans who volunteered to come, that the old restrictions on life in the settlement should be sensibly relaxed, that convicts should be encouraged to settle on the land, that in certain conditions they should be entitled to release to obtain occupancy rights over the land which they had cultivated, and that the importation of wives and families should be encouraged. The object of these changes was to promote the development of a free colony of persons, who would, after the terms of their sentences had expired, make the Andamans their permanent home. The effect up to date has been to introduce a completely new outlook on life into the settlement, but it is still too soon to appreciate its potentialities. It has recently been found necessary to send to the Andamans certain convicts either sentenced to transportation for life or to long terms of rigorous imprisonment for permanent incarceration in the Cellular Jail. Such prisoners will not be released and allowed to go into the settlement, and its development will in no way be affected by their presence.

Criminal Tribes—The first essential of success in dealing with the criminal tribes is the provision of a reasonable degree of economic

comfort for the people. It is therefore of paramount importance to locate settlements where sufficient work at remunerative rates is available. Large numbers of fresh settlers should never be sent to a settlement without first as-

certaining whether there is work for them. Commitment to settlements should, as far as possible, be by gangs not by individuals. It is desirable to utilise both Government and private agency for the control of settlements.

The variations of the jail population in British India during the five years ending 1932 are shown in the following table:—

	1932	1931	1930	1929	1928
Jail population of all classes on 1st January	154,871	163,298	137,129	140,142	136,424
Admissions during the year	896,876	730,840	771,187	598,568	585,206
Aggregate	1,051,747	903,138	908,316	738,710	721,630
Discharged during the year from all causes	885,950	748,266	744,946	601,581	581,512
Jail population on 31st December .	165,797	154,872	163,370	137,129	140,118
Convict population on 1st January .	126,580	136,552	116,184	118,970	116,161
Admissions during the year	267,239	207,568	223,538	167,697	167,013
Aggregate	393,819	344,120	339,722	286,667	283,174
Released during the year	247,648	216,807	196,996	163,796	160,375
Transported beyond seas	1,492	1,685	1,599	1,821	566
Casualties, &c	2,395	2,502	2,541	2,514	2,497
Convict population on 31st December.	139,708	126,580	136,552	116,187	118,796

More than one-half of the total number of convicts received in jails during 1932 came from the classes engaged in agriculture and cattle tending, about 190,000 out of 267,000 were returned as illiterate.

The percentage of previously convicted prisoners fell from 14 to 12, while the number of youthful offenders rose from 480 to 1,024. The following table shows the nature and length of sentences of convicts admitted to jails in 1930 to 1932 —

Nature and Length of Sentence.	1932	1931	1930
Not exceeding one month	43,196	39,284	35,773
Above one month and not exceeding six months.	120,656	89,647	109,714
" six months one year ..	54,253	39,373	40,878
" one year five years ..	38,873	30,584	29,950
" five years ten	5,598	4,740	3,985
Exceeding ten years	705	575	533
Transportation beyond seas—			
(a) for life	2,348	1,933	1,592
(b) for a term	94	100	37
Sentenced to death	1,648	1,331	1,126

The total daily average population for 1932 was 144,004, the total offences dealt with by criminal courts was 310, and by Superintendents 97,786. The corresponding figures for 1931 were 121,900, 195 and 114,545, respectively.

The total number of corporal punishments showed a slight increase, viz., from 174 to 190. The total number of cases in which penal diet (with and without cellular confinement) was prescribed was 4,669 as compared with 3,684 in the preceding year.

Total expenditure increased from Rs 1,75,48,041 to Rs 1,77,91,758, while total cash earnings decreased from Rs 25,72,343 to Rs 24,01,285, there was consequently an increase of Rs 4,14,735 in the net cost to Government.

The death rate decreased from 12.42 per mille in 1931 to 10.19 in 1932. The admissions to hospital were higher, and the daily average number of sick fell from 23.73 to 23.12.

ture or import issued under this Act. Under s 13 the penalty for contravening the provisions of s 9 is imprisonment which may extend to six months or fine up to one thousand rupees. s 20 brings into accord the customs duty on matches with the excise duty imposed by this Act.

17 The Negotiable Instruments (Amendment) Act.—The present Act by amending s 51 of the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881 provides that cheques originally drawn to bearer do not lose their bearer character notwithstanding any endorsement thereon whether in full or in blank and whether such endorsement purports to restrict or exclude further negotiation or not.

18 The Indian Trusts (Amendment) Act.—Certain Provincial Governments were desirous that the status of trustee securities should be extended to debentures issued by Land Mortgage Banks and similar corporations, provided that both the principal and interest of such securities were fully and unconditionally guaranteed by the Local Government concerned. The present Act gives effect to this by adding a proviso to clause (a) of s 20 of the Indian Trusts Act, 1882.

19 The Indian Dock Labourers Act.—The International Labour Conference at its twelfth session held in 1929 adopted a Draft Convention concerning the protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships. At its sixteenth session held in 1932 the Conference adopted a Revised Draft Convention which is of exactly the same scope and character as the original draft convention adopted in 1929 and differs from it only in certain matters of technical detail. The present Act ratifies the Revised Draft Convention on behalf of India.

S 2 defines "the processes" as including all work which is required for or is incidental to the loading or unloading of cargo or fuel into or from a ship and is done on board the ship or alongside it. Under s 3 the Local Government may appoint Inspectors who are empowered by s 4 to enter any premises or ship where the processes are carried on and make such examination of the premises and ship and the machinery and gear used for the processes, and of any prescribed registers and notices, and may take on the spot or otherwise evidence of any person for carrying out the purposes of this Act. S 5 empowers the Governor General in Council to make certain regulations, e.g., regulations (1) providing for the safety of working places on shore and of any regular approaches over a dock, wharf, quay or similar premises which workers have to use and for the lighting and fencing of such places and approaches, (2) providing for the fencing of machinery, live electric conductors and steam pipes, (3) regulating the provision of safety appliances on derricks, cranes and winches.

20. The Indian Carriage by Air Act.—An International Convention for the unification of certain rules relating to international carriage by air was signed at Warsaw in October, 1929, by certain Governments. The Convention defines the liability of air carriers for injury or damage caused to passengers or goods. The

Convention was not signed on behalf of India but its provisions were examined by the Government of India and were found suitable to Indian conditions. The present Act gives effect to the Convention in British India (s 2). The Convention applies only in respect of international carriage by air, i.e., carriage between two States signatory to the Convention, but as there is no law on the subject in India, beyond the general law of contract and the law relating to carriers on land, the Act empowers the Governor General in Council to make rules extending the provisions of the Convention also to internal carriage by air (s 4). The rules contained in the First Schedule to the Act are the provisions of the Convention relating to the rights and liabilities of carriers, passengers, consignors, consignees and other persons. Under rule 17 the carrier is liable for damage sustained in the event of the death or wounding of a passenger or any other bodily injury suffered by a passenger, if the accident which caused the damage so sustained took place on board the aircraft or in the course of any of the operations of embarking or disembarking. The carrier is liable under rule 18 (1) for damage sustained in the event of the destruction or loss of, or damage to, any registered luggage or any goods, if the occurrence which caused the damage so sustained took place during the carriage by air. The carrier is liable for damage occasioned by delay in the carriage by air of passengers, luggage or goods. The carrier is not liable if he proves that he and his agents have taken all necessary measures to avoid the damage or that it was impossible for him or them to take such measures. In the carriage of goods and luggage the carrier is not liable if he proves that the damage was occasioned by negligent piloting or negligence in the handling of the aircraft or in navigation and that, in all other respects, he and his agents have taken all necessary measures to avoid the damage (r 20). Under r 21 if the carrier proves that the damage was caused by or contributed to by the negligence of the injured person the Court may exonerate the carrier wholly or partly from his liability. In the carriage of passengers the liability of the carrier for each passenger is limited to the sum of 1,25,000 francs. By special contract, the carrier and the passenger may agree to a higher limit of liability. In the carriage of registered luggage and of goods the liability of the carrier is limited to a sum of 250 francs per kilogram. As regards objects of which the passenger takes charge himself the liability of the carrier is limited to 5,000 francs per passenger (r 22). The sum in francs to be converted into rupees at the rate of exchange prevailing on the date on which the amount of damages to be paid by the carrier is ascertained by the Court [s 2 (5)]. Under r 23 any provision tending to relieve the carrier of liability or to fix a lower limit than that which is laid down in these rules is null and void. The rules contained in the Second Schedule determine the persons by whom and for whose benefit and the manner in which the liability of a carrier in respect of the death of a passenger may be enforced.

21. The Sea Customs (Amendment) Act.—Under s 42 of the Sea Customs Act, 1878, a drawback of seven-eighths of the customs duty paid on goods on importation is repayable at the

time of re-export of the goods subject to certain conditions. This provision was originally intended to apply to merchandise imported for sale in order that goods remaining unsold in this country might be sent for disposal in other markets without the handicap of a tax. In practice, however, the concession was allowed even in respect of goods which have passed into use after import in violation of the ordinary accepted principle that customs duty is a tax on consumption. In many cases—e.g., cars and cinematograph films the goods spend much or most of their useful life in this country within the period allowed before re-exportation under claim for drawback. The Government of India felt that the grant of drawback on used goods was wrong in principle and they decided that the payment of such drawback should be discontinued except in special cases to be prescribed by rules made in this behalf. The present Act gives effect to this decision by amending the original Act. The Governor General in Council, under s. 2, may make rules, in respect of goods which have been taken into use between importation and re-exportation, (a) modifying the amount of duty to be paid as drawback or (b) prohibiting the repayment of duty as drawback or (c) varying the conditions for the grant of drawback by restricting the period after importation within which the goods must be re-exported.

22 The Indian Aircraft Act.—Aerial navigation in British India, before the passing of the present Act, was governed by the Indian Aircraft Act, 1911. In 1910 an International Convention was signed by the plenipotentiaries of 27 countries, with the object of establishing regulations of universal application and of encouraging peaceful intercourse with nations by means of aerial communications. To this Convention India was a signatory. The Convention deals with all questions relating to international aerial navigation, and also provides for the institution of a permanent International Commission for Air Navigation, with very wide powers as regards the formulation of rules, the marking of aircraft, the grant of certificates, rules of the air and so forth. This Commission meets from time to time to amend the annexes of the Convention, which contain the detailed rules to be observed by the aircraft of all signatory States and by all aircraft when within the borders of those States. The present Act enlarges the rule-making powers of the Governor General in Council in order to meet modern developments, enables Government to give full effect to the provisions of the International Convention and its annexes and provides for certain other matters on which legislation has become necessary. The Indian Aircraft Act, 1911, is repealed.

23 The Mechanical Lighters (Excise Duty) Act.—With the imposition of a considerable duty on matches an abnormal development of the use of mechanical lighters is anticipated. This would mean a loss of duty and interference with the business of the Indian match manufacturing industry. The present Act therefore imposes an excise duty, at the rate of one rupee and eight annas per lighter on every mechanical lighter manufactured in British India. The customs duty leviable on these is also correspondingly enhanced.

24. The Repealing and Amending Act.—The present Act makes some necessary amendments of a formal nature in certain enactments specified in the First Schedule to the Act and repeals certain enactments to the extent mentioned in the Second Schedule.

25. The Factories Act.—The Royal Commission on Labour in India made a number of recommendations for the amendment of the Indian Factories Act, 1911. These were published with their Report in July 1931. After examining these in detail, the Government of India drafted a bill to replace the Indian Factories Act 1911, which embodied the great majority of the proposals and included some other alterations that experience had shown to be desirable. The present Act is based on the Labour Commission's recommendations and the suggestions offered by associations of employers and employed and like organizations. The following are some of the recommendations of the Labour Commission which have received legislative sanction. S. 16 is designed to protect workers against the effects of excessive heat. The Chief Inspector may serve or give the Manager of a factory an order in writing—specifying the measures which should be adopted if it appears to him that the cooling properties of the air in the factory are at times insufficient to secure workers against injury to health or against serious discomfort. S. 34 reduces the working hours of adult workers to 54 hours in a week in non-seasonal factories and to 60 hours in seasonal factories. In the proviso a special exception is made in favour of factories where the processes must go on throughout the day, such as factories providing electric power and light, waterworks, etc. S. 36 reduces the hours for adult work in non-seasonal factories from 11 to 10 hours in a day. S. 51 imposes restrictions on the working hours of a child. A child cannot be allowed to work in a factory for more than five hours in a day. The hours of work of a child must be so arranged that they do not spread over more than seven and a half hours in any day.

26. The Bengal Criminal Law Amendment Supplementary (Extending) Act.—The Bengal Criminal Law Amendment (Supplementary) Act, 1932, empowers the Local Government, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, to make an order committing to custody in a jail outside Bengal any person against whom an order under s. 8 (1) of s. 2 of the Bengal Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1930, might be made. The Supplementary Act expires in April 1935. The present Act removes the time limit in the original Act and makes it permanent.

27. The Assam Criminal Law Amendment (Supplementary) Act.—S. 15 of the Assam Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1934, purports to give jurisdiction to the High Court of Judicature at Fort William in Bengal to entertain appeals from persons convicted by Commissioners under that Act, and to provide for the disposal of such appeals in that Court and for the confirmation by that Court of sentences of death passed by Commissioners. S. 20 of the Act purports *inter alia* to bar the exercise in respect of persons arrested or detained in custody under the Act of the powers exercisable by the High Court under s. 491 of the Code

of Criminal Procedure, 1898. As a local Legislature cannot affect the jurisdiction of a High Court established under the Government of India Act, the present Act re-enacts these provisions.

28 The Indian Rubber Control Act.—In view of the catastrophic fall in the price of rubber in recent years and the consequent difficulties with which rubber producers have been faced, representatives of the industry in the main rubber-producing countries, namely, India, Ceylon, Malaya, British North Borneo, the Dutch East Indies, French Indo-China, Siam, and Siam formulated an international scheme for the restriction of the export, production and stocks of rubber. The Governments of the territories concerned also entered into an agreement to take effective steps to put the scheme into operation. The main features of the scheme were—(1) that the restriction scheme should remain in force in the first instance up to the 31st December 1938, and its continuation thereafter should be subject to a review of the position by the Governments concerned, (2) that, during the currency of the scheme, the exports of rubber should be restricted to certain percentages of predetermined basic quotas, (3) that the import of rubber should be prohibited except under license, (4) that the stocks of rubber held by owners should be restricted, (5) that existing areas under rubber should not be extended except for exclusively experimental purposes, and in such cases only up to a maximum of one quarter of one per cent of the areas under rubber at the date of commencement of the restriction scheme and (6) that the replanting of areas under rubber should be restricted to a maximum of ten per cent of the area under rubber at the date of commencement of the scheme during each control year, and to 20 per cent, during the whole currency of the scheme. The present Act gives legislative sanction to this scheme.

29. The Indian Income-tax (Amendment) Act.—In accordance with s. 27 of the English Finance Act, 1920, the United Kingdom grants a refund to a doubly taxed assessee (a) at a rate equal to one half of the United Kingdom rate of tax, or (b) at a rate equal to the Indian rate of tax, whichever is less. The relief given by British India is regulated by s. 49 of the Indian Income-tax Act, 1922, which provides that where the relief obtained in the United Kingdom is at a rate less than the Indian rate of tax, the assessee obtains a refund to cover the difference subject to a minimum of one half the Indian rate of tax. Owing to recent increases in the Indian rate of taxation coupled with the recent reduction in the British rate of Income-tax from five shillings to four shillings six pence in the pound, in certain cases the effective rate of Indian income-tax is greater than the effective rate of United Kingdom income-tax. In these cases s. 49 of the Indian Act has the effect of leaving the assessee after he has obtained refunds both in the United Kingdom and in India, liable to an amount of tax which is less than if he had been taxed singly at the higher rate. The present Act therefore provides that when the income doubly taxed has obtained relief in the United Kingdom the balance of relief obtainable in British India does not exceed the

difference between the rate at which relief was obtained and the rate at which the tax was paid in that one of the two countries in which the rate of taxation was lower.

30. The Petroleum Act.—The Indian Petroleum Act, 1899, was passed at a time when the use of petroleum, particularly of dangerous petroleum or petrol was limited and with the great developments in the use of petroleum that have taken place in the last thirty years it became unsuitable in several ways. As early as 1903 the attention of the Government of India was drawn to the inconvenience arising from the existence in different provinces of separate sets of rules to regulate the importation, possession and transport of petroleum. The original Act did not permit the issue by the Government of India of a set of rules applicable throughout British India and the only way in which it was possible to secure uniformity was by the issue by Local Governments from time to time of similar rules with the sanction of the Central Government. The present Act transfers the rule-making powers to the Central Government.

The Act applies to the whole of British India [S. 1 (2)]. S. 2 defines "petroleum" as any liquid hydro-carbon or mixture of hydro-carbon, and any inflammable mixture (liquid, viscous or solid) containing any liquid hydro-carbon. "To transport" petroleum means to move petroleum from one place to another in British India, and includes moving from one place to another in British India by sea or across territory in India which is not part of British India. Ss. 3 and 4 provide for control over the import, transport and storage of petroleum by empowering the Governor General in Council to make rules in this behalf. Under s. 8 no license is needed for the import, transport or storage of dangerous petroleum not intended for sale if the total quantity does not exceed six gallons. S. 9 contains exemptions intended for owners of motor conveyances and stationary engines. Clause (a) exempts petroleum kept in a tank in a motor conveyance or an internal combustion engine from the requirement of a license. Clause (b) allows the owner of a motor conveyance or engine to keep a stock of spare petroleum not exceeding 20 gallons. Ss. 14 to 22 deal with the testing of petroleum. Ss. 23 to 28 contain the necessary penal provisions. Under s. 23 the punishment for contravening the provisions of this Act is a fine of five hundred rupees for the first offence and a fine up to two thousand rupees for every subsequent offence.

31. The Iron and Steel Duties Act.—The protection offered to the steel industry in India by the Steel Industry (Protection) Act, 1927, as subsequently amended, expired on the 31st October 1934. In accordance with the provisions of that Act an enquiry as to the extent, if any, to which it was necessary to continue protection to the industry and as to the manner in which any protection found necessary should be conferred, was made by the Tariff Board. The present Act gives effect to the protective measures recommended by the Board. The recommendations of the Board involved a very considerable reduction in the level of import duties in certain important cases with a resultant reduction in the revenue derived

from duties of customs. § 4 of the Act therefore, imposes an excise duty of four rupees per ton on all steel ingots produced in British India and § 6 provides for a countervailing customs duty equivalent to the excise duty on steel ingots. This countervailing duty is additional to the protective duties recommended by the Board and alternative to the *ad valorem* revenue duties on articles in respect of which protection was not proposed. The new duties came into operation on November 1, 1931.

32. The Indian Tariff Act.—The present Act consolidates the existing provisions of law into one measure thereby enabling the whole or parts of some of its Acts to be repealed. The schedule of import tariffs exhibits is far as possible the actual rate of duty payable on each article under the tariff law for the time being, the only duties not included being those imposed by the salt (Additional Import Duty) Act 1931. The items subject to duty have been re-arranged upon a scientific plan enabling any particular item to be found without the use of an index and affording a suitable basis for future modification or supplementary legislation.

33. The Indian Army (Amendment) Act.—This Act, by amending the Indian Army Act, 1911, provides for the changes in the constitution of the Indian Army rendered necessary by the progress of Indianization of the Indian Forces of India. A new class of Indian Officer commencing from the Indian Military Academy is about to appear. These officers, designated "Indian Commissioned Officers," will possess with respect to the Indian Army all the powers and privileges of the British Officers whom they will gradually replace. The original Act is so amended that complete provision for the whole

Indian personnel of the Indian Army, including this new class of officers, is contained in the Indian Army Act. In the same way that provision for the Indian Air Force is contained in the Indian Air Force Act 1932. In order to distinguish this new class of officer from the officers designated "Indian Officers" in the original Act under § 1 of the present Act they are known as "Victoria Commission Officers."

34. The Indian Navy (Discipline) Act.—§ 66 of the Government of India Act empowers the Indian Legislature to apply the British Naval Discipline Act (29 & 30 V. c. 169) to the naval forces raised by the Governor General in Council. It further empowers the Indian Legislature in applying the British Naval Discipline Act to the forces and ships raised and provided by the Governor General in Council to make such modifications and adaptations in the Act as it may think fit in order to adapt the Act to the circumstances of India. The present Act contains the changes in the British Naval Discipline Act that appear necessary to carry out this object and render its provisions suitable to Indian conditions. The Act also provides for the discipline of the members of the Volunteer Reserve hitherto provided for by the Indian Marine (Amendment) Act, 1925 which is now repealed.

35. The Amending Act.—This Act is the outcome of the previous enactment which provides for the application of the British Naval Discipline Act to the Indian Army. It is essential that members of the Indian Army should have the same civil rights and liabilities as the personnel of His Majesty's Military and Air Forces. The present Act, therefore, makes formal amendments to certain existing laws to attain this object.

COPYRIGHT.

There is no provision of law in British India for the registration of Copyright. Protection for Copyright accrues under the Indian Copyright Act under which there is now no registration of rights, but the printer has to supply copies of these works as stated in that Act and in the Printing Presses and Books Act XXV of 1867. The Indian Copyright Act made such modifications in the Imperial Copyright Act of 1911 as appeared to be desirable for adapting its provisions to the circumstances of India. The Imperial Act of 1911 was brought into force in India by proclamation in the *Gazette of India* on October 30, 1912. Under § 27 of that Act there is limited power for the legislature of British possessions to modify or add to the provisions of the Act in its application to the possession, and it is under this power that the Indian Act of 1914 was passed. The portions of the Imperial Act applicable to British are scheduled to the Indian Act. The Act to which these provisions are scheduled makes some formal adaptations of them to Indian law and procedure, and some material

modifications of them in their applications translations and musical compositions. In the case of works first published in British India the sole right to produce, reproduce, perform or publish a translation is, subject to an important proviso, to subsist only for ten years from the first publication of the work. The provisions of the Act as to mechanical instruments for producing musical sounds were found unsuitable to Indian conditions. "The majority of Indian melodies," it was explained in Council, "have not been published, i.e., written in staff notation, except through the medium of the phonograph. It is impossible in many cases to identify the original composer or author, and the melodies are subject to great variety of notation and time. To meet these conditions § 5 of the Indian Act follows the English Musical Copyright Act of 1902 by defining musical work as meaning any combination of melody and harmony, or either of them, printed, reduced to writing, or otherwise graphically produced or reproduced."

India and the League of Nations.

India is a Founder-Member of the League of Nations and enjoys in it equal rights with other Member-States, a position which she mainly owes to the goodwill shown towards her advancement and aspirations by Great Britain and the Self-Governing Dominions of the British Empire. The League of Nations was established under the terms of the Peace Treaty which was signed in Paris in 1919 after the conclusion of the Great War. Great Britain and the Self-Governing Dominions in 1917 passed a resolution which set India upon the road that led to the high international platform on which she stepped.

India was represented at the Imperial War Conference of 1918, at the Imperial Conferences held in London in 1921, 1923, and 1926, and at the Imperial Economic Conference held in London in 1930. The report of the Inter-Imperial Relations Committee of the Imperial Conference, which was adopted by the Conference of 1926, stated the position of Great Britain and the Dominions to be "autonomous communities, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any respect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. India is not yet a Self-Governing Dominion to the extent indicated in this formula. The first stage in the direction of establishing Responsible Government in India was prescribed by the Government of India Act, 1919, but the Governor-General of India does not yet (to quote again from the Inter-Imperial Relations Committee) hold "in all essential respects the same position in relation to the administration of public affairs" in India as is held by His Majesty the King Emperor in Great Britain. And there are certain other respects in which India's Constitutional position in the Empire is not the same as that of the Self-Governing Dominions. India, for example, is not entitled to accredit a Minister Plenipotentiary to the Heads of Foreign States.

The position enjoyed by India in the Empire governed the position which she entered when, as one of the States of the Empire, she joined in the Paris Peace Negotiations in 1918-19. India's membership of the League of Nations places her in a unique position among all non-self-governing States, Dominions, or Colonies throughout the world. She is an original member of the League by virtue of para 1 of article I of the Covenant by which the League was established and which states that any fully self-governing State, Dominion or Colony not named in the Annex may become a member of the League. She is the only original member which is not self-governing, and in virtue of the restriction under para 11 of article I, on the admission of members other than original members she will, so long as the present constitution of the League endures, remain the only member which is not self-governing. As a member of the League, India was for the first time brought into direct and formal contact with the outside world as a separate entity.

She was treated as if she had attained to the same kind of separate nationhood as that enjoyed by the Dominions.

India's Attitude.

On questions coming before the League, India has exactly the same rights as any other Member-State. The Secretary of State for India in His Majesty's Government is ultimately responsible for the appointment of Indian delegates and for their instruction, but in practice, he and the Government of India act jointly in consultation and agreement with one another. Partly as a result of her membership of the League and partly owing to resolution No IX adopted by the Imperial War Conference in 1917, recommending *inter alia* recognition of the right of the Dominions and of India to an adequate voice in British foreign policy and foreign relations, India has been given the same representation as the Dominions at all international conferences at which the British Empire is represented by a combined Empire Delegation. On many occasions in fact she has taken the lead in forming world opinion towards the achievement of the League's aims. In particular in the international Labour organisation she has been successful in bringing Empire policy into line with her own on more than one occasion. In many of those conferences, particularly those of the League, Indian delegations have taken an independent line of action, sometimes directly opposed to the attitude of other parts of the British Commonwealth. One interesting case occurred in 1920 at the Genoa Maritime Conference when Indian delegates in the face of opposition from the Empire managed to secure a mandate for special treatment for Indian sailors in British shipping although there was a concerted move from the Empire delegation to get Indian lascars driven off British ships.

India's New Status

It will be observed that the situation created by India's stepping from the Imperial Conference into the Paris Peace Conference and League of Nations in the manner in which she did was in certain respects highly anomalous and one impossible to harmonize with her constitutional position as defined in the Government of India Act. Nevertheless, as the Secretary of State, in a Memorandum presented to the Indian Statutory Commission by the India Office in 1929, showed, "It has been the deliberate object of the Secretary of State to make India's new status a reality for practical purposes within widest possible limits." It was not legally possible for the Secretary of State to relinquish his constitutional power of control, nor, consistently with responsibility to Parliament, could he delegate it. "But it has been his constant endeavour to restrict its exercise to a minimum, to keep even its existence as far as possible in the background, and to allow to the Indian Government the greatest possible freedom of action under the influence of their Legislature and of public opinion."

Labour in India.

Growth of the Labour Problem.—India has not always been a pre-eminent and predominantly agricultural country and over 70 per cent of her people are dependent on the soil for their livelihood. Except in a comparatively few cases there is no settled and permanent labour force in most industrial centres in India. The vast majority of industries draw the labour they require from the village—labour which seldom breaks its contact with village life and periodically returns to renew its associations with it. This fact cannot be too strongly emphasised. If it is lost sight of it would be most difficult to understand how large bodies of comparatively low paid men and women can afford to participate in strikes involving complete stoppage of work and loss in wages for periods of half a year. Such strikes would be impossible if Indian industrial labour did not have agriculture to fall back upon as a subsidiary occupation during periods of prolonged industrial disputes. The figures for the 1931 Census show that the number of persons gainfully occupied in the whole of India amounts to 154 millions or 43.8 per cent of the total population. Of this number 68 per cent are men and 32 per cent women. The proportion of the working population, i.e., earners and working dependants, engaged in agriculture is over 102 millions or 66.4 per cent.

The emergence of Indian industrial labour as such may be considered to be associated with the year 1880. Its growth and development since that date may be divided, for purposes of broad generalisation, into four periods, (1) from 1880 to 1915, (2) from 1916 to 1921, (3) from 1922 to 1927, and (4) from 1928 to the present day. The first period marks the growth of factory development with a slow but steady decline in cottage industries. The total number of cotton mills in India rose from 58 to 275 and the number of persons employed from 40,000 to 260,000. The total number of jute mills rose from 22 to 65 and the number of persons employed from 27,000 to 216,000. There was a vast expansion in railways and many new industries were established. Labour was immobile, earnings in agricultural pursuits were extremely low, commodities were comparatively cheap, and industrialists were able to get all the labour they wanted by tapping the adjacent villages at any rates of wages they liked to offer so long as they were higher than those which could be earned by work in the fields. Both the men and the women employed were considered to be a part of the plant of the factory, child labour was exploited, and little thought was given to the human element behind the machine. Hours of work were excessive. No amenities were provided because the only thing that the worker was expected to do was to work, eat and sleep. The provision of housing was a necessary evil which had to be provided where factories were situated away from towns. The Factories Act was modelled more on the lines of providing against loss of life due to accident rather than from the grinding work which a

factory worker was expected to do. The humanitarian employer was considered to be a pest who would ruin industry and all that industrialists thought of was the greatest return which could be obtained from the capital invested.

The second period emerged soon after the outbreak of the great war. Large contingents of Indian troops were sent overseas, and had to be supplied with adequate clothing and the munitions of war. Imports of manufactured articles into India were restricted owing to the bulk of the available British tonnage in ships having been commandeered for transport of men and materials to the various seats of war. Heavy demands were made by the belligerent countries for raw products. India secured the opportunity for which she had been looking for generations. Her credit expanded, her industries thrived and the returns on capital invested in every branch of trade and industry became phenomenal. Prices soared. Owing to the influx of large bodies of persons into the towns, housing became hopelessly inadequate and rents rose to such an extent as to call for legislative restrictions. But nobody thought of those who were mainly responsible for the creation of the added wealth of India. Labour was still considered to be that inarticulate part of the plant of the factory which it had always been. The end of the War brought visions of an Utopia. Big commercial and industrial enterprises were floated. Agriculturists were securing high prices for their produce. Labour was in great demand not only in agriculture but also in commerce and industry. The successes which labour met with during the war in demands for increases in rates of wages impelled them to demand further increases with each increase in the cost of living. Where demands were not granted strikes were threatened. The influenza epidemic of 1918 which swept away large masses of the population of the country created a big gap in the available supply of labour, and almost all the strikes of the period for increases in wages were successful owing partly to the necessity for speeding up production and partly to the shortage in the available supply of labour.

The gradual demobilisation of the Armies of the War and the closing up of the various Munitions Works disbanded tens of thousands of men and women who rapidly spent the savings secured during the War. The pre-war industries in the belligerent countries could not be reorganised at once. The spectre of unemployment loomed large. Credit fell. With the fall in credit the demand for manufactured articles declined and prices began to show a marked downward tendency. The year 1922 may be considered as the beginning of this period of reaction and depression and the beginning of the third period in the history of Indian industrial labour. Labour all over the world demanded an improvement in the conditions of life and work. The creation of an International Organisation to deal with all questions connected with labour from an

International point of view and the commitment of India, as one of the signatories to the Treaty of Versailles, to the ratification and acceptance, as far as possible, of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference have made it obligatory for her to fall into line with the other industrial countries of the world in ameliorating labour conditions. The beginning of this period, therefore, saw a radical revision of the existing Factory Law by an Amending Act passed early in 1922. The existing Indian Mines Act was replaced by another Act of 1923 during which year a Workmen's Compensation Act was also passed for the first time. A Trade Union Act was passed in 1926.

The depression in trade and industry which set in in 1922 continued, interspersed with a few short spells of transitory revivals, almost right down to the middle of the year 1934 since when there are apparent the beginnings of a definite return to prosperity. Various attempts were made by all classes of industrialists to reduce the wages of labour in order to reduce costs of production. Concerted action taken by the Ahmedabad Mill-owners' Association to reduce the wages of operatives in the Ahmedabad cotton mills by 20 per cent with effect from the 1st April 1923 was successful to the extent of an eventual cut of 15.625 per cent being agreed to after a general strike lasting more than two months. A similar attempt made by the Bombay Mill-owners' Association in 1925 to reduce wages by 11½ per cent was, however, frustrated by a strike lasting for nearly three months which was eventually settled in favour of the workers by a maintenance of the existing rates on the removal of the Excise Duty of 3½ per cent on cotton manufactures in India by a Special Ordinance issued by the Governor-General in Council. Similar attempts made in individual concerns in the Districts succeeded mainly for want of effective combination among the workers. No other organised attempts were made to effect reductions in wages. There were several reasons for this. The most important of these was that after the period of the decline in prices had set in after 1920, real wages, in comparison with the standard of life of the year 1914, began to improve and labour was determined not to let go the advantage gained in the struggles immediately following the end of the War. This period was one in which a considerable number of Acts in connection with labour were placed on the Statute Book. In addition to these, the Government of India had asked Provincial Governments to consider proposals for legislating with regard to prompt payment of wages. The enquiries held in 1926-27 into the question of deductions from Wages or Payments in respect of fines indicated legislation on the lines of the Truck Acts. It was becoming obvious to the Industrial Employer that Government were most anxious to do all they could to improve labour conditions in India. The employers, as a whole, therefore, did not desire to precipitate matters by insisting on reduction in wages. It was imperative, however, that something should be done, and done quickly to reduce costs of production. The only way to do this without reducing wages was, in the view of the employers, to ask the

worker to do more work during the existing hours of employment so as to enable the employer to dispense with a number of workers and thus to reduce his Wages Bill.

The fourth period beginning with the year 1928, therefore, saw the advent of Rationalisation or more efficient methods of working. Employers, particularly those in Cotton Mills in Bombay city, proposed to ask workers to mind more machines in return for a compensatory increase in wages. Some advanced firms controlling cotton mill agencies actually introduced various efficiency measures in their mills. The introduction of these measures necessitated reductions in the numbers employed. The beginning of this period coincided with the entry of the Communists into the Trade Union movement in India.

When the so-called Labour Group of the Indian National Congress failed to obtain acceptance of their ideas by the Congress, they formed in January 1927 a Workers and Peasants Party, one of whose objects was "to promote the organisation of trade unions and to wrest them from their alien control." Communist emissaries were sent out to India by the Third International to further war against Imperialism, to secure destruction of capital and to sow the seed of revolution. The Workers and Peasants Party started a paper called the "Kranti" (Revolution) in May 1927 which, however, had to cease publication at the end of the year owing to financial difficulties. The members of the Party took an active part in the strike of the operatives in the cotton mills in the Sassoon group early in 1928, but their attempts to bring about a general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay failed owing to the opposition of the Bombay Textile Labour Union which had been formed by Mr N. M. Joshi in January, 1926. When another great group of mills in Bombay under the agency of Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim and Sons sought to introduce efficient methods of work, the Communists saw their opportunity. All the operatives of the Currimbhoy group were brought out on the 16th April 1928, and the Communists, with the help of the turbulent elements in the industry brought about a complete stoppage of work by picketing, intimidation and stone throwing in all other mills in Bombay (except two mills at Colaba) by the 26th April. Owing to internal dissensions in another Union of cotton mill workers called the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal, they secured the support of Mr A. A. Alwa, its President, and formed a new Union called the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union on the executive of which several prominent Communists were appointed. The Communists revived the publication of their paper the "Kranti" and they were successful, by holding almost daily meetings at which revolutionary speeches were delivered and by the publication of hand-bills, in capturing the imagination of the workers and keeping the strike going for a period of nearly six months. They also took an active part in the prolonged strikes of the same year in the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur and in the workshops of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway at Kharagpur. They actively associated themselves with the strike on the South Indian Railway and they secured an entry into several Unions connected with Municipal

ities, Port Trusts and other Public Utility Services. After the calling off of the General Strike in the Bombay Mills on the 6th October, 1928, they endeavoured to paralyse the cotton mill industry in Bombay by calling several lightning strikes in individual mills on the flimsiest of pretexts, even though the terms of the settlement of that strike required that all disputes between the employers and employed on the interpretation of the terms of agreement should be referred to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee which had been appointed by the Government of Bombay to express opinions on the matters in contention.

Bombay has seen few riots and disturbances of the type which broke out in the City on the 3rd February 1929 and which resulted in the death of 149 persons and the destruction of property. The Riots Enquiry Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay found that the origin of the riots was the series of inflammatory speeches delivered by certain leaders of the Girm Kamgar Union during the General Mill Strike of 1928 and again during the Bombay Oil Strike which lasted from the 7th December 1928 till after the date of the riots.

In 1929 the Girm Kamgar Union succeeded in calling another General Strike in the Bombay Mills on questions connected with dismissals which they interpreted as a direct attack by the Millowners to undermine the Union. The strike, although not so complete in character as the strike of 1928, nevertheless lasted from 26th April to 18th September, 1929, and was called off only when the Court of Enquiry appointed by the Government of Bombay under the Trade Disputes Act had reported in unequivocal terms that the whole blame for this strike lay with the Bombay Girm Kamgar Union. But the Communist group was able to capture the Indian Trade Union Congress at the 11th Session held in Nagpur and to force the moderate elements, consisting of Messrs Diwan Chaman Lal, N. M. Joshi, B. Shiva Rao, V. V. Giri, R. R. Bakhale, etc., to secede from the Congress on that body passing resolutions boycotting the Royal Commission on Labour in India and the International Labour Conference, by appointing the Workmen's Welfare League, a Communist organisation in England, as their Agents for Great Britain, for the declaration of Independence and the establishment of a Socialist Republican Government of the Working Classes in India.

It is of importance to lay stress on the problems connected with the Communist menace in India. The object of the Communists is not so much the welfare of labour as the spread of revolution. Their ultimate aim is the destruction of capital and the replacement of the established Government by a dictatorship of the proletariat. The manner in which they can achieve this is by penetrating trade unions, by calling strikes in industries, by unduly prolonging them, by putting up strings of preposterous and absurd demands, by refusing conciliation or arbitration, and by sending masses of workers seething with discontent into the districts to preach their gospels of class

hatred and class war to the ignorant masses in the villages of India. Fortunately for Industry thirty of the more prominent and avowed Communists all over India were arrested in March 1929 under Section 121-A of the Indian Penal Code for organised conspiracy, under the direction of the Communist International and other Associated bodies, to deprive the King of the Sovereignty of British India. The trial of these 30 persons in what is now historically known as the famous Meerut Conspiracy case lasted from 1929 to 1932 when some of the prisoners were released on bail pending final judgment. Judgment in the case was delivered at Meerut by Mr Yorke, the Sessions Judge, on the 16th January 1933. One of the thirty accused died in prison, three were acquitted and the remaining 26 were sentenced to terms of imprisonment varying from transportation for life to three years. All the convicted persons appealed and substantial reductions were made by the Allahabad High Court in the sentences passed by the Sessions Judge of Meerut reduced to three years' imprisonment. The convictions of three persons were maintained to the extent that their sentences were reduced to the terms of imprisonment already undergone by them and they were ordered to be released from jail. The convictions of nine persons were set aside and they were ordered to be released forthwith. Some of the prisoners who were released have made frantic efforts to regain their hold on Labour Unions. The good sense of the workers has prevailed in most cases, but the Communists have again succeeded in getting into some of the more important Unions—notably the Railway Unions, and they are again endeavouring to capture the workers in the Textile Industry in Bombay. In the absence of strong leadership there are, however, several factions in their camps and different groups are working in the same industry.

The depression in trade which set in about ten years ago reached its zenith during the year 1933. The industry most affected was the Textile. Several cotton mills in Bombay were closed down—some of them permanently and their machinery was scrapped. The failure of Messrs Currimbhoy Ebrahim & Sons who controlled ten Mills, aggravated the position and tens of thousands of workers were thrown out of employment as a consequence of the closure of the Mills under this agency. In many other cases, the alternative to closure was reduction in the wages in the operatives and over fifty cotton mills of Bombay City reduced their dear food allowances of 80 per cent for male piece workers and 70 per cent for men time workers and all women by an average of about 25 per cent. One or two mills attempted working more machines to an individual with shorter hours of work, and, where workers refused, gave them the alternative of pre-war rates of wages for pre-war standards of work or more machines with higher pay. Strikes of comparatively short duration occurred in a few individual mills as a protest against these cuts in wages, but the absence of trade union organisation in the industry coupled with a fear of unemployment sent the workers back to work within a few days of their going out on strike.

The beginning of the year 1934, however, was darkened by threatening clouds presaging stiff fights between Capital and Labour in connexion with actual and threatened wage cuts. A Labour Committee was formed on an all-India basis to call a general strike in all Cotton Mills in India. This Committee, however, did not meet with much success except in Bombay and in Sholapur. In Sholapur all textile Mills were closed on account of this strike for over three months. In Bombay City more than half the Mills were affected for over two months. The Government of Bombay, as a result of the considerable amount of agitation carried on by Labour leaders for a full enquiry by an impartial tribunal decided that the Commissioner of Labour should hold a Departmental Enquiry into the whole question of wage cuts in textile Mills in the Bombay Presidency, and the institution of this enquiry was announced in the Bombay Legislative Council by the Hon'ble Sir Ghulam Hussain Hidayatullah, Leader of the

House, on the 26th February 1934. The Report of the Departmental enquiry was published on the 21st June of the same year and the strike in the Bombay Mills was called off practically simultaneously. This Report will be dealt with in some detail in several subsequent sections of this note.

The outstanding events of the year 1934 in the field of Labour were (1) the passing by the Government of India of the New Factories Act, (2) the first Asian Labour Conference held at Colombo, Ceylon on May 10th, 1934, attended by Labour representatives from India, Japan and Ceylon, (3) the publication of the Report of the Bombay Departmental enquiry into wage cuts, and (4) the passing by the Government of Bombay of the Trade Disputes Conciliation Act providing for the appointment of a Labour Officer to look after the interests of textile Mill workers and for conciliation in disputes by the Commissioners of Labour.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON INDIAN LABOUR.

The British Government, in consultation with the Government of India, appointed on 21st May, 1920, a Royal Commission "to enquire into and report on existing conditions of labour in industrial undertakings and plantations in British India, on health, efficiency and standard of living of workers and on relations between employers and employed, and to make recommendations." The Royal Commission consisted of the late Right Honourable Mr J H Whitley as Chairman with the Rt Hon Mr Srinivasa Sastry, P.C., Sir Alexander Murray, Kt., C.B.E., Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola, Kt., K.C.S.I., C.B.E., Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., Dewan Chaman Lal, M.L.A., Mrs Beryl M Le Power Power, Deputy Chief Inspector, Trade Boards, England, and Messrs N M Joshi, M.L.A., A G Clow, C.I.E., C.B.E., G D Birla, M.L.A., Kabeer-ud-din Ahmed, M.L.A., and John Cliff, Assistant General Secretary, Transport and Railway Workers Union, England, as members, and with Messrs S Lall, C.B.E., and A Dhillon from the India Office, London, as Joint Secretaries. Mr J H Green, M.L.A., was Assistant Secretary. Lt.-Col A J H Russell, C.B.E., I.M.S., was subsequently appointed as a Medical Assessor and Mr S K Deshpande, B.Litt (Oxon), Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Government of Bombay, was appointed as a Statistician to the Commission. The Commission arrived in India on the 11th October 1920 and after visiting several places in India and examining several representatives of the Central and Provincial Governments, the Railways and Associations of Employers and Employed left for England on the 22nd March 1930. The Commission returned on the 11th October 1930 and after touring Ceylon and Burma went to Delhi in November.

The Report of the Commission was published in June 1931 and is a document of first rate importance which will be the text-book of social legislation and labour welfare in India for many years to come. Moreover, the value of its recommendations is enhanced by the fact that they are practically unanimous and represent the considered opinion of employers, workers

legislators and officials, all of whom were represented on the Commission. Every aspect of the labour problem in India has been considered and discussed and the recommendations number many hundreds and cover a very wide field.

A summary containing the principal recommendations of the Royal Commission, classified according to the subjects with which they deal, was given at pages 474 to 484 of the 1932 edition of this publication. The Government of India, in the Department of Industries and Labour, classified these recommendations under six different groups according as they involved or required (1) Central legislation, (2) Administrative action by the Government of India, (3) Provincial legislation; (4) Administrative action by Local Governments, and Administrations, (5) Action by public bodies, e.g., Municipalities, Universities, etc., and (6) Action by employees and their organisations or by Workers' Unions, and the recommendations so grouped were forwarded by the Government of India to all Local Governments and Administrations under cover of a circular letter, dated the 30th September 1931, with a request that Provincial Governments should give careful consideration and examination to those recommendations in connexion with which they were required to initiate provincial legislation or to take administrative action and to bring such recommendations as fell within the last two groups to the attention of public bodies and organisations of the employers and the employed concerned. The Government of India published about the end of the year 1932, a first Report showing the action taken by the Provincial Governments up to the 15th July 1932, and by the Central Government up to the 30th September 1932 on the recommendations made by the Commission. A second Report showing the action taken by Provincial Governments up to the end of July 1933 and by the Central Government up to the end of October 1933 was published in February 1934. Owing mainly to financial stringency, Provincial Governments have so far attempted little local legislation implementing the Commission's recommendations.

but the Government of India have not only passed nine Acts—(1) Act II of 1932 repealing the Employers and Disputes Act, 1860, (2) the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932 which replaces the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, as amended by the Amending Acts of 1908, 1915 and 1927, and which came into force on the 1st April 1933, (3) the Trade Disputes Amendment Act 1932 (4) the Children (Prohibiting of Labour) Act, 1933 (5) the Land Acquisition (Amendment) Act, 1933, (6) the Workmen's Compensation (Amendment) Act 1933 (7) The Factories Act, 1934 consolidating and amending the law regulating labour in factories, (8) the Trade Disputes Amendment Act, 1934, and (9) the Indian Dock-Labourers Act 1934, giving effect in British India to the Convention adopted at Geneva in 1932 concerning the protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading of Ships but they have also drawn up two other Bills for (1) securing prompter payments of wages and for controlling deductions from wages in respect of fines, and (2) amending the Indian Mines Act 1923, for certain purposes, especially for reducing the statutory limits of hours of work in Mines. The Government of India have also submitted proposals to Local Governments and Administrations for initiating new legislation in connexion with the following matters—

- (1) Employees' Liability (Re "Common Employment" and "Assumed Risk"),
- (2) Extension of Workmen's Compensation to Agriculture and Forestry,
- (3) Making illegal the Besetting of an Industrial Establishment for the recovery of debts,
- (4) Fixation of Hours of Work for Dock Labourers
- (5) Allotment of Sermens' Wages,
- (6) Exemption of Salaries and Wages from Attachment
- (7) Shortening wage periods, and
- (8) Arrest and Imprisonment for Debt

The Royal Commission made several recommendations for the control of those factories which do not use power and which are at present not regulated. The Government of India are at present engaged in formulating proposals for a new and a separate Act for the regulation of such factories. Other matters are to be shortly taken up. For a more detailed knowledge of the action taken administratively by the Provincial Governments, Public Bodies and Employers' and Workers' Organisations, the reader is referred to the two reports referred to above published by the Government of India as it is obviously impossible to give a recital of such matters in a compact book of reference such as the *Indian Year Book*. But, as it might be of considerable interest to the users of the *Year Book* to have a summary of the legislative proposals already put through or at present under consideration readily available, we propose to substitute in place of the summary referred to above, summaries of the more important changes already effected or proposed to be made in the near future. Other important recommendations made by the Royal Commission have

also been included in the various chapters into which this note is divided. The changes effected in connexion with the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923. The Indian factories Act, 1911, as amended by the Amending Acts of 1922, 1923, 1926 and 1931 and the changes proposed in connexion with other existing labour legislation and Recruitment for Assam will be dealt with under the various headings into which this chapter is divided. Summaries of the proposals for new or other legislation already enacted are given below—

New and Proposed Labour Legislation.

Proposal to make Besetting an Industrial Establishment for the purpose of collecting debts a criminal and cognisable offence—One of the several recommendations of the Royal Commission is that the besetting of an industrial establishment for the purpose of collecting debts should be made a criminal and cognisable offence. In this connexion the Government of India invited the views of all Local Governments and Administrations in the Department of Industries and Labour. Circular letter, dated the 27th August, 1932. The Government of India pointed out that the proposal aims at preventing two practices associated with the recovery of debts from industrial workers. One of these is the system whereby money-lenders are permitted by some employers to enter the factory and to collect their dues before the workman receives his pay. The other practice is for the money-lender to wait outside the factory gate and to secure payment before the workman can part with any portion of his wages. The objection to both these practices is that they tend to make the payment of interest and the repayment of debts the first charge on wages. When the dues are collected within the factory the workman has, as a rule, no means of resisting the deduction, and when the dues are collected at the gate an element of intimidation not infrequently enters into the transaction. The Government of India recognise that the Commission's proposal does not go far enough as it relates only to action in or near an industrial establishment, but it appears to them to offer the possibility of stamping out the practice of recovering private debts at the pay desk and of checking at least the power of the money-lender to make his demands a first charge on industrial wages. As such the Government of India were disposed provisionally to support the proposal. Replies from the Local Governments were asked to be submitted by the 1st January 1933. After a careful consideration of the views of the local Governments and the interested public the Government of India have come to the conclusion that central legislation on the subject is not called for. The Government of India, however suggested to the Government of Bengal, where both official and non-official opinion is strongly in favour of the proposed measure, to undertake provincial legislation on the lines recommended by the Commission restricted to a typical industrial area in the first instance. The Government of Bengal, accordingly, introduced a Bill in the Bengal Legislative Council in December 1934 with a few to giving to this recommendation. The Principal Section of the Bill provides that "whoever loiters at or near

any Mine; dock, wharf or jetty; railway station or yard, or premises whereon any manufacturing process is carried on, in such manner or in such circumstances as to afford just grounds for suspicion that he is so loitering with a view to recover any debt from any workman employed in such Mine, etc., shall be punished with imprisonment which may extend to six months or with fine or both. Proposals to undertake similar legislation in other Provinces are under the consideration of some other local Governments.

The Prohibition of the Pledging of the Labour of Children—The Royal Commission found evidence in such widely separated areas as Amritsar, Ahmedabad and Madras of the practice of pledging child labour, that is, the taking of advances by parents or guardians on agreements, written or oral, pledging the labour of their children. In some cases the children so pledged were subjected to particularly unsatisfactory working conditions. The Commission considered that the State would be justified in adopting strong measures to eradicate the evil. The Government of India accepted this recommendation and introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly in 1932, proposing to impose penalties on parties to agreements pledging the labour of children and on persons knowingly employing children whose labour has been pledged. The Select Committee on the bill introduced an important modification by providing that "an agreement to pledge the labour of a child" which is made without detriment to a child and not made in consideration of any benefit other than reasonable wages to be paid for the child's services, and terminable at not more than a week's notice will not be an agreement within the meaning of the definition of such an agreement. The Bill was passed by the Central Legislature in February 1933, under the title of "Children (Pledging of Labour) Act." Sections 2 and 3 of the Act were to be brought into operation at once and the whole of the Act with effect from 1st July 1933.

Employers' Liability. (Re: "Common Employment" and "Assumed Risk")—At page 315 of their Report, the Commission recommend that a measure should be enacted abrogating for all workmen the defences of "common employment" and "assumed risk" in civil suits for damages arising out of employment. Persons injured by accident may have a remedy by a suit for damages against their employers in the civil court, and it has been suggested that the law there applicable is inequitable because two defences may be evolved by the employer to defeat claims which he should justly be called upon to meet. One is the defence of "common employment" by which an employer can plead that an accident was due to the default of a fellow-workman and the other is the defence of "assumed risk" by which an employer is not liable for injury caused to workmen through the ordinary risks of employment, and a workman is presumed to have assumed risks which were apparent when he entered upon his occupation. When the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act was first introduced, it had, in addition to the provisions for workmen's compensation,

clauses designed to abrogate these defences in certain cases, but the Joint Select Committee of the Legislature deleted the clauses in question apparently because they were not satisfied that the doctrines, which were derived from the British Common Law, would be accepted by Indian courts. They observed at the same time that if the doctrines in question were so accepted and were regarded as inequitable, they should be removed for all workmen and not for the limited classes to which the Workmen's Compensation Bill was to apply. There is little evidence to show that the existing position gives rise to hardship, but it is possible that suits are not pursued because of the admitted ambiguity of the law, and the Royal Commission were of opinion that, as the defences in question are inequitable, there is need for ensuring that they cannot be invoked. The majority recommended that a measure for this purpose should be enacted and that it might follow the lines of the clauses deleted in 1923, but should, of course, be applicable to all workmen.

The Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour issued a circular letter, dated the 3rd February 1932, addressed to all Local Governments of Governors' Provinces and the Chief Commissioners of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara on the subject. The Government of India pointed out that the two main objections taken by the majority of the Select Committee to the proposal were (1) that it was uncertain that the Courts would accept the defences which the doctrines were designed to remove, and (2) that if the defences were inequitable they should be removed for all workmen and not only for specified classes. The latter objection, in their opinion, is met by the Commission's proposal. As regards the former, they state that the cases of the kind to which the proposed law would be applicable are naturally rare, but that in the only reported case which they have been able to trace (9 A L J 173) the doctrine of common employment was unhesitatingly applied. The Government of India incline to the opinion that the defences in question are inequitable and they are therefore not disposed to attach much weight to the fact that they are seldom likely to be invoked or to any remaining doubt that there may be as to the readiness of the Courts to apply them. The clarification of the law would in itself be, in their view, an advantage and they were disposed to favour legislation on the lines proposed by the Commission. The Government of India however requested that Local Governments should consider the possibility of limiting the scope of the law so as to exclude all workmen covered by the Workmen's Compensation Act, or, alternatively, to include only such of these workmen who are in receipt of more than Rs 300 per month. The whole question was re-examined by the Government of India in light of the replies received from local Governments and they have decided to defer legislation on the subject for the present.

Amendment of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894—A Bill further to amend the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, for certain purposes was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 12th September 1932. It was decided during

the debate that the Bill should be circulated for purpose of eliciting opinion thereon. The Government of India, accordingly, circulated a Bill for opinion to all Local Governments and Administrations under cover of Legislative Department letter, dated the 20th September 1932. It was based on the proposal of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour that the Land Acquisition Act be so amended as to enable land to be acquired when it is intended for the housing of labour either by companies or by other employers. The Royal Commission stated that in a number of instances brought to their notice land suitable for the development of housing schemes had been held at ransom by the owners, and that fantastic values were placed upon it as the result of the construction of factories and other industrial concerns in the neighbourhood. The provision of adequate housing for workmen is one of the urgent needs of industry and this Bill sought to give effect to that recommendation. The Bill was passed by the Indian Legislature in September 1933 under the title of the "Land Acquisition (Amendment) Act 1933."

Hours of Work of Dock Labourers.—There is at present no legal restriction on the hours of work of dock labour in India, and the Royal Commission who examined this question recommended that the normal daily hours prescribed by law should be fixed at nine and that overtime should be allowed up to a maximum of three additional hours on any one day, overtime being paid for at 33½ percent over ordinary rates. The Government of India have not been able to arrive at any definite conclusions regarding the practicability of controlling the hours of work in the present conditions of dock labour in India and feel a difficulty as to the form which the necessary legislation should take if the recommendations are finally accepted. They therefore addressed a circular letter in November 1932 to Local Governments who control Ports, major or minor, asking them to examine the question and to furnish the Government of India with their views. The Government of India have pointed out in their circular letter that if the necessary legislation takes the form of an amendment or an amplification of the Indian Ports Act, 1908, it would be straining the scope of the Act thereby, and that if it be framed as a separate Act there would be difficulties in the use of the term "employer" and in framing penal sections. They are disposed to the view that the most suitable method of giving statutory effect to the recommendations would be to amend the Indian Factories Act on the analogy of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, of the United Kingdom, expanding the scope of the term "factory" so as to include docks, wharfs, quays, etc.

The circular letter of the Government of India also raises the question of minimum age for the employment of children in ports. As a result of the consideration given to the Washington Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment, the Indian Legislature passed an Act in 1922 making it obligatory on Local Governments to frame rules under the Indian Ports Act of 1908 prohibiting the employment of children

under the age of 12 years "upon the handling of goods at piers, jetties, landing places wharves quays docks, warehouses and sheds." This enactment did not prevent children below the prescribed age being employed on the waterside of the ship as it was not clear whether the Act prohibited such employment or not. The matter was put beyond doubt by a subsequent amending Act which covered all employment in handling of goods "in any port subject to this Act." The Royal Commission considered that work of this kind is not suitable for children and a system of half time working is not practicable. They therefore recommended that the minimum age should be raised to 14 years. The Government of India are provisionally in agreement with this recommendation and also with another which suggests that the enforcement of these provisions should be entrusted to the factory inspection staff. Local Governments with major or minor Ports were asked to submit opinions after consulting the interests concerned. The majority of bodies consulted were not in favour of legislation regarding hours of work for dock labourers but favoured the raising of the minimum age of children employed within the limits of Ports. The whole matter is still under consideration of the Government of India in the Department of Commerce.

Exemption of Salaries and Wages from Attachment.—The Royal Commission have made several recommendations in connexion with the indebtedness of industrial workers and have suggested various methods not only for reducing such indebtedness but also to protect the workers from unnecessary harassment in the matter of the repayment of their debts. Their first recommendation in this connexion refers to the recovery of debts through employers. The Commission state that under the Civil Procedure Code it is possible for a money-lender to secure the attachment of the wages of any one who is not a labourer or a domestic servant and they understand that the majority of workers in industry would not be regarded as labourers within the meaning of the Act. But in respect of certain classes of employers, particularly railway servants and the servants of local authorities, the law allows the money-lender to sue the employer as his debt collector to a much larger extent. In such cases it is possible to attach half of the employee's salary or the amount by which that salary exceeds twenty rupees a month whichever is less. In some cases private employers are required to make similar recoveries although the legality of this is doubtful. Thus in the case of an employee in receipt of a regular salary, the money-lender can secure an order directing the railway administration to hand over, month by month, a large part of the employee's salary until the whole decree has been covered—a period which extends in some cases to years rather than months. The comparative security of railway service further increases the attraction of the railway servant for the money-lender, and all the evidence received by the Commission goes to show that the level of indebtedness in terms of wages is higher among railway servants than among industrial employees as a whole. The Commission, therefore, recommended that the

salary and wages of every workman receiving less than Rs 300 a month or exempted entirely from the possibility of attachment. If on examination there are found to be objections to applying this exemption to every one employed on a salary less than Rs 300 at once the Commission consider that the definition of "workman" in the Workmen's Compensation Act might be suitable.

The Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour issued a circular letter dated 15th November 1932 to all Local Governments and Administrations inviting an expression of views on the subject. The Government of India are of opinion that the Commission were disposed to favour the grant of such exemption to all persons receiving less than Rs 300 a month and they therefore consider that it is desirable to review the question generally and not solely with regard to industrial employees. Replies to their letter were asked to be submitted by the 1st April 1933. The opinions received have been examined and the question of undertaking legislation is under consideration.

Arrest and Imprisonment for Debt.—On page 212 of their Report, the Royal Commission recommend that at least so far as industrial workers in receipt of wages or pay amounting to less than Rs 100 per month are concerned arrest and imprisonment should be abolished except where the debtor has been proved to be both able and unwilling to pay. The terms of the recommendation suggests that the Commission would have favoured a more general abolition for arrest and imprisonment for debt had their terms of reference been wider.

The present law on the subject is contained in Sections 51 and 55 to 59 of the Civil Procedure Code read with rules 37 to 40 in Order XXI. Under the substantive provisions of the Code a judgment-debtor other than a woman may be arrested and detained in prison in execution of a decree. But under rule 37 Order XXI, a court may, in lieu of issuing a warrant of arrest, issue a notice calling upon the judgment-debtor to show cause why he should not be detained. Under rule 40 the Court may disallow his arrest and detention. There is thus no obligation on the Court at any stage to order either the arrest or the imprisonment of a debtor who is genuinely unable to pay; but when a judgment-debtor is brought to court the burden of proving that he is unable to pay rests on him.

The important question for consideration is whether imprisonment for debt (here there is no contumacy) should be abolished generally. This question has been considered on various occasions in the past notably in the years 1851-53. Opinion on the subject was deeply divided but the Government of India reached the conclusion that imprisonment for debt where no fraud is proved should disappear from the Indian Statute-book as soon as the conditions of the country permitted it. This conclusion led to the passing of the Debtors Act 1928 by virtue of which imprisonment for debt was abolished in the case of simple debtors and in

the case of other debtors the courts were granted a discretion which they did not previously enjoy to refuse to issue a warrant of arrest at the pleasure of a decree-holder and also to order the release of debtors who were genuinely unable to pay. No appreciable advance had been made since 1853 for the elimination of imprisonment of debt.

Following the recommendations of the Royal Commission the Government of India have given careful consideration to the various questions involved and they issued a comprehensive circular letter on the subject to various local governments for their opinions. Replies were asked for by the 30th November 1933 and the question whether arrest and imprisonment for debt where no contumacy is proved should be abolished either generally or for particular classes of persons is being considered by the Government of India.

The Government of India is examining the possibility of undertaking legislation on an experimental scale restricted to the province of Bombay in the first instance regarding the Labour Commission's recommendation that legislation should be enacted providing a summary procedure for the liquidation of workers' unsecured debts. The proposals are that (a) the court should be required to estimate the probable income and reasonable expenditure of the worker during the ensuing two years; (b) the amount of debts should be based on the difference between the two sums; (c) it should not be possible to keep the debts alive for more than three years in all; (d) debts should rank preferentially in order of their age; and (e) the possibility of appointing special courts for summary liquidation proceedings should be considered.

Bombay Money-Lender's Bill.—The Bombay Legislative Council at its meeting on 16th March 1934 granted leave to Mr. Syed Munawar to introduce his Bill to regulate the money-lending business. In the Statement of Objects and Reasons Mr. Munawar stated that despite the steady growth of the co-operative movement in the Bombay Presidency, professional money-lenders known as 'Sowcars' flourish in every town and village. Except for a small proportion of them who are honest a very large number have acquired a reputation for dishonesty, usury and other malpractices especially practised on the poor and illiterate labouring classes. It is common knowledge that money-lenders charge high rates ranging from 24 to 36 per cent. is charged. That the first months interest is deducted from the principal before issuing the loan and that the debt is recovered under threats of violence. The Carnion Loans Act, 1919 provides a remedy but this applies only to such cases of usury as are referred to courts of law and consequently many money-lenders manipulate accounts of loans in such an ingenious manner as to evade the provisions of the existing law on the subject. The purpose of the Bill is to be an adjunct to the Carnion Loans Act by imposing both a legal check upon unscrupulous money-lenders as also upon reckless borrowing. The main object is to provide a satisfactory method of accounting and estimation of payments to the debtors. The Bill only

covers loans upto Rs 1,000. A motion for the reference of the Bill to Select Committee was put during the Budget Session of the Bombay Legislative Council in 1933 and was lost.

Extension of Workmen's Compensation to Agriculture and Industry.—In their recommendation No 234, the Royal Commission suggested that the question of the inclusion of persons employed by the larger agricultural employers and of those employed in reserved forests deserves examination. The Government of India addressed a circular letter dated the 21st December 1931 to all Local Governments and Administrations inviting their views on the subject after consulting the interests concerned. Replies were requested by the 1st June 1932. In the light of the replies received, the Government of India arrived at the conclusion that no action is desirable at present on the question of the inclusion in the Workmen's Compensation Act of persons employed by the larger agricultural employers. The proposal for the inclusion of fresh employees is still under consideration.

Payment of Wages and Deductions.—The recommendations of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in connexion with the disbursement of wages fall under three distinct categories: (1) Prompter payments, (2) a legal limitation of the wage period, and (3) the control of deductions from wages in respect of fines. The Government of India have implemented the Commission's recommendations under the first and the third heads and they introduced the Payment of Wages Bill in the Legislative Assembly on the 1st February 1933. A motion for the circulation of the Bill was moved on the 14th February and was adopted. The Bill was then forwarded to all Local Governments and Administrations for opinion after consulting the interests concerned. A motion for the reference of the Bill to a Select Committee was tabled during the Delhi Session of 1933-34, but was not reached and the Bill lapsed. The Government of India took this opportunity of reviving the original Bill throughout in the light of the criticisms received when the original Bill was circulated and a new Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 19th February 1935. A motion for the reference of the Bill to a Select Committee was adopted on the 18th February 1935. The new Bill, it passed by the Legislature will be one of the most important pieces of Social legislation put through in India. We reproduce below the more important provisions of the Bill.

(1) The whole Act is proposed to be applied to all factory workers and the whole Act except the clauses relating to prompt payment of wages to all railway employees. Local Governments are, however, to be empowered to extend the Act, subject to such relaxations as they may consider necessary to any class of persons employed in any industrial establishment or in any class or group of industrial establishment.

(2) The operation of the Act is limited to persons whose earnings in any one month amount to less than Rs 100.

(3) The definition of "wages" has been amplified to cover all remuneration which is capable of being expressed in terms of money and which is, in accordance with the terms of employment or by any contract express or implied, to be paid to any person employed in

consideration of his employment or of any work done in his employment but does not include (a) the value of any housing provided by the employer, (b) employer's contributions to Provident funds, (c) travelling allowances and gratuities payable on discharge and, (d) any terms paid to an employee for defraying special expenses entailed on him by the nature of his employment. This definition will prevent employers from endeavouring to get round the Act by setting aside certain portions of wages as bonuses for good attendance or for good work.

(4) Section 5 of the Payment of wages Bill requires that wages in all factories controlled by the Indian Factories Act shall be paid before the expiry of the seventh day from the last day of the wage period in which the wages have been earned, unless the seventh day is a non-working day in which case wages should be paid on the first working day subsequent to such non-working day. Where the employment of any person is terminated by or on behalf of the employer, the wages due are to be paid before the expiry of the second day from the day on which his employment terminated. As several factories, particularly cotton and jute mills, require considerable time to calculate earnings from piece rates of wages. The Bill empowers Local Governments if they are satisfied that owing to special difficulties relating to the calculation or distribution of wages any employer or class of employers cannot with reasonable diligence make payment within the time specified, to exempt, by general or special order to such extent and subject to such conditions as it may think fit such employer or class of employers from the operation of this Section, provided, however, that, notwithstanding any such exemption, such portion of any wages due as can be paid without undue risk of overpayment shall be paid within the period fixed for payment. No provision is made in the Bill for the prompt payment of wages to those workers who terminate their employment themselves with or without giving notice, nor have the Government of India accepted the recommendation made by the Labour Commission that a week's notice on either side should be made legally binding both for the employers and the employed. Omission to provide for these matters raises a moot point as to whether the Common Law of Master and Servant with regard to contracts of employment is to stand or whether the new Bill is intended to set such law aside.

(5) The deductions which an employer can make from the wages due to his workmen are defined in Section 6 of the Bill which states that notwithstanding the provisions of sub-section (2) of Section 47 of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, or of any other law for the time being in force, the wages due to an employed person shall be paid to him without deductions of any kind except those authorised by the Act. Deductions which are authorised by the Act may be of the following kinds:

(a) deductions by way of fine, permitted only under special notices to be posted in all factories, limited to six pice in every rupee of earnings during the month in which the fine or fines were imposed and not recoverable more than 60 days from the time a fine has imposed.

The latest figures for the numbers employed in factories are those available in the All-India Report for Factories for 1933, which are reproduced in summary form in the tables given below —

Growth of Factories

Year	Number of Factories.	Average Daily Number of Persons Employed
1922	5,144	1,361,002
1927	5,985	1,409,173
1924	6,400	1,455,592
1925	6,926	1,494,958
1926	7,251	1,518,391
1927	7,515	1,533,382
1928	7,863	1,520,315
1929	8,129	1,553,169
1930	8,148	1,528,302
1931	8,143	1,438,487
1932	8,241	1,419,711
1933	8,452	1,403,212

Age and Sex Distribution of Factory Labour

Year	Men	Women.	Children	Total.
1922	1,086,457	206,887	67,658	1,361,002
1923	1,113,508	221,045	74,620	1,409,173
1924	1,147,729	235,332	72,531	1,455,592
1925	1,178,719	247,514	68,725	1,494,958
1926	1,208,628	249,669	60,094	1,518,391
1927	1,222,662	253,158	57,562	1,533,382
1928	1,216,471	252,933	50,911	1,520,315
1929	1,249,165	257,161	46,843	1,533,169
1930	1,225,425	254,805	37,972	1,528,302
1931	1,373,372	231,183	26,932	1,431,487
1932	1,172,290	225,632	21,783	1,419,711
1933	1,167,284	216,837	19,091	1,403,212

Statistics for 1933. (1) By Provinces

Province	Number of Factories	Average Daily Number of Persons Employed.
Madras	1,503	137,775
Bombay	1,610	354,637
Bengal	1,528	455,018
United Provinces	476	112,693
Punjab	576	47,972
Burma	942	86,433
Bihar and Orissa	239	72,254
Central Provinces and Berar	735	61,781
Assam	649	44,309
North-West Frontier Province	26	1,312
Baluchistan	16	2,318
Ajmer-Merwara	39	13,259
Delhi	41	11,726
Bangalore and Coorg	22	1,725
Total	8,452	1,403,212

Statistics for 1933 (2) By Classes of Concerns

Class of Concerns	Number of Factories		Average Daily Number of Persons Employed	
	Perennial	Seasonal	Perennial	Seasonal
Government and Local Fund Factories	447	0	113,370	312
Textiles	513		627,761	..
<i>Cotton (Spinning and Weaving)</i>	315		360,124	
<i>Jute Mills</i>	98		237,175	
Engineering	631		115,133	
<i>Railway Workshops</i>	84		48,782	
Minerals and Metals	139		44,671	..
Food Drink and Tobacco	1,027	2,205	53,829	157,686
Chemicals and Dyes, etc.	307	41	49,585	1,631
Paper and Printing	385		30,962	..
Processes relating to glass, wood and stone	307	1	35,147	91
Processes connected with skins and hides	45		5,975	
Guns and Presses	3	2,160	107	160,689
Miscellaneous	80	7	10,089	172
Total	3,033	1,510	1,082,629	320,783

In 1931 for the first time since the publication of the above statistics the figures for the number of factories and the persons employed are classified according to perennial and seasonal

factories. In 1932, the total number of perennial factories amounted to 3,802 with 1,120,510 workers and the number of seasonal factories amounted to 1,439 with 209,201 workers.

MIGRATION.

The principal occupation of India being agriculture there are naturally no large movements of population from one part to another. Where the migration figures are high it is generally in the small units. Thus Delhi has 41 per cent. of immigrants and Ajmere-Merwara 10, while in Ajmer City itself there are as many immigrants as there are natives.

Immigration influences the population of India as a whole very little. The 1931 census shows only 730,562 persons as born outside the country as against 608,520 in 1921. As against this must be set off on account of emigration about one million persons who are estimated to have migrated during the decade 1921-1931.

As between the different provinces of India, however migration is of more importance, varying in British India from 1,244,249 (net) immigrants into Assam to 15,536 (net) immigrants, emigrants into the North West Frontier Province. In Assam immigration is the highest among all the provinces in India. On the other hand emigration from Bihar and Orissa is the greatest. In the past the tendency was for migration to take place from the Native States to British India but during the decade 1921-1931 this position has been revised and the trend of migration has been on the whole from British India to the States, where the density is generally lower. Among the States, Bikaner provides a most striking example of immigration from British India. In 1931, the number of immigrants in Bikaner was 161,308 or 58 per cent. of its increase in population. Of the immigrants about 54 per cent. were from British India.

Internal migration is of several kinds, (1) *casual* migration, involving minor movements between neighbouring villages, (2) *Temporary* migration which is mainly due to demand for labour on canals and public buildings and to

pilgrimages and fairs, (3) *Periodic* migration which is caused by recurring seasonal demands (4) *Semi-permanent* migration is that of persons who maintain constant contact with their homes, although earning their livelihood elsewhere, such persons often leaving their families at their native places during the period of migration where they themselves ultimately return from the place of migration, and (5) *Permanent* migration is that in which the migrants leaves one place for another for good. In addition mention may be made here of another form of migration which may be called *daily*.

The best example of casual migration is furnished by the Punjab and Delhi. Periodic migration is particularly heavy at harvest time and also at the changes of season when traders, herdsmen, graziers and labourers from Kalai, Jhelumistan, Kashmir and the hills move down to the plains for the winter months. Temporary migration continues throughout the year.

Within the Provinces—It is neither necessary nor feasible to deal with the various streams of migration between district and district of the same province or within a district. These movements vary according to times and seasons, but it may be useful to show the extent to which and the source from which some of the more important industrial centres draw their labour force.

Assam's immigration is generally speaking of the permanent type. There have however been some changes since 1921 in respect of the sources of Assam's labour supply. Madras is the only province showing any increase in emigration to Assam while there has been a great decrease in emigration to Assam from Bihar and Orissa. There has been a steady increase in labour obtained locally, indicating greater freedom and

ability. On the other hand the whole complexion of the population of Assam is being altered by the permanent immigrants from Mymensingh in Bengal. The third class of immigrant in Assam is the *Nichah* but their numbers are decreasing.

Punjab and Orissa is typical of the rest of India in its immobility of labour, 959 persons out of every 1000 being born therein. It has, however, a higher emigration figure than any other province. The net loss to the province by emigration is 17,58,000. As in the case of Assam here also a change is however taking place and the loss by emigration is considerably less than in the previous decade. Emigrants have decreased by 1,97,000 and immigrants have increased by 79,000.

In the case of the United Provinces emigration has increased by a net balance of 1,58,000.

Madras is the third highest province so far as emigration is concerned but its emigration is

mostly overseas. The 1931 figures show a very marked increase in emigration to Malaya.

In the Central Provinces there is a growth in 'Daily Migration'.

As between British and State Territory migration in 1921 was against the States and in favour of British India but this position was reversed in 1931. Whereas in 1921 the net loss to the States was 1,24,000 in 1931 the States gained 4,90,935 from British India.

As between British India and the French and Portuguese settlements the balance of migration is greatly in favour of British India.

The two most important countries for Indian emigration are Malaya and Ceylon. Recruiting of Indian labour to Malaya was however stopped in 1930. None the less in 1931 over 6 lakhs Indians were found in that country. In the case of Ceylon immigration of Indian labourers continued in spite of the slump in the tea and rubber industries.

OCCUPATIONS OF THE PEOPLE.

At the 1931 Census several changes were made in regards the collection and presentation of occupational statistics. The principal amongst these was that a complete compilation of figures of subsidiary occupations was attempted for the first time. The Census however shows that instead of the proportion of non-working dependents to workers having been reduced by the new distinction between earners and working dependents, the proportion of non-working dependents has actually increased. Thus while in 1921 out of every 100 persons 46 were workers and 54 dependents, in 1931, 44

were workers and 56 dependents. This increasing dependence is attributed partly to the difficulty of finding employment.

The proportion of earners to working dependents is about nine to two, i.e., of the total working population 81 4 per cent is in direct receipt of wages or other sources of income and the other 18 6 per cent are helpers of the wage-earners.

The following table shows the distribution of occupations per 10,000 households according to classes and sub-classes—

Class and sub-class	Means of subsistence	Total	Principal Occupation		Dependent Occupation		Subsidiary Occupation	
			Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
A, B, C & D	All Occupations	10,000	5,772	1,649	454	1,242	673	211
A	Production of raw materials	6,584	4,081	1,103	344	610	375	71
I	Exploitation of animals and vegetation	6,560	4,066	1,099	343	610	372	70
II	Exploitation of minerals	24	15	4	1		3	1
B	Preparation and supply of material substances	1,756	1,054	305	54	104	202	37
III	Industry	1,038	610	193	30	76	108	21
IV	Transport	165	118	10	7	4	24	2
V	Trade	533	323	102	17	24	70	14
C	Public administration and liberal arts	236	210	18	14	4	38	2
VI	Public force	56	49		1		6	
VII	Public administration	69	55	2	2	1	0	
VIII	Professions and liberal arts	101	106	16	11	3	23	2
D	Miscellaneous	1,374	427	223	42	523	58	102
IX	Persons living on their income	10	9	2	1		4	
X	Domestic service	751	107	53	17	469	14	91
XI	Insufficiently described occupations	503	260	142	12	46	34	9
XII	Unproductive	104	51	26	12	8	6	1

generally calculated at an exorbitant rate. Generally, the employers do not deal directly with the labourers recruited by a contractor. The latter is paid a lump-sum from which he pays his men and retains a portion for himself. In the Central Provinces, however, it is reported that labour is actually purchased from private contractors at so much per head. The system of recruitment by contractors is most in use in Burma owing to the scarcity of labour in that province and the necessity of recruitment from distant places.

The method of recruitment through Sardars is also dependent on the payment of advances which are however made at the cost of the employer. The Sardar is an operative already at work in the mill or plantation and is sent out to recruit labour from among his relations, acquaintances or neighbours. He is drawn therefore from the same class as the recruits themselves and can therefore be relied on to deal more fairly with them. Another advantage of this system of recruitment is that the men recruited are insured against unemployment and find work waiting for them at their destination. On the other hand, it does not infrequently happen, especially in the Tea Gardens in Assam, that the Sardar recruits persons who are lured away from their homes by prospects of a bright future and who, on arrival, find that conditions of work and wages are not so bright as they imagined. It is, however, only in plantations that this form of recruitment has been used to any appreciable extent.

The recruitment of labour at the mill-gate or at the pithead in the case of mines is the form of recruitment which is gradually gaining in importance over the other two methods. The news of the very much higher rates of wages paid in towns (which to the villager sounds fabulous as he has no idea of the higher cost of living) spreads throughout the countryside and draws large crowds of would-be workers. They are to be found at convenient gathering places on the thoroughfares waiting to be picked up for employment. The older hands also return from their village with groups of friends, relations and neighbours who come in the hope of finding employment in the mills. But the ignorance, simplicity and poverty of the Indian peasant render his exploitation an easy matter. The employer does not recruit himself the men required for his establishment but holds the overseer, jobber or mukadam responsible for the adequate supply of labour in the department. The latter takes the place of the contractor and exacts bribes from the new recruits. He also acts as a money-lender and thereby reaps a double harvest from the needy labourer. It would appear therefore that education and organisation are the only means by which Indian workers can escape from the clutches of intermediaries who like harpies are ever ready to prey on them.

In the coalfields in Bihar and Orissa unskilled labour is recruited by means of Sardars. The Sardar visits villages and brings the labour with him, and the labour brought by him forms his *khoral*. He has to pay the labour *bucklaheesh*, *khoral* and travelling expenses, and for this purpose he frequently receives advances either

from the contractor or from the Company concerned. At the Bhowra Colliery advances varying from Rs 3 to Rs 10 are paid to the recruits in addition to their travelling allowances and food. Such advances are seldom recovered and never if the gang maintains good attendance at work. The Sardar obtains remuneration for his services in various ways. Sometimes he is paid a commission and a salary, but generally he is paid a certain amount on each ton of coal raised by miners working in his gang. Independent recruiters are paid at 9 pies per tub raised. In the Central Provinces the recruiters or mukadams as they are called receive 8 pies per head per week from the individual labourers whom they recruit and wages from the employers.

The Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur maintain an Employment Bureau where skilled and unskilled workers are registered and employed. Applicants for work assemble in a yard and daily requirements are selected by the officer in charge. No outside recruitment is done in the literal sense of the word, but in the event of special qualifications being required and no applicants being available, the post is advertised in a few leading newspapers.

The methods adopted by different Indian railways for the recruitment of unskilled labour are generally the same as those which obtain in other industries. In the case of workshop-men, a trade test is generally given and in every case a medical examination has to be gone through. Special apprentices for the higher grades are engaged by all Railways. The terms and conditions attached to apprenticeship in most cases are similar.

The Royal Commission on Indian Labour has made several recommendations with regard to the employment of the factory worker for the guidance of employers in general. We reproduce below some of the more important of these recommendations—

(a) Jobbers should be excluded from the engagement and dismissal of labour.

(b) Whenever the scale of the factory permits it, a Labour Officer should be appointed directly under the General Manager. His main functions should be in regard to engagements, dismissals and discharge.

(c) Where it is not possible to appoint a whole time Labour Officer, the Manager or some responsible officer should retain complete control of engagements and dismissals.

(d) Employers' Associations in co-operation with trade unions should adopt a common policy to stamp out bribery.

(e) Where women are engaged in substantial numbers, at least one educated woman should be appointed in charge of their welfare and supervision throughout the factory.

(f) Workers should be encouraged to apply for definite periods of leave and should go with a promise that on their return at the proper time they will be able to resume their old work. Whenever possible an allowance should be given to the worker who goes on leave after approved service.

Messrs E D Sassoon & Co, who control eleven cotton textile mills in Bombay and the Burma-Shell Corporation, have appointed Special Labour Welfare Officers to recruit labourers and look after their welfare. The severe trade depression has, however, prevented a more general adoption of this system but several firms are making noteworthy attempts to improve existing methods of recruitment in factories.

Following the appointment, by the Government of Bombay, of a special Labour Officer (Mr W B Gilligan ICS) under the Bombay Trades Disputes Conciliation Act, 1934, to watch the interests of workmen employed in cotton textile mills in Bombay City and the Bombay Suburban District with a view to promote harmonious relations between employer and workmen and to take steps to redress the grievances of workmen to employers for the purpose of obtaining their redress, the Millowners' Association Bombay, appointed, with effect from November 1st 1934, a special Labour Officer (Mr C A Dalal, BSC (Hon) (London)) to look after the interests of the Association.

Recruitment for Assam. The Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, was designed mainly to regulate the recruitment and engagement of indentured labour. It had not been possible for some years for any worker in Assam to be subjected to a penal contract and, in consequence of this and other changes, the law became entirely unsuited to present conditions. Attempts were made by amending Acts in 1908, 1915 and 1927 to adapt the Act to meet altering conditions. Substantial parts of the original Act were repealed and large numbers of rules framed in an endeavour to use the Act to regulate the recruitment of emigrants who are subject to no indenture. These changes proved inadequate and they made the law extremely confused. Large parts of the surviving provisions of the Act became completely ineffective and these provisions which were operative were open to weighty criticisms.

During the years 1926-1928 the Government of India carried on consultations with the Local Governments in regard to amending the law governing recruitment of labour for the Assam tea gardens. In the meanwhile, the Royal Commission on Labour had been appointed and they collected a large amount of evidence on the subject. The Commission recommended the replacement of the existing legislation by a new enactment and suggested that the power conferred by section 3 of the Assam Labour and Emigration Act of 1901 to prohibit recruitment for Assam in particular localities should be withdrawn immediately. They recommended that the new Act should provide (a) that no assisted emigrants from controlled areas should be forwarded to the Assam tea gardens except through a depot maintained either by the Tea Industry or by suitable groups of employers and approved by the Local Government or by such authority as it may appoint, (b) that the Government of India should have power to frame rules regarding transit arrangements, in particular for the laying down of certain prescribed routes to Assam and for the maintenance of depots at necessary intervals, and (c)

that in the event of the recrudescence of abuses, Government should have power to reintroduce in any area the prohibition of recruitment otherwise than by means of licensed *garden-sirdars* and licensed recruiters. Another recommendation of the Commission was that the Assam Labour Board should be abolished and in its place the Government of India should appoint a Protector of Immigrants in Assam to look after the interests of emigrants from other Provinces. With regard to the question of repatriation, the Commission recommended that every future assisted emigrant to an Assam tea garden should have the right after the first three years to be repatriated at his employer's expense and that the Protector should be empowered to repatriate a garden worker at the expense of the employer within one year of his arrival if it is found necessary on the ground of health, unsuitability of the work to his personal capacity or for other sufficient reason.

The Government of India framed a Bill called the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Bill, based mainly on the recommendations of the Commission but with variations in respect of minor details. The Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 11th March 1932 and was circulated to all Local Governments for opinion. It was then referred to a Select Committee who presented their report to the Assembly on the 5th September 1932. The Bill as amended by the Select Committee was passed by the Indian Legislature in September 1932 and received the assent of the Governor-General on the 8th October 1932. The new Act came into operation from the 1st April 1933.

The Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932, extends to the whole of British India including the Santhal Parganas and repeals the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, and the subsequent amending Acts. The first object of the Act is to make it possible, on the one hand, to exercise all the control over the recruitment and forwarding of assisted emigrants to the Assam Tea Gardens as may be justified and required by the interests of emigrants and potential emigrants; and, on the other hand, to ensure that no restrictions are imposed which are not justified. Local Governments are empowered, subject to the control of the Government of India, to impose control over the forwarding of assisted emigrants (Chapter III) or over both their recruitment and their forwarding as occasion may dictate (Chapters III and IV). Employers will be prevented from recruiting otherwise than by means of certificated *garden sirdars* or licensed recruiters. It is made unlawful to assist persons under 16 to emigrate unless they are accompanied by their parents or guardians. With regard to the question of repatriation (Chapter II), every emigrant labourer, on the expiry of a period of three years from the date of his entry into Assam, will have the right of repatriation as against the employer employing him at such expiry (Section 7) and any emigrant labourer who before the expiry of three years from his entry into Assam is dismissed by his employer otherwise than for wilful and serious misconduct will also have the right of repatriation (Section 8 (1)). It will also be possible to claim repatriation within three years in the event of the emigrant falling in health, not being provided

with suitable work or having his wages unjustly withheld or for any other sufficient cause (Section 10 (1)). Further, repatriation can be ordered at any time by a criminal court in the case of a labourer who has been assaulted by the employer or by his agent (Section 11). Where an employer fails to make all the necessary arrangements for the repatriation of a labourer working under him within fifteen days from the date on which a right of repatriation accrues to an emigrant labourer the Controller may direct the employer concerned to despatch such labourer and his family or to pay him such compensation as may be prescribed within such period as the Controller may fix (Sections 12 and 13).

Section 3 of the Act makes provision for the appointment of a Controller of Emigrants with some staff and possibly one or more Deputy Controllers for supervising the general administration of the system which the Act seeks to establish, and the charges are to be met from

an annual cess called the Emigrant Labour cess which shall be levied at such rate not exceeding Rs 9 per each emigrant as the Governor-General in Council may, by a notification in the "Gazette of India," determine for each year of levy.

The provisions of the Act are intended to apply only to emigration for work on tea plantations in the eight specified districts in Assam in the first instance, but power is retained to extend its application to other industries and to other districts in Assam if necessary (Section 38).

Latest Statistics—The Annual Report on the working of the Assam Labour Board during the year ending the 30th June 1933 is the latest available. The Report shows that the total number of persons who immigrated into Assam during the year was 39,901, as against 50,997 in the previous year.

The following tables shows the number of immigrants into the province of Assam by age and sex groups for the last five years —

Sex and age of Labourers	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Men	37,161	33,510	30,245	27,247	15,412
Women	16,548	14,117	13,362	14,086	12,552
Children	15,191	12,169	9,912	12,764	11,937
Total	68,900	59,796	53,519	54,097	39,901

The birth rate in the Assam Valley Division was 36.41 as against 31.97 in the previous year and in the Surma Valley and Hill Division 32.42 as against 30.26. The death rates were 21.70 as against 22.16 and 19.69 as against 21.43 respectively. The total garden population rose by 17,000 during the year under report and stood at 1,089,490.

Reforms in the Bombay Cotton Mill Industry—In a circular letter dated the 8th January 1930 the Bombay Millowners' Association instructed all mills affiliated to the Association to introduce, wherever possible, a policy of direct recruitment of labour instead of the existing practice of recruitment through jobbers. The introduction of a system for providing Discharge Certificates to operatives leaving service was also recommended. The certificates are to contain a record of the service of the operative concerned and in all cases of recruitment, the men presenting themselves for employment will be asked to produce their Discharge Certificates. Notices are to be posted at all mills stating (a) that all persons will be engaged by the Manager or by the head of the department concerned, and (b) that any heads of departments, assistants or jobbers

accepting bribes from the workpeople will be instantly dismissed.

Several groups of mills are considering the possibility of employing labour officers who will be responsible for the direct recruitment of labour and for welfare work generally. The action taken by Messrs E. D. Sassoon & Co. in this connexion has already been referred to above.

As far as employment of substitute labour is concerned most concerns outside cotton textile mills keep a five to ten per cent force of spare hands in addition to the regular numbers required on the musters. In textile mills, substitute labour is engaged every morning at the gates. It is interesting to observe that Messrs E. D. Sassoon & Co., for their ten mills in Bombay, and a few other employers in India have started the practice of "De-casualisation" by which employment tickets are issued to a number of workers generally about ten per cent of the standard muster, and substitutes are engaged only from those who have such cards. By the adoption of this system the influence of the jobber is minimised and bribery made difficult. The system is one which deserves to be more generally adopted.

ABSENTEEISM AND LABOUR TURNOVER.

Though there is meagre statistical information available on this subject, it may be stated with a fair amount of accuracy that the Indian worker is more habituated to absent himself from work than his prototype in other countries. He has yet to get himself thoroughly adapted to the industrial environment in which he finds himself. The reasons for his absence are not always connected with his love of rest but in many cases absence is due to causes beyond his control such as sickness, domestic difficulties, etc. The effects which poor and indifferent labouring have on his work will be dealt with in the section on Industrial Wastage.

The Factory Labour Commission of 1907 made an inquiry into the number of absent workers and came to the conclusion that the average worker took 2 days off every month and a further holiday of from 3 to 7 weeks every year. In addition, he received the weekly holiday and from 4 to 10 Indian holidays during the year. The question of absenteeism received the attention of the Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry) and it was urged in evidence before them that the inefficiency of labour in Bombay was greatly reduced by the high percentage of absenteeism among the operatives. The Board came to the conclusion that Ahmednagar had a great advantage over Bombay in the matter of absenteeism, both in respect of a

low rate throughout the year and also of the absence of the wide seasonal variations which were apparent in other centres of the textile industry. They therefore recommended that in order to nullify the effect of absenteeism there should be a general adoption of a system already in force in a few mills in Bombay under which a certain number of spare hands are introduced in each department, except the weaving. The Board said "The percentage of extra men in each department is not necessarily the same, but we are given to understand that spread over the whole of the mill, it usually worked out at about 10 per cent."

The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay publishes in the *Labour Gazette* every month statistics of absenteeism in the textile mills at the important centres of the cotton industry in the Bombay Presidency and in neighbouring workshops of the Bombay and Karachi Port Trusts. If figures of absenteeism for each day during any month are examined it is found that they are higher on days immediately before the pay day. The following table gives the figures for percentages of absenteeism month by month for the year 1931 with averages for the whole year for cotton textile mills in three important centres of the Bombay Presidency.

PERCENTAGE ABSENTEEISM IN THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY DURING 1931.

Month.	Bombay.	Ahmednagar.	Sholapur.
January	8.14	3.78	19.11
February	9.48	3.70	17.51
March	11.81	3.11	
April	8.56	3.91	
May		3.02	
June		3.81	20.10
July	6.93	3.76	17.19
August	8.10	3.02	12.31
September	8.46	1.45	13.16
October	7.81	1.08	14.16
November	7.92	3.52	14.57
December	7.40	3.77	15.14
Average for year	8.13	3.87	15.08

* Owing to the unsettled condition at these centres, no figures were compiled.

Whereas the figures in the above table show monthly variations which depend upon seasonal conditions. The annual averages for the last ten years are as follows:—

Year.	Bombay.	Ahmednagar.	Sholapur.
1925	13.78	2.92	11.48
1926	10.91	2.11	11.59
1927	8.51	3.01	13.07
1928	8.72	3.97	14.20
1929	9.79	3.53	11.70
1930	9.25	3.73	15.10
1931	9.31	4.20	16.26
1932	9.14	3.74	14.60
1933	9.23	3.61	14.20
1934	8.43	3.87	15.93

In the Electrical and Mechanical Departments of Railways, absenteeism generally amounts to 10 to 11 per cent. As in cotton mills, absenteeism is greater immediately after pay day. In Railways in Burma, absenteeism is lower and roughly amounts to 2.50 per cent.

Labour Turnover—A charge is very often levelled against the Indian worker that owing to his migratory character, he changes his place of employment very frequently and that this results in a high rate of labour turnover. There is, however, very little information available regarding the average period of service or the rates of turnover at important industrial centres in India. In the case of the Empress Mills at Nagpur, it has been estimated that since 1908, the average period of continuous service of the employees amounted to 7.89 years. In another cotton mill in the Central Provinces the average duration of employment worked out at about 40 months while in the case of other factories it roughly amounted to about 30 months. Out of a total number of 3,700 workers engaged in the Panch Valley Coal Mines it was found that 1,550 workers were in employment for less than a year, 650 from 1 to 2 years, 700 from 2 to 3 years and 800 workers had more than 3 years' continuous service to their credit. In the manganese mines in the Central Provinces the average duration of employment comes to about 9 to 10 months for the whole of the labour force in any one year. One to two years is on an average the period of employment of workers in the Tata Iron and Steel Works. The total labour turnover during normal working for three years in the same Works amounted to 36.6 per cent, 31.3 per cent and 24.1 per cent respectively. In the Indian Cable and Construction Company in Bihar and Orissa, however, skilled labour has remained practically unchanged during the last five years but the unskilled workers recruited from the aboriginal class had changed to the extent of about 30 per cent annually. In one of the mills at Cawnpore the average period of continuous service amounted to 8.87 years.

The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay recently conducted a special enquiry into the length of service of cotton mill workers in Bombay City. A sample of 1 in 10 tenements was decided upon and the information was collected in suitable schedules by the Lady Investigators of that Office from the inmates of such tenements who were reported to be cotton mill workers. Only the predominant working class localities were visited for the purposes of the enquiry and the total number of schedules accepted for final tabulation was 1,348.

Of the 1,348 workers, 988 or 73.29 per cent were men and 360 or 26.71 per cent were women.

Nearly 21 per cent. of the operatives began work in the mills before the 15th year, 38 per cent between the 15th and the 20th year, 32 per cent between the 20th and the 30th year and the remaining 9 per cent joined the first mill after they had attained the age of 30.

Sixty-three per cent of the workers were born in the Konkan and 27 per cent in the Deccan while the rest came from different parts of the country. It is very significant that not a single worker gave his place of origin as Bombay City.

About 48 per cent of the workers covered by the sample continued in the employment of the same mill without change, 34 per cent served in two or three mills and 18 per cent had served in 4 or more mills. The highest number of mills served by an individual was 15. The cause of leaving the mills was "for going to native place" in 26 per cent cases, "low wages and for bettering prospects" in 21 per cent cases, "absence due to illness" in 14 per cent cases and "retrenchment" in 10 per cent cases. Other causes for leaving mills were unsuitable conditions of work, dismissal, strike, resignation, etc.

The approximate period of total service (including the period of non-attendance) was reported to be less than 5 years in 37.54 per cent cases, 5 to 10 years in 23.37 per cent cases, 10 to 15 years in 15.88 per cent cases, 15 to 20 years in 9.13 per cent cases and more than 20 years in 14.08 per cent cases. The percentages of workers who had not changed mills was 67 in the case of operatives with less than 5 years' service and 42 for workers with 5 to 10 years' service. In the other service groups, the percentage of operatives working in the same mill varied between 25 and 45.

The actual active service was reported to be less than 5 years in 46.51 per cent cases, 5 to 10 years in 24.26 per cent cases, 10 to 15 years in 13.95 per cent cases and 15 to 20 years in 7.20 per cent cases. In the remaining 8.08 per cent cases the actual service was more than 20 years.

A large number of workers in the age groups 15-20 and 20-25 had served for a period of less than 5 years while the most common period of service in the age group 25-30 was between 5 and 10 years. In the age group 30-35 about 30 per cent of the workers had served for less than 5 years and 19 per cent for a period of 5 to 10 years. Among workers of 35 to 40 years of age, the number of those falling in each of the first five service groups was between 16 and 20 per cent.

LABOUR IN FACTORIES.

The conditions of factory labour until 1913 were regulated by the Indian Factories Act of 1881, as amended in 1891. Under the chief provisions of the amended Act Local Governments were empowered to appoint Inspectors of Factories and Certifying Surgeons to testify as to the age of children. A mid-day stoppage of work was prescribed in all factories, except those worked on an approved system of shifts, and Sunday labour was prohibited subject to certain exceptions. The hours of employment for women were limited to 11, with intervals of rest amounting to at least an hour and a half, their employment between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. was prohibited, as a general rule, except in factories worked by shifts. The hours of work for children (defined as persons below the age of 14) were limited to 7 and their employment at night-time was forbidden. Children below the age of 9 were not to be employed. Provision was made for fencing of machinery and for the promulgation of rules as to water supply, ventilation, the prevention of overcrowding, etc.

The next Factory Act to be passed into law was Act XII of 1911. This Act extended the definition of "factory" so as to include seasonal factories working for less than 4 months in the year, shortened the hours within which children, and, as a general rule, women might be employed and further restricted the employment of women by night by allowing it only in the case of cotton ginning and pressing factories. It also contained a number of new provisions for securing the health and safety of the operatives, making inspection more effective and securing generally the better administration of the Act. The most important feature of the Act, however, was the introduction of a number of special provisions applicable only to textile factories. The report of the Factory Commission showed that excessive hours were not worked except in textile factories. The Act, for the first time, applied a statutory restriction to the hours of employment of adult males by laying down that, subject to certain exceptions, "no person shall be employed in any textile factory for more than 12 hours in any one day." It also provided in the case of textile factories that no child may be employed for more than six hours in any one day and that (subject to certain exceptions, which were factories worked in accordance with an approved system of shifts) no women may be employed before 5-30 a.m. or after 7 p.m. (the new limits laid down generally for the employment of women and children).

The ratification by India of the Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919 necessitated radical revision of the Indian Factories Act of 1911. This was undertaken during 1921 and the Indian Factories Amendment Act, 1922, introduced a series of important reforms including the adoption of a 48-hours' week, the raising of the minimum age of children from 9 to 12, the prohibition of night work for women, the extension of the Act to a large number of small factories, drastic restriction of the exempting provisions, etc. The principal object of the amending Act of 1923 was the removal of a difficulty which had arisen in con-

nection with the law relating to the weekly holiday. The Factories Amendment Act of 1920 was passed in order (1) to widen the definition of "factories" so as to bring within the control of the Act such establishments as Electrical Generating Stations, water works, etc., (2) to prevent the issue of age certificates by Certifying Surgeons to children who are not fit for employment, (3) to make provision for the prevention of cleaning machinery in motion, even by men, in cases where Local Governments were of opinion that the work is attended by danger to the operatives, (4) to provide a clearer definition of the periods prescribed for intervals of rest, and, (5) while still preventing the employment of children in two factories on the same day, the permitting of women to work in two factories on the same day provided that the limits for hours of work were not exceeded.

The Indian Factories Act, 1911, as amended by the Acts of 1922, 1923 and 1925, prescribed a daily as well as a weekly limit to the hours of work in factories and provided for rest intervals and for a weekly holiday. Section 28 of the Act provided that no person should be employed in any factory for more than 11 hours in any one day, and Section 27 that no person should be employed in a factory for more than 60 hours in any one week. Section 21 of the Act made it obligatory for the occupier of a factory to provide for each person employed a rest period of at least one hour at intervals not exceeding 6 hours, or at the request of the employees concerned two rest periods of half an hour each, at intervals not exceeding 5 hours, the total duration of the periods of rest on that day not being less than one hour for each period of 6 hours worked generally. With the previous sanction of the Local Government and at the request of the employees concerned the rest interval could be reduced to half an hour for each male person provided that he was not employed for more than 8½ hours on each working day and was not required to work for more than five hours continuously. For children, Section 23 (c) provided that no child should be employed in a factory for more than 6 hours in any one day. Section 21 (b) provided that for each child working more than 5½ hours in any one day a period of rest of not less than half an hour should be given and the period of rest was to be so fixed that no child should be required to work continuously for more than 4 hours. Sections 23 (b) and 24 (a) further provided that no child or woman may be employed in any factory before half past five o'clock in the morning or after 7 o'clock in the evening. Under Section 25 a child could not be employed in two factories on the same day but adults could be so employed in such circumstances as might be prescribed. Under the provisions of Section 26 every Manager of a factory had to fix specified hours for the employment of each person employed in such factory and no person was allowed to be employed except during such specified hours. The Governments of Madras, Bombay, the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Central Provinces were the only Local Governments which had prescribed the circumstances under which adults might be employed in more than one factory on the same day. The rules

framed by these Local Governments invested the Inspector of Factories with the power to sanction such employment if he were satisfied that the adults concerned were not employed for more than 10 hours on any one day and that they received the weekly holiday prescribed by section 22 of the Act. In addition to the notice of hours of work for particular periods, every factory was required to maintain a register of all persons employed in a factory in the form prescribed by the Local Government showing their hours of work and the nature of their respective employment.

Amendment of the Factories Act, following the Recommendations of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour.—The Royal Commission made several very important recommendations for substantial amendments of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, as amended by the Amending Acts of 1922, 1925, 1926 and 1931, firstly, for the reduction of the maximum limits of daily and weekly hours of work in perennial factories and for the better regulation of such hours, secondly for the improvement of working conditions in factories, and thirdly, for a more effective enforcement on the part of the factory owners of the requirements of the Act. The Government of India, in the Department of Industries and Labour issued a circular letter, dated the 10th June 1932, addressed to all Local Governments and Administrations forwarding a draft Bill intended to consolidate the present law regarding the regulation of power using factories and incorporating the majority of the Commissioners' recommendations. All Provincial Governments were asked to submit replies to this letter by the 1st December 1932. On receipt of the Local Government's replies, the Honourable Member in charge of the Department of Industries and Labour of the Government of India made a tour of the more important industrial centres in India to discuss various questions arising out of the draft Bill with the representatives of Local Governments and associations of employers and workmen. On the conclusion of this tour, the Government of India convened a conference of Provincial Chief Inspectors of Factories and a final Bill was then drawn up which was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 8th September 1933. It was passed into law at the Summer Session of the Legislative Assembly at Simla in 1934 and received the assent of the Governor-General on the 20th August of that year. The new Act was brought into effect from 1st January 1935.

The Royal Commission also made several suggestions with regard to the control of factories not using power nearly all of which are at present unregulated. The Government of India propose a new and separate Act in respect of such factories and they are at present engaged in drafting a Bill covering the Commissioners' recommendations in the matter.

The following are the more important additional matters covered by the Consolidating Act—

(a) A distinction is drawn between seasonal and perennial factories. A factory which is exclusively engaged in cotton ginning, cotton or jute pressing, the decortication or

groundnuts, or the manufacture of groundnut oil, or the manufacture of coffee, indigo, lac, rubber, sugar (including *gur*) or tea is to be a seasonal factory, provided that the Local Government may, by notification in the local official Gazette, declare any such factory in which manufacturing processes are ordinarily carried on for more than 180 working days in the year, not to be a seasonal factory for the purposes of the Act. The Local Government may also, by notification, declare any seasonal factory in which manufacturing processes are ordinarily carried on for not more than 180 working days in the year and which cannot be carried on except during particular seasons or at times dependent on the irregular action of natural forces, to be a seasonal factory for the purposes of this Act.

(b) Factory operatives were formerly divided into two age groups (1) Adults and (2) Children, i.e. persons over 12 and under 15 years of age. The Consolidating Act introduces a third age group of "Adolescents" i.e. persons over the age of 15 years and under the age of seventeen years who have not been certified as fit for adult employment. Such "Adolescents" as have not been so certified are to be deemed to be children.

(c) The existing maximum limits of eleven hours per day and sixty hours per week continue to be permitted in the case of seasonal factories but the maximum hours of work permitted in the case of workers in perennial factories has been reduced to ten hours per day and 54 hours per week subject to the proviso that persons employed on work necessitating continuous production for technical reasons and persons whose work is required for the manufacture or supply of articles of prime necessity which must be made or supplied every day may be employed for not more than 56 hours in any one week. The maximum hours of work permitted in the case of children is five hours per day both in seasonal and in perennial factories.

(d) The New Act introduces for the first time the principle of "spreadover," i.e. the limitation of the period of the number of consecutive hours during which the daily limits of hours of work may be availed of by the owner or an occupier of a factory. The spread-over in the case of adults is limited to thirteen consecutive hours and in the case of children to seven and a half consecutive hours, but the continuous period of eleven free hours in every twenty-four hours in the case of adults must include the hours between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. in the case of women. The continuous period of sixteen and a half free hours in the case of children must include the hours between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. Exemptions in the case of women are permitted in such cases as technical reasons require that work should be done at night, e.g. in the fish curing industry.

(e) The existing provisions with regard to the control of artificial humidification are expanded. The Act also gives power to Local Governments to authorise an Inspector to call upon Managers of factories to carry out specific measures for increasing the cooling power of the air where he is of the

Employment of Children—By the Amending Act of 1922 the maximum age of children was raised from 14 to 15 years and the minimum age from 9 to 12. The Act provides that no child shall be employed in any factory unless he is in possession of a certificate granted by a Certifying Surgeon showing that he is not less than 12 years of age and is fit for employment in a factory and while at work carries either the certificate itself or a token giving reference to such certificate. Further, no child is allowed to be employed in any factory before six o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening and no child is to be employed for more than five hours in any one day. The number of children employed in factories during the years 1922 to 1933 is shown in the following table—

Year	Total
1922	67,658
1923	74,620
1924	72,531
1925	68,725
1926	60,094
1927	57,562
1928	50,911
1929	46,843
1930	37,072
1931	26,932
1932	21,753
1933	19,091

An examination of the figures in the above table will show that the number of children employed rose from 67,658 to 74,620 in 1923. This was due to the fact that the tea factories in Assam which employed about 11,000 children were brought within the scope of the Act for the first time in that year. Further, the amendment of the Act in 1922 did not apply to children who were lawfully employed in a factory on or before the 1st July 1921 and it was not until 1924 that full effect was given to the new age restrictions for children.

There has been a steady decline in the number of children employed. In the textile mills in Bombay City there are none.

Employment of Women—The number of women employed in factories during the years 1921 to 1929 increased steadily from 206,887 employed in 1922 to 257,161 employed in 1929. But the number of women employed since 1929 has fallen perceptibly, the figures for 1930, 1931 and 1933 being 254,905, 231,183 and 216,837 respectively. The increase in the employment of women was due partly to the restrictions imposed on the employment of children and partly to the inclusion within the scope of the Act of all quasi-agricultural factories, for example, in the tea gardens which are dependent on female labour to a larger extent than other factories. An important change which the revision of 1922 made in connection with the employment of women was the repeal of Section 27 of the Act of 1911 which permitted the employment of women at night in gunning factories. In view of this amendment the Government of India considered that they were in a position to ratify the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night adopted by the First International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919 without undertaking any further legislation.

LABOUR IN MINES.

The conditions of employment of labour in mines are governed by the provisions of the Indian Mines Act, 1923, which came into force with effect from the 1st July 1924 replacing the former enactment of 1901. The Act of 1901 contained provisions designed to secure safety in mines and it provided for the maintenance of an inspecting staff, but it contained no provisions regulating the employment of labour.

Section 23 of the Indian Mines Act of 1923 limited weekly hours of miners to 54 underground and to 60 above ground but no limits were prescribed for daily hours. In a Bill further to amend the Act for certain purposes introduced by the Government of India in the Legislative Assembly in March 1927 it was proposed to fix the maximum limit for daily hours at twelve. There was a considerable body of opinion in favour of enforcing an eight-hour day and this was also the opinion of a minority of the Select Committee appointed by the Assembly to consider the Bill. The majority of the Committee however adhered to the principle of a twelve-hour shift as proposed in the Bill but agreed that an eight-hour shift should be

gradually worked upto. They recommended to Government that after the new provisions had been in operation for three years, the position should be again reviewed as to whether an eight-hour shift could be introduced. A daily limit of 12 hours was thus imposed by the Amending Act of 1928 and this was to be brought into effect from April 1930.

Recommendations of the Royal Commission

The Royal Commission on Labour which reviewed the whole position came to conclusions similar to those reached by the Select Committee. A minority of the Commission advocated the reduction of the daily limit to eight hours while the majority supported the recommendation of the majority of the Select Committee, and in addition suggested that weekly hours above ground should be limited to 54. In the meanwhile the fifteenth session of the International Labour Conference adopted a Draft Convention concerning hours of work in coal mines, framed solely with reference to conditions in European countries. This Convention prescribes that the hours of work should be limited to 7½ per day in

The sex distribution of the persons employed in mines during the years 1926 to 1933 was as shown below :—

Year	Number of males employed			Number of females employed		
	Underground	In open workings	On the surface	Underground	In open workings	On the surface
1926	86,313	43,306	51,967	31,889	27,833	18,775
1927	86,766	50,028	53,903	31,850	27,697	19,046
1928	86,155	51,005	52,430	31,785	28,453	17,843
1929	92,856	51,235	51,954	24,089	28,723	17,839
1930	101,649	50,396	52,709	18,081	21,186	17,013
1931	98,885	38,833	45,157	16,811	16,079	14,087
1932	96,196	30,256	39,899	14,711	10,761	12,835
1933	99,550	30,806	40,616	12,799	10,721	11,919

LABOUR ON RAILWAYS.

All railway workshops come under the administration of the Factories Act. The Indian railways employ nearly a quarter of a million workers in other occupations for whom provision for the control of their working hours has been made under the Hours of Employment Rules, 1930, framed under the Indian Railways Amendment Act, 1929.

The Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1919 and 1921 prescribed a 60-hour week and a weekly rest of not less than 24 consecutive hours for all workers in British India employed in factories, in mines and in such branches of railway work as may be specified for this purpose by the competent authority. The Indian Factories Act which was amended in 1922 to give effect to the Conventions limited the hours of work in factories to 11 in any one day and to 60 in any one week. Provisions were also made for intervals of rest and a weekly holiday. Similar limitations were imposed under the Indian Mines Act of 1923 in respect of colliery staff. Under the amending consolidated Factory Act of 1934 weekly hours in perennial factories have been reduced to 54 and as will have been seen in the last chapter similar reductions are proposed in the case of hours in Mines. Both these restrictions apply to factories and mines controlled by railway administrations. The application of the Conventions to other departments of railway administrations was found to be a problem beset with many difficulties and has been a subject of prolonged investigations. Orders were issued by the Railway Board in 1921 that the 60-hour week should be adopted for station staff not employed in connection with the working of trains. The Indian Railway Conference Association drew up a set of rules in 1927 and these received the general approval not only of the Railway Board but also of the Boards of Directors of the lines managed by companies. Subsequently, however, it was found that these rules while they aimed at applying the spirit of the Conventions did not adequately fulfil the statutory obligations imposed upon Government by the ratification of the Conventions. The whole question was therefore again exhaustively reviewed and a Bill amending the Indian Railways Act with the object of empowering the Governor-General in Council to make rules on

the subject was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in the autumn session of 1929 and was referred for consideration to a Select Committee. The Amending Act was passed in the same year and the Hours of Employment Rules were drawn up during the following year.

The Royal Commission on Indian Labour made some very important recommendations regarding hours of work and rest day for railway workers other than those employed in 'factories' and 'mines'. As far as the recommendation that the weekly rest day of not less than 24 hours provided under the Act of 1930 should be granted subject to the usual emergency exceptions to all continuous workers is concerned this has been accepted by the Government of India for gradual introduction on all railway systems as financial considerations permit. The Government of India have also accepted the recommendation made by the Commission that special efforts should be made to put into operation as soon as possible the regulations devised to give effect to the Washington and Geneva Convention re - Hours of work in the case of railway employees. They have also accepted the recommendation that the Railway Board should reconsider the practicability of reducing the hours for intermittent workers and of giving days of absence at reasonable intervals where weekly rest days cannot be given. The Railway Board however consider that the first step that should be taken, as soon as funds permit is to extend the application of the Regulations to the Railways to which they have not yet been applied, and first, the question of reducing the hours of work, generally, for intermittent workers will be examined comprehensively will be considered thereafter. In the meanwhile all Agents of Railways have been instructed to reduce the hours of work and provide suitable periods of rest in individual cases where humanitarian considerations require such a course.

Working of overtime on Indian railways is more prevalent on construction than on the open line due to (1) the working season in the monsoon areas being confined to eight months in the year, (2) special measures taken to speed up all heavy work to avoid the locking up of capital and (3) wet foundation work in bridges which necessitate continuous work. Usually overtime in such cases is paid at a rate fixed beforehand.

SEAMEN.

The Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923, provides that no seaman shall be "signed on" for service on a ship unless he enters into a contract in the manner specified with the Master of the ship. All agreements entered into between Masters and Seamen for service on foreign-going ships have to be signed in the presence of a Shipping Master. The agreement forms contain the rules and regulations provided for under the Act for maintaining discipline and for the fines which may be inflicted for the breach thereof.

CONTRACT LABOUR.

In most industrial concerns in India work in connection with building, loading and unloading, carting, receiving and despatching of goods and work involving the employment of unskilled labour over which supervision is either difficult or costly is given out on contract. In the textile cotton industry work in connection with bleaching and dyeing is also generally done on contract at all centres. In the cotton mills in Ahmedabad work in the Dining and Waste Room and the Yarn Bundling and Baling Department, in the Drawing—In Department and Beam Carrying is given out on contract in various mills. In certain printing presses in the Bombay Presidency, composing is given out on contract. In most cases no supervision is exercised over the labour engaged by the contractor to whom the contract is given. Perhaps the most efficient method of control and supervision over contract labour is that which obtains on several railways. This will be dealt with separately lower down. Applions to the general remarks made above is follows

In the coal mines in Bihar and Orissa contractors are employed by a large number of collieries to provide the labour required for cutting the coal and loading it on wagons. The contractors are paid at a fixed rate per ton for all coal loaded on wagons. In some cases, however, the rate paid per ton is increased either because coal is being extracted from difficult places in the mine or because the contractor has difficulties in maintaining his labour supply. The extent to which contractors are employed is considerable and probably more than half the coal raised in the Bihar coal fields is raised on the contract system. Definite figures are not available but the Indian Mining Association reports that 90 per cent. of the coal raised in the mines belonging to that Association in the Bihar coal fields is raised by contract labour. In some cases contractors are only employed to provide the labour for cutting the coal. The contractor is generally responsible only for raising the coal while the colliery supervising staff is responsible for seeing that the mines are run safely.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

The problems connected with unemployment in India are quite different from the problems which have arisen in highly industrialised countries like England, the United States of America and Germany. In the latter countries labour is divided into two fairly distinct classes (1) industrial, and (2) agricultural. During periods of depression in industry those workers who are thrown out of employment either on account of a temporary or a partial closing down of concerns cannot fall back upon agriculture for earning their livelihood. It is necessary to repeat here, in order to understand this question clearly, that more than 70 per cent. of the population of India derive their livelihood from various occupations in connection with agriculture. This does not mean that agriculture is a perennial source of employment. Considerable unemployment and distress occurs during periods when the monsoon fails. Even during those years when the monsoon is generally successful, there are usually parts of the country where the rainfall is deficient and there is not enough scope for the employment of all the labour available. Both the Government of India and the various Provincial Governments have devised various schemes for famine relief and the variations in the visitations of nature with their consequent periods of prosperity and distress have now been brought more effectively under human control than ever before in the history of India. It is not neces-

sary to go into the details of the questions connected with famine relief in this section. The point which it is intended to bring out is that owing to the agricultural character of industrial labour in India, the problems connected with employment and unemployment are somewhat closely related to those connected with the success or the failure of the monsoon.

Speaking generally, the Indian labourer migrates to industrial centres when he finds that the yield of the land in his native place is not sufficient to maintain all the members of his family. A certain percentage of the workers employed in industry temporarily give up their employment during the sowing, transplanting and harvesting seasons. During periods of depression in trade and industry, industrial workers released from employment fall back upon agriculture and thus add to the existing pressure of the population on the land. If the depression in trade and industry synchronises with the failure of the monsoon, the amount of unemployment becomes considerable and the resulting distress is enormous. Various States have devised schemes of Employment Exchanges for the purpose of studying the problems in connexion with the demand and supply of labour, to control the movements of labour and to place it where it is required. The Government of India and the various Provincial Governments have considered the question of

creating Employment Exchanges in India several times during the last ten years, but opinion is unanimous that owing to the preponderatingly agricultural character of Indian labour it is practically impossible to devise any satisfactory scheme for the formation of Employment Exchanges. A vital difficulty for the adequate consideration of their problem has always been the want of satisfactory statistics to gauge the level of unemployment at any one period. Continuous migration between industry and agriculture makes the task of collecting such statistics well nigh impossible. Desultory attempts at measuring unemployment in particular industries in limited territories have, however been sometimes made. One of the most recent attempts in this direction has been an enquiry into the extent of unemployment in the textile industry in the Bombay Presidency and the Central Provinces conducted as a part of the Departmental Enquiries held by the Labour Office and the Department of Industries in 1934 at the request of the Government of Bombay and the Central Provinces on the general subject of wage Reductions in that industry. It was found that the total number of hands displaced in cotton mills in the Bombay Presidency on account of closures of mills amounted to about 38,000. In the Central Provinces about 2000 workers had lost their jobs between 1932 and 1934.

India is a State Member of the International Labour Conference, and as such she is bound according to the terms of the Treaty of Peace, to ratify and adopt, wherever possible, any Convention or Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference. The consideration of industrial unemployment was thrust upon the Government of India by the Washington Convention, which was adopted by the First International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919. Each Member ratifying this Convention was required—

(i) to communicate to the International Labour Office all information, statistical or otherwise, concerning unemployment, including reports on measures taken or contemplated to combat unemployment,

(ii) to establish a system of free public employment agencies under the control of the central authority, and to appoint Committees, including representatives of employers and workers, to advise on matters concerning the operation of these agencies,

(iii) where systems of insurance against unemployment have been established, to make arrangements, upon terms to be agreed upon between the members concerned, whereby workers belonging to one Member and working in the territory of another shall be admitted to the same rates of benefit of such insurance as those of the latter.

In addition to this Convention, the First International Labour Conference also adopted a Recommendation which advocated—

(a) the abolition of employment agencies, which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit,

(b) the establishment of an effective system of unemployment insurance, and

(c) the execution of public works as far as practicable during periods of unemployment and in districts most affected by it.

The draft Convention was ratified by India but, in communicating this ratification to the International Labour Organisation at Geneva, the Secretary of State for India found it necessary "in order to avoid subsequent misunderstanding" to explain at some length the peculiar position of India in this matter and to emphasise the difficulties connected with a complete ratification by India owing to the predominantly agricultural character of the country. The Government of India, in addressing the local Governments on questions arising out of the draft Convention and Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference, invited views on the following points—

(i) Advisability of creating Public Employment Agencies in congested areas to facilitate the migration of surplus labour to industrial areas where there is a shortage of labour

(ii) Advisability of utilising Public Employment Agencies in connexion with recruitment for Assam

(iii) Advisability of establishing Public Employment Agencies for the dissemination of information regarding employment during times of famine and scarcity to those in search of employment.

(iv) Advisability of appointing Committees representing employers and workers to advise on matters concerning the operation of Public Employment Agencies

(v) Advisability of abolishing or controlling Employment Agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit

The replies of the local Governments indicated that in most provinces the demand for labour exceeded the supply, that, even in provinces from which there was a large migration of labour, no difficulty had been experienced in obtaining information with regard to the areas where labour was in demand, that the establishment of public employment agencies would serve no useful purpose, and that such agencies might excite suspicion and be liable to be misunderstood by the people. With regard to recruitment of labour for Assam, the local governments concerned were agreed that any experiment on the lines suggested would be risky. On the question of the abolition of control of employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit, the replies of the local Governments indicated that employment agencies of this character were practically unknown in India. In the circumstances, the Government of India decided to take no further action on the draft Convention or Recommendation concerning unemployment.

Although it has not been possible for the Government of India to take any action in the matter of unemployment either by legislation or administrative action, a few local Governments have devised schemes intended to reduce unemployment. The Government of Bengal started an unemployment relief scheme some three years for the financing of which a lakh of rupees per annum was sanctioned. The scheme contemplated the entertainment of two

Industrial Surveyors and the establishment of four demonstration parties in each of seven selected industries—jute and wool weaving, umbrella making, Cutlery, brass and bell-metal, soap making, shoe making and pottery. The scheme was to take up, in the first instance, the training of peripatetic demonstration parties, and in order to secure non-official co-operation which was essential not only for getting recruits of the right type but also for creating an industrial atmosphere in a province pre-eminently agricultural. The formation of a non-official association in each District to be known as Industrial Association was encouraged and the local district boards were called upon to assist. As there were only 28 demonstration parties work under the scheme could not be started in more than fourteen districts at a time, up to the end of 1933 four parties for each of the seven industries except jute and wool were working in different parts of the Province, those of the students trained by these parties have started factories of their own and in which considerable numbers of people have found employment.

Middle-class unemployment—In recent years unemployment among the educated middle classes has been assuming alarming proportions and has attracted widespread public attention. In January 1926, a Resolution was passed by the Legislative Assembly in the following terms—

“This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he may be pleased to appoint a Committee with a non-official majority, to investigate into the problem of unemployment generally, and among the educated classes particular, and devise suitable remedies—either by a system of industrial and technical education, or by a revision of the existing system of education, or by offering encouragement to the starting of new industries, or by opening new avenues of employment, or by the establishment of employment bureaux, or by all these or any other means, and that the said Committee do make a report on the latter problem as early as possible.”

Similar Resolutions were also passed in some of the local Legislative Councils. The Government of India did not consider that the appointment of a Central Committee would serve any useful purpose, but in a circular letter drew the attention of the local Governments to the gravity of the problem of middle-class unemployment in India. As a result of the Resolutions passed by the local Councils, Committees were appointed by some of the local Governments. The reports of most of these Committees refer almost exclusively to middle-class unemployment, but the Punjab and the Bengal Committees also dealt with general unemployment. The Punjab Committee came to the conclusion that “there was no unemployment worthy of mention among the uneducated classes”, whilst the Bengal Committee observed as follows—

“The labourer, if we may use the term, has not yet been divorced completely from the land, and he frequently possesses or has an interest in a small plot of land in his native place on the cultivation of which he can fall back in times of depression. Added to this is the fact that industrial labour is still comparatively scarce in Bengal and in fact had to be imported

from other provinces. The effect therefore of trade depressions on the industrial labourer in Bengal is so far very small.”

The Assam Legislative Council passed a resolution on the 13th September 1933 recommending to the Government of Assam the appointment of a Committee to consider the problem of unemployment, specially among the educated middle class people of the Province. In the general discussion in connection with this resolution it was pointed out that extension of technical education, industrial development and concentration on agriculture to a large extent are the only means of dealing the problem in the conditions prevailing in Assam. On behalf of the Government it was stated that this subject was discussed at a conference, recently held under the auspices of the Government of India, of representatives of departments of industry in all the provinces of British India and some of the Indian States, when the desirability of establishing a central industrial research for considering the question of industrialisation was emphasized. It was further stated that the Government proposed to establish agricultural colonies of educated young men, as an experimental measure, to make provision for helping technical institutions, to advance industrial loans to enable young men with the necessary training to set up small industries and to restrict, as far as possible, employment under Government to natives of the province. The Council was, however, informed that any action concerning this situation must have some reference to unemployment among the poorer classes as well.

Jute and Cotton Mill Industries.—In the jute mill industry in Bengal a large number of mills have, during the last two or three years, changed over from the multiple to the single shift system. It is estimated that on the single shift about 25 to 33 per cent less labour force is required than on the multiple shift, but in spite of the changes no trouble has been reported with regard to unemployment. In the Bombay cotton mill industry, out of an average of about 140,000 workers employed, during the years 1920 to 1927 approximately 20,000 have been thrown out of employment on account of the introduction of efficiency methods of work whereby spinners are required to mind two or three sides of a spinning frame instead of one and where the ordinary two loom weaver is required to tend three, four or six looms. The Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee dealt with this aspect of the question in their report and they recommended the creation of an Out-of-Work Donation Fund. This has been dealt with in the summary given with regard to the findings of this Committee in the Section on Conciliation and Arbitration. Owing to depression in trade and external competition several cotton mills had compelled either to close down completely or to work with partial complements but the revival of trade which set in about the middle of 1934 resulted in several of the closed mills re-opening and work on high shift being started in several other Mills. By the end of the year the total numbers of workpeople employed in the cotton mill industry in Bombay rose to 1,35,000 and about 15,000 additional workers were able to secure work satisfactory periods as *badlis* or substitutes.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY AND INSPECTION.

As in other countries, the industrial progress of India has been accompanied by an alarming increase in the number of industrial accidents. Statistics for 1933—The numbers of accidents classified according to fatal, serious and minor in factories in each of the British Provinces in India in the year 1933 are shown in the following table—

Province	Fatal	Serious	Minor	Total
Madras	15	306	1,179	1,500
Bombay	38	1,320	4,050	5,425
Bengal	49	884	2,697	3,630
United Provinces	32	373	1,574	1,979
Punjab	10	53	886	949
Burma	19	233	1,245	1,497
Bihar and Orissa	23	391	1,567	1,981
Central Provinces and Berar	5	54	221	280
Assam	2	71	363	438
North-West Frontier Province				
Baluchistan	1		46	47
Ajmer-Merwara		17	735	752
Delhi		5	94	99
Bangalore and Coorg			72	72
Total	194	3,776	14,739	18,709
Total for the year 1932	102	3,513	14,452	18,127

The explanation generally offered for the increase is that the Workmen's Compensation Act is operating as an inducement both for work-people and employers to report accidents more frequently than in the past. But the increase in the number of serious accidents suggests that the problem is a serious one and that an organised "safety first" campaign is very desirable in India. Some progress along these lines has been made in Bombay in the mills and on the railways.

Factory Inspection—The administration of the Indian Factories Act is entrusted to Factory Inspectors in each province. Where breaches of the Act are discovered the managers of factories are prosecuted and in most cases such prosecutions result in convictions. All provinces except Assam have Factories Departments. In the Bombay Presidency the full time factory staff consists of the Chief Inspector of Factories, three Inspectors, three Assistant Inspectors and one Woman Inspector. The Chief Inspector, two Inspectors and two Assistants have their headquarters in Bombay City. An Inspector and an Assistant are stationed in Ahmedabad. The Woman Inspector has her headquarters in Bombay but has jurisdiction over the whole Presidency. She deals with problems mainly affecting women. The Bombay Presidency is the only province in India which has a Lady Inspector of Factories. A part time Certifying Surgeon is stationed in Bombay and a full time one in Ahmedabad. They have been appointed as Divisional Inspectors with powers under the Health and Sanitary sections of the Factories Act. They have also been granted powers under the provisions of the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act.

The Director and Assistant Directors of Public Health have also been appointed as Divisional Inspectors under the Health and Sanitary sections of the Act. Their reports are sent to the Chief Inspector who passes orders on the same. Local Magistrates in the districts have ex-officio powers under the Employment sections of the Act.

Reporting of Accidents—The Indian Factories Act requires the manager to report all accidents which cause death or bodily injury whereby the person injured is prevented from returning to his work in the factory during the 48 hours next after the occurrence of the accident. All classes of accidents namely, fatal, serious, i.e., accidents which prevent a person returning to work for 21 days or more, and minor are to be reported to the Inspector of Factories and to the District Magistrate and in cases of any accident resulting in death to the officer in charge of the Police Station. It is the duty of the Inspector of Factories to make an investigation as soon as possible into the causes of and the responsibility for a fatal or serious accident, and to take steps for the prosecution of the person concerned if it is found that the death or serious injury resulted from any infringement of the provisions of the Act or of the rules framed under the Act. The Act also requires notice to be given of an accident which is due to any cause that has been notified in this behalf by a Local Government, even though no injury may have resulted therefrom to any person. So far notifications have been issued under this section only in Bombay, Bengal and Burma.

Accident Prevention—The chief influences in the prevention of accidents are (a) the powers of Inspectors under the Factories Act to compel managers to erect adequate fencing and to take precautions against accidents, (b) the voluntary interest of managers in safety measures and safety precautions, and (c) the interest of insurance companies as a result of the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act. In many provinces the existing rules made under the Factories Act cover "Safety-First" measures such as compelling certain classes of workers to wear tightly fitting clothes, to prohibit children from entering into certain parts of factories, etc. Steady progress has been made in the different provinces in respect of 'safety first' propaganda, but with wide differences in caste and religion and with the low standard of efficiency the problem of organisation of safety services in industrial undertakings is a matter of some difficulty in India. Particular attention was devoted in Bengal to the safeguarding of crowded machinery in the smaller factories and orders were issued during the year 1932 in that province to 52 factories to alter, repair or reconstruct their buildings. Special attention was also directed during the year 1932 to the dangers connected with hydro extractors used in laundries and hosiery factories and to the structural soundness of factory buildings. Safety pamphlets were compiled and issued by the Factory Department in Bengal and Madras. Continued progress in the fencing of machinery and in the use of safety posters is reported to have been maintained in all provinces and increasing attention is being paid by employers throughout India to safety measures and to the inculcation in the factory employee of "Safety first" ideas. In Bombay a certain amount of ground had already been broken and the Factory Department in co-operation with organisations of industrial employers produced a set of four 'safety posters' some years ago and these have been very largely exhibited in the engineering workshops in the Presidency. Posters were also produced for the carding and spinning departments of cotton mills. The Red Cross Society was assisted in producing an All-India poster dealing with a universal risk connected with the wearing of loose-clothing which is ordinarily worn by the average Indian worker. Encouraged by the results of the posters introduced in Carding and Spinning sheds the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Bombay, produced a set of posters for the weaving department early in 1931 and these are now in fairly general use. Little has, however, been done in the factories of the Bombay Presidency in the way of specific organisations to further the cause of safety. Factories, too, are not sufficiently large to warrant the employment of a safety engineer and reliance has almost totally been placed on the activities of the inspectorate in this particular direction. Safety Committees have, however, been established in two cotton mills representative of the two largest groups in Bombay, as an experimental measure and in the R. J. M. Dockyard, the G. I. P. Railway Workshops and in the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways repair shops in Bombay. Safety Committees have been brought into existence in more than 20 mills in Ahmedabad and the Factory Department has

secured promises from other factories to establish similar committees.

Mr A. Trollip, Deputy General Manager of the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Co., Ltd., started a Safety First Association in Bombay in 1933 and he is President of this Association. The Association holds frequent Meetings at which subjects relating to safety first are discussed and it also publishes a safety first Magazine periodically. The office of the Association is at Esplanade Road, Bombay.

The railways are of course pioneers in the introduction and the continuance of active propaganda in "Safety-First" work in all departments. These activities cover railway workshops (which come under the Indian Factories Act) as well. There has been marked improvement as regards minimising accidents in railway workshops as a result of the activities of safety committees which have been established in some of them. The success of safety committees which has been established at the S. I. Railway workshops at Perambur and Golden Rock has been demonstrated by the fact that at the latter works accidents decreased by 53 per cent in 1932 as compared with 1931. A very comprehensive Safety First Organisation was established in the Parel, Matunga and Manmad Workshops of the G. I. P. Railway in 1929. The Railway administration also distributes to the employees an illustrated pamphlet on "Safety First" in which a chapter on workshop safety is included. The G. I. P. Organisation is stated to be the best of its kind. Safety Committees have also been formed in the R. I. M. Dockyard and the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company. In the United Provinces no industrial undertaking has yet introduced a safety service organisation. The Welfare Committees of the E. I. Railway Locomotive and Carriage Workshops, Lucknow, do at times discuss at their monthly meetings questions of safety brought forward by members. Safety posters, published by the Railway Administration, are displayed in all their workshops and the Indian Red Cross Society posters in all factories in the province. In furtherance of the 'safety first' movement in Bengal warning hooters or sirens have been installed in the textile factories so as to warn employees before the power plant and machinery is set in motion. An instructive handbook entitled "Safety in Factories" dealing with general matters concerning the safety of factory operatives has been compiled and published. An agreement in regard to standard guards and safety devices for jute machinery has been signed by the Indian Jute Mills Association in regard to new machinery to be installed after July 1932. Posters supplied by the Indian Red Cross Society illustrating the suitable type of dress to be worn by operatives while working on transmission machinery were distributed to factories in the different provinces, and safety propaganda of various kinds is receiving increasing attention from the large factory owners and the inspecting staff. Perhaps the best known instance where first class "safety first" work is being carried on in India is that done by the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur. The Company has since 1920 subscribed to the British Industrial Safety First Association.

and has installed notice boards all over the plant exhibiting the posters supplied by that Association. The literature received from the Association is periodically broadcast throughout the world.

The Railway Department conducts an intensive "Safety-First" propaganda every year which embraces the following among other activities.—

- (1) Safety posters and safeguards are put up on prominent points both in English and in the vernacular. Some of these, e.g., on the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway, are prepared from actual photographs of safe and unsafe methods of working in selected branches of manufacture and maintenance work in the railway workshops.
- (2) An illustrated booklet was compiled by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway during the year 1926-27 which has been translated into a number of vernacular languages and distributed throughout the line on certain railways.
- (3) Photographs and special articles are published in the Railway magazines for the instruction of the staff.
- (4) Inspecting subordinates are instructed to take the opportunity, while visiting stations, of addressing the staff on "Safety-First".
- (5) Coloured pictures showing the right and wrong way of doing a job are posted at various places for the benefit of the illiterate staff.
- (6) A "Safety-First" film was prepared by the Central Publicity Bureau during the year 1927-28 and copies distributed to railways. The film is displayed weekly by the travelling cinemas of the railways.
- (7) A "Safety-First" pamphlet has been prepared by the Central Publicity Bureau and is being issued to all railway administrations.

First-Aid and Medical Relief—Some of the Local Governments have framed rules requiring the provision, under the charge of responsible persons and in readily accessible positions, of first-aid appliances containing an adequate number of sterilised dressings and some sterilised cotton in all factories employing 500 and more operatives. Most of the factories are situated within easy reach of Government hospitals or hospitals maintained by Local Authorities but many of the larger and enlightened employers are already maintaining their own medical staff and equipment which

are easily available in cases of accidents. The Millowners' Association, Bombay, started classes for First Aid training in conjunction with the St. John Ambulance Association in 1931. These classes have been successful and facilities have since been provided for the training of men deputed by the Engineering Safety Committee also. In the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur boxes with first-aid supplies are maintained in each department and two first-aid hospitals in different parts of the plant are staffed with doctors and compounders in readiness to render first-aid to injured persons. During 1934 the Assistant Commissioners of Labour of the Government of Bombay who visited about 750 perennial factories in all parts of the Bombay Presidency Proper requested all managements to instal first aid boxes in all departments as far as possible.

Mines—The Indian Mines Act of 1923 empowers the Governor-General in Council to frame regulations for the safety of persons employed in mines (Section 29, clauses (k) to (p)). Local Governments are also empowered to frame rules under the Act to ensure the proper fencing of a mine for the protection of the public. In addition, the Chief Inspector of Mines may call upon the owner, agent or manager of a mine to frame bye-laws which are not inconsistent with the provisions of the Act, regulations or rules to prevent accidents and to provide for the safety, convenience and discipline of the persons employed in the mine (Section 32). The bye-laws, when approved by the Local Government, have effect as enacted under the Act. Further, Section 19 of the Act gives special powers to the Inspector of Mines to take action when any danger is apprehended which is not expressly provided for by the Act, regulations, rules and the bye-laws. The Governor-General in Council has framed two sets of regulations, namely, the Indian Coal Mines Regulations, 1926, which apply only to coal mines and the Indian Metalliferous Mines Regulations, 1926, which apply to all other mines. These regulations provide for the proper maintenance of shafts and outlets, roads and working places, haulage arrangements, fencing and gates, for the restrictions which have to be observed in raising or lowering persons or materials, for the precautions to be taken in the use of explosives, and for adequate ventilation and lighting.

During the year 1933 at Mines regulated by the Indian Mines Act, 1923, there were 142 fatal accidents, which is 21 less than in 1932, and 58 less than the average number in the preceding five years. In addition to the fatal accidents there were 655 serious accidents involving injuries to 670 persons, as compared with 600 serious accidents involving injuries to 613 persons in the previous year. No record is maintained of minor accidents. 153 persons were killed and 702 persons were seriously injured. The latter figure includes 32 persons injured in fatal accidents. The number of persons killed is 47 less than in 1932. 130 of the persons killed were men and 23 were women. In four cases three lives, and in two cases two lives were lost. The

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1922 which was the first step towards compensation passed in this country in April 1922. On July 1st, 1921 The Act covered the following persons:- Some of the workmen employed by employers, including those employed in the sewage works and tramways, and as the draftsmen of such undertakings, and to those employed in a stipulated number of only a very small part of the fishing boats, seamen and other members of the Navy, except for seamen, however, the Indian Civil Service agreement between the Government of India and foreign steamship companies, under which the latter were to take the action in the event of articles of a charter whereby the company agreed to pay compensation to injured Indian seamen on the same basis as if they were covered by the Act and all questions as to compensation are decided by Commissions of Workmen's Compensation in India. An Indian seaman employed on a British ship heally came under the English Act and the question of the claim referred to always does away with the practical difficulties which would arise if Indian seamen had to claim compensation in the English or other foreign courts. The five main classes of workmen covered by the Act are workers in factories, mines, docks and on railways practically all of whom are included and therefore covered in certain types of building work, notably the construction of industrial and commercial buildings and any other buildings which run to more than one storey. The most important classes excluded altogether are agricultural workers and domestic servants. Non-manual labourers getting more than Rs 300 a month are excluded, except on the railways. Power was taken to include other hazardous occupations by notification from time to time. All occupations involving lasting operations were thus directed by the Governor-General in Council as hazardous occupations. Compensation is to be given as in the English Act, for personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of employment. It is also to be given for disease in certain cases. The provisions for disease have been so framed that if a certain class of workmen contracts a scheduled disease, it will

[illegible][illegible]

The Amending Acts of 1929 and 1931 — The main feature of the Amending Act of 1929 was (1) the discharge of responsibility on working employees in the construction, repair or demolition of a building or bridge with regard to their liability or compensation except in the case of death or permanent total disablement was removed. (2) all payments to dependents of the deceased workmen (except advances to the extent of Rs 50 for funeral expenses) of the deceased workman and to the extent of a hundred rupees on account of compensation to any dependent) and any lump sums payable to minors are to be paid through the Commissioner; (3) deposits of trivial amounts i.e. less than Rs 10 have been done away with. (4) provision was made for the protection of lump

sums payable to a woman or a person under legal disability by empowering the Commissioner to invest, apply or otherwise deal with them for the benefit of the woman, or of such person during his disability, (5) powers are vested in the Commissioner to recover any amount obtained by any person by fraud, impersonation or other improper means and (6) the benefits of the Act were extended to (a) any person employed for the purpose of loading, unloading, fuelling, constructing, repairing, demolishing cleaning or painting any ship of which he is not the master or a member of the crew, or (b) employed on a railway as defined in Sections 3 (4) and 148 (1) of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, by a person fulfilling a contract with a railway administration, or (c) employed as an inspector, mail guard, sorter or van poon in the Railway Mail Service, or (d) employed in connection with operations for winning natural petroleum or natural gas, as a rig-builder, driller, driller's helper, oil-well puller or bailing or cleaning oil wells or putting in and taking out casings or drill pipes in oil wells or (e) employed in any occupation involving blasting operations

In 1931 the Act was further extended to cover workmen engaged in the construction, etc., of aerial ropeways

The Amending Act of 1933—The Royal Commission on Indian Labour made a number of recommendations for expanding the scope of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, and on effecting improvements in it. The Government of India, in the Department of Industries and Labour, introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly on the 22nd February 1932 giving effect to the Commission's recommendations and it was passed in 1933. It came into force on 1st July 1933 but certain sections of the Amending Act were brought into operation from 1st January 1934 in order to give time to the industries covered for making the necessary insurance arrangements in view of the alterations made in the amounts of compensation payable. The principal amendments made in the Act are as follows—

(a) The definition of "dependant" has been recast so as to divide dependents into two categories, placing in the first those who are practically or wholly dependent and in the second those who in any way not be in that position. Widowed daughters, widowed sisters and widowed daughters-in-law as well as illegitimate children have been included in the list of dependents

(b) The scope of the Act has been extended so as to cover as completely as possible all workers in organised industries whether their occupations are hazardous or not and a step has been taken in the direction of extending the benefits of the Acts to workers in less organised industries when employment is subject to much risk. The distinction which existed between seamen employed in the ships registered in India and those in ships registered in foreign countries has been removed. Any person employed as the master or a seaman of any ship which is propelled by mechanical power or towed by a ship so propelled as well as in any other kind of ship whose net tonnage is 50 tons or more are

brought within the scope of the Act. Not only workmen employed within the precincts of a factory but also men engaged in any kind of work incidental to or connected with work in a factory are entitled to the benefit of the Act. Other classes of workers included within the scope of the Act are drivers of private motor-cars, workers employed in handling explosives or in the construction of any building twenty feet or more in height or in the construction, working, repair or demolition of any aerial ropeway or in any occupation ordinarily involving outdoor work in the Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department, or in the operation of any ferry boat capable of carrying more than ten persons or in any estate which is maintained for the purpose of growing cinchona, coffee, rubber or tea, or in a lighthouse as defined in clause (d) of section 2 of the Indian Lighthouse Act, 1927, or in producing or exhibiting cinematograph pictures, or in the training, keeping or working of elephants or wild animals or employed as a diver

(c) The waiting period has been reduced from ten to seven days

(d) The scales of compensation for death and permanent total disablement which are graded according to seventeen wage classes, have been considerably enhanced and the minimum rate introduced represents an increase of over 100 per cent on that given under the original Act, while the maximum is increased by 60 per cent. The basis of calculation of the amount of compensation in the case of death or permanent total disablement is the same as before, i.e., 30 months wages for the former and 42 months wages for the latter for adults. The maximum amounts of compensation for death and permanent total disablement have been increased from Rs 2,500 and Rs 3,500 to Rs 4,000 and Rs 5,600 respectively. In the case of minors there is no change in the amount of compensation for death but the maximum compensation for permanent total disablement has been prescribed at a uniform rate of Rs 1,200 as against 84 months wages or Rs 3,500 whichever is less in the original Act. The maximum limit to the amount of half-monthly payments in the case of temporary disablement to both adults and minors has been raised from Rs 15 to Rs 30

(e) New provisions have been inserted into the Act enabling the interests of dependents in cases of fatal accidents to be better safeguarded by ensuring that (i) in as many cases as possible, fatal accidents are brought to the notice of Commissioners, (ii) where the employer admits liability, compensation is to be deposited promptly, and (iii) where the employer disclaims liability and there are good grounds for believing compensation to be payable, the dependents get the information necessary to enable them to judge if they should make a claim or not

(f) A contractor has the right to be indemnified by his sub-contractor if he has had to pay compensation either to the principal or to the workman

(g) An employer may make to any dependant advances on account of compensation not exceeding an aggregate of one hundred rupees, and so much of such aggregate as does not exceed

The details of agreements (i) disposed of, (ii) registered as filed and (iii) rejected on account of inadequacy are given below for each year—

Year	Number of Agreements.			
	Disposed of.	Registered as filed.	Registered after modification	Not registered on account of inadequacy, etc
1924	41	33	1	7
1925	390	390	3	6
1926	591	583	5	3
1927	701	682	12	7
1928	857	855	25	7
1929	1,046	1,024	14	8
1930	1,007	950	29	28
1931	1,080	1,018	18	24
1932	993	942	22	29
1933	1,033	985	18	30

Effect on Industry—A compulsory system of workmen's compensation enhances the cost of production but not to any appreciable extent. In the case of coal mines, the increase in cost has been estimated to be not more than annas four per ton of coal (*vide para 31* of the Report of the Indian Coal Committee, 1925). However, the owners of many of the smaller coal mines were compelled to close down their mines but this was due mainly to the severe depression with which the industry was faced. In the Punjab the proprietors of the coal mines in the Jhelum District were reported to be not satisfied with the privileges enjoyed by the miners under the Act as some of them had to pay as compensation on a single accident more than they could earn during a month. An unexpected increase in the number of serious and fatal accidents may undoubtedly make a big hole in the profits of a concern but the remedy for this lies in accident insurance. Facilities for accident insurance are now being provided by a number of leading insurance companies in this country and the most important of these are the Claims Bureaux in Calcutta

and Madras. The Calcutta Claims Bureau which represents many of the leading insurance companies operating in India deals with a large number of claims and offers valuable co-operation to the authorities in settling compensation claims. In Bombay, insurance companies were concerned with half the number of cases that came up before the Commissioner Insurance Companies as a rule contest only cases involving questions of law or principle and are of benefit to all concerned. In these provinces insurance is widely resorted to by the employers especially in the Textile Industry. The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd., Bombay, is an organisation of employers one of whose objects is the Mutual insurance of members against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them or their dependants for injuries or accidents, fatal or otherwise, arising out of or in the course of employment. The Association has about 60 members and is controlled by a Board of Directors. In other Provinces accident insurance does not appear to have made much progress.

INDUSTRIAL HOUSING.

One of the most vital problems facing industrial employers in India to-day is that connected with the housing of the labour which they employ. The importance and the urgency of providing decent housing cannot be sufficiently emphasized.

The conditions of industrial housing in India are, in many cases, appalling and the majority of buildings, tenements or huts in which industrial labourers are housed are insanitary and more or less uninhabitable from Western points of view. Provincial Governments, Municipalities, Improvement Trusts and the larger employers have done a great deal to mitigate the evils resulting from an insufficiency of decent sanitary housing for labour, but a considerable amount still remains to be done before this question can be considered to have been satisfactorily solved.

Several commissions and committees of inquiry appointed by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments in connection with various subjects have dealt with the question of industrial housing. The Industrial Commission in 1918 urged that, in addition to the scheme followed by the Improvement Trust in Bombay, other measures should be adopted such as the refusal of permission with a few exceptions, to fresh industrial concerns to be established, the setting up in cities of special areas, for industrial development, the removal of the existing railway workshops from cities, supply of housing accommodation to employees by railways, Government departments and public bodies, improved communications with a view to creating industrial suburbs, and a definite programme of construction to be taken up by local authorities. The findings of

other commissions and committees with regard to this question follow similar lines.

Labour Commission's Recommendations—The Royal Commission on Indian Labour have made several recommendations in connection with Industrial Housing. These recommendations fall under various categories, (1) Legislative Action by the Central Government; (2) Administrative Action by the Central Government; (3) Legislative Action by Provincial Governments; (4) Administrative Action by Provincial Governments; (5) Administrative Action by public bodies such as Municipalities, Improvement Trusts, etc., and (6) action by employers and workers' organisations. The recommendations under the first head included a suggestion to amend the Land Acquisition Act in such a way as to enable owners of industrial concerns to acquire land for the erection of workers' dwellings. The Government of India introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly to amend the Land Acquisition Act in the manner suggested and this Bill was passed into law in 1933. The Commission's recommendations under the second head mostly concern Railways, and although the Railway Board agrees on the vital urgency of providing greater facilities for inadequate housing it has come to the conclusion that no material advance can be made in this direction at present owing to financial stringency.

The Commission's recommendations with regard to legislative action by Provinces are of a very ambitious character. They include Town Planning Acts for the Bombay and the Bengal Presidencies providing for the acquisition and lay out of suitable areas for working class housing, the opening up and reconstruction of congested and insanitary areas, the "Zoning" of industrial and urban areas and Government grants and loans to approved schemes. For administrative action by Local Governments, the Commission recommend that they should make surveys of urban and industrial areas to ascertain their needs in regard to housing, and that they should then arrange for conferences with all interested parties in order that decisions may be taken as to practicable schemes and the methods whereby their cost should be shared. Where suitable Government land is available, Government should be prepared to sell or lease to those who agree to build houses within a specified period, and Government should announce their willingness to subsidise in this or other ways employees' housing schemes approved by them. The Commission further recommended that Government should insist that all local authorities should frame bye-laws laying down minimum standards in regard to floor and cubic space, ventilation and lighting and that the Governments themselves should draw up regulations for water supplies, drainage schemes and standards for latrines. For action by Public Bodies, the Commission recommend that the provision of working class housing should be a statutory obligation on every Improvement Trust and that it should be possible for Improvement Trusts to provide land, roads, sewers and sanitary conveniences for new areas but that street lighting and water mains should be a charge on Municipalities. Improvement Trusts

should be placed in a position to remove themselves from the entanglement of land values resulting from their activities. It has also been suggested that co-operative building societies and similar activities should be encouraged. In view, however, of the present financial stringency prevailing in all Provinces it is very doubtful whether most of the Provincial Government will be in a position to do much in the matter of the Commission's recommendations on Industrial Housing.

Bombay Presidency.—The first attempt to improve housing conditions in Bombay City was made after the plague of 1895 when the heavy mortality and the great exodus that followed produced the tide and industry of Bombay. The Bombay Improvement Trust was established in 1895 "for the work of making new street, opening out crowded localities, reclaiming lands from the sea to provide room for the expansion of the city and constructing sanitary dwellings for the poor and the poor." Owing to its limited powers and the various difficulties which it encountered the Trust had to content itself for the first few years of its existence with "slum pitching," the development of a few building sites, the construction of a few clinics and the development of roads. In more recent years, however, the Trust has been able to do a considerable amount of good work in the direction of industrial housing and has built over 1,500 tenements for housing its own labour and 82 civil containing about 4,000 tenements in all for housing labour in general. The Bombay Improvement Trust which engages on an average about 200 manual workers in all its departments has provided accommodation for a little over 3,000 of them. The Bombay Municipality has provided a large number of chawls for its employees as will be evidenced by the fact that nearly 75 per cent of the seven and a half thousand scavengers employed are provided with quarters. Varying proportions of the numbers of employees in the other departments of the Municipality are also provided with adequate housing. According to the information collected by the Bombay Labour Office in 1925, 28 out of the 76 textile mills in Bombay City which furnished information for the enquiry had provided housing for their operatives. 7 out of these mills provided residential accommodation only for employees in the Watch and Ward Department and the rooms provided were given free of rent. In the 22 mills which provide partial housing for all classes of operatives, the number of workers who lived in the tenements provided amounted to 12,149 out of 61,720 employed. The G. I. P. Railway owns 20 chawls containing 841 one-room tenements and the B. D. & C. I. Railway owns more than 800 one-room tenements for housing their employees. The Labour office of the Government of Bombay conducted an elaborate enquiry into industrial housing in all perennial factories in the Bombay Presidency. Proper in 1934 as a part of the General Wage Census but the results of this investigation were not published at the time when we went to Press.

No action was taken by the Local Government in Bombay City for housing general industrial labour till after the end of the war. A

found in occupation of unlicensed premises the management is liable to prosecution. No rent is however charged and subletting is not known.

The Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur have built nearly 5,000 residential buildings. Of these, 801 are rented at over Rs 20 per month. Sixteen are rated as hotels. The accommodation provided at present is insufficient and one of the problems the Company will have to face is the provision of a larger amount of housing.

Punjab—Housing conditions of industrial workers in this Province is reported as continuing to show steady progress. Most of the newly constructed factories have provided quarters for their permanent staff. Although at present less than 30 per cent of the total permanent labour strength of the factories are housed in factory quarters there has been a distinct advance in this respect in 1933, and in all cases where housing was provided the accommodation was superior to that which the workers could ordinarily obtain outside the factory premises.

Assam—Free quarters are provided for all residential employees on tea estates. Such non-resident labour as is employed is casual labour which comes from the adjoining villages and lives in its own houses. In the mines and oil fields free quarters are provided for the labour force employed. A Committee of Inquiry appointed in 1921-22 recommended that endeavours should be made to house immigrants from different provinces together in hamlets instead of putting workers from all provinces indiscriminately into barracks or lines. The main objection to this recommendation is the want of land as all available land is under tea. The housing conditions in the coal and oil fields are reported as being quite satisfactory. In Assam the tea estates are

regularly inspected by District and Sub-Divisional officers. Although the legal powers of interference have been curtailed by the abolition of indentured labour and the repeal of so much of Act VI of 1901 as related to such labour, still in practice the inspecting officers do invariably report on the condition of the lines. They call attention to the need of improvement and the management is generally ready to effect such improvements as are considered necessary.

Other Provinces—No special remarks are necessary in connection with the question of industrial housing in other provinces. Generally speaking no industrial slums as such or any big urban inflammation due to the presence of agglomerations of factory or other workers is particularly noticeable and the housing of labour is not to be differentiated from the ordinary poor citizen.

Except in those cases where Government action has been definitely indicated, the governments of the various other provinces in India have done nothing for the improvement of industrial housing.

Railways—The general policy on railways is to provide residential quarters where it is necessary for special reasons to provide accommodation for certain classes close to their work and where conditions are such that private enterprise does not adequately meet the demand for housing the staff. The total expenditure incurred on housing provided by the principal railways since the commencement of operations amounts to nearly twenty-six crores, while the expenditure incurred during the last five years amounts to over seven crores. Notwithstanding this expenditure there is, at present, a considerable dearth of quarters on most railways. Endeavours are, however, continuously made to construct new houses in accordance with an annually pre-arranged programme as funds permit.

HEALTH.

No satisfactory statistics are available regarding health conditions of industrial workers, e.g., morbidity rates among the workers, their average weight, height, etc., and in the absence of any sound statistical data it is not possible to generalise about these matters. The problems associated with health are always difficult, they are much more so in a country where both climate and the poverty and ignorance of the people contribute to recurring outbreaks of tropical and other epidemic diseases. The main cause of ill-health particularly among the workers in Bombay and Bengal, appears to be the prevalence of malaria in the localities in which they live. Major Corvell, the Special Officer appointed by the Government of Bombay to enquire into malarial conditions in Bombay City who submitted his report in 1928, says "It (Malaria) is still present in certain quarters of the southern portion of the City to a serious extent, but the most intense malaria at the present time exists in the vicinity of the mills, more especially in Worli and Parel sections. In the northernmost portion of

Worli section, malaria is also slight, but as soon as the edge of the mill area is reached the incidence of the disease rises abruptly and extends over the greater part of Worli and Parel. The correlation between the intensity of Malaria and the proximity of mills was most striking, especially in certain cases where a single isolated mill happened to be present, e.g., the Victoria Mill in Chowpaty and the Colaba Land Mill in Colaba. The vast majority of the mills in Bombay are situated in the highly malarious area." The anti-malarial measures taken by the City Municipality have however resulted in a gradual reduction of the number of deaths from malarial attacks.

In the mines in the Madras Presidency, Malaria prevails in the Cuddapah district and at every change of season there is a prevalence of widespread fever. Malaria also prevails in the Thummaragudi mines throughout the year and the cold winds during the rainy season from Sandur Hills affect the health of the labourers in the mines of Tonasigeri. Tuberculosis prevails among industrial workers in the United

Provinces and Bihar and Orissa, and *Kala Azar* is common among workers in certain tracts like Bihar and Orissa

The following table gives the birth and death rates and the rate of infant mortality per thousand of the population for some of the important industrial centres. The figures, however, relate

to the whole population in most cases and as such are not likely to give an adequate idea regarding mortality, etc., among industrial workers. Besides, in certain cities like Bombay, it is customary for married working class women to leave the city for their confinement and register births in the mofussil.

A table showing (a) Birth-rate and (b) Death-rate per thousand of population and (c) Infant mortality for 1,000 registered births for certain important industrial centres

Centre	Period	Birth-rate per 1,000 of population	Death-rate per 1,000 of population	Infant mortality per 1,000 registered births
Bombay .	1933	26 6	23 4	260 00,
Ahmedabad .	1929	47 02	40 06	331.05
Sholapur .	"	44 03	34 53	228 73
Karachi	"	55 83	30 97	230 55
Nagpur .	"	50 03	52 24	290.77
Amraoti	"	59 00	40 14	330 91
Alola ..	"	41 73	35 36	251 27
Cawnpore .	"	36 04	52 70	420 34.
Lucknow	"	43 08	75 81	469 22
Allahabad ..	"	46 31	38 44	258 70

The relation between overcrowding and infant mortality is brought out in the following table extracted from the annual report of the Municipal Commissioner for Bombay City.—

Infant Mortality by the Number of Rooms occupied in 1933

Number of rooms	Births		Deaths.		Infant mortality per 1,000 births registered	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage.	1933.	1932
1 Room & under	18,611	60 4	6,408	77 0	344	438
2 Rooms .	7,038	22 7	1,414	17 0	201	205
3 ..	600	2 2	121	1 5	175	204
4 or more Rooms	1,920	6 1	209	3 6	155	129
Hospitals .	2,085	8 6	58	0 7	21	66
Road side	7	0 0	20	0 2	.	.
Total..	30,926	100 0	8,320	100 0	269	218

Working conditions—The factory department in Bombay has done much work in investigating the efficiency of different humidifying and ventilating plants in the weaving and spinning departments of Mills in Ahmedabad. As a result, all the new textile mills which have been constructed in Ahmedabad during the last few years are equipped with efficient ventilating and cooling systems and the benefits both to the workers and the processes involved are well recognised at that centre. There has been an extensive 'uplift' in the older mills and there is hardly a mill that has not made efforts in the direction indicated. There has latterly been a marked tendency to increase the pace of improvements in the spinning departments and one group of mills has installed 12 expensive plants that effectively cool and humidify the atmospheres of the spinning as well as of the weaving departments. A few mills in Bombay City have also installed new cooling and humidifying systems. A few other mills provide vacuum stripping apparatus in the carding departments. A plenum system of blowing external air near the workers in the boiling department of a soap factory produced results gratifying both to the worker and the management and it is hoped to extend the method to a few industries where the removal of surplus heat is a difficult matter. An enquiry made into the effect of employment on the health of the dhobi bleachers in Ahmedabad revealed that although there was little history of rheumatism, some are adversely effected by working with bleaching solutions. Several workers were found to be suffering from hyperaemia of the legs, but it was obvious later on that more care was being exercised by the contractors. Most of the dhobi work is done in uncovered tanks in the compounds and no shelters are provided. It is said that the men are used to working in the hot Ahmedabad sun, but even the donkeys used so freely for load carrying take advantage of the shade when they are permitted to do so. The Bengal Reports refer to the question of dust removal in Jute Mills and Tea factories and to the investigations made to determine at what stage dust or fluff impregnation may be regarded as definitely injurious. It is considered that where exhaust trunk extracting systems are deemed to be essential in all factories in an industry the necessity to instal such equipment should be promulgated by rule. The continued trade depression, however, precluded the issue of a general order by Government. The majority of firms find the initial cost of such installations prohibitive but a few concerns have provided mechanical ventilation in their factories. Although some improvement in ventilation has been effected during the years 1932 and 1933, the bad design and unsuitability of the majority of the buildings occupied by the smaller factories is stated to be still the chief obstacle to all round progress. In regard to Cotton ginning factories the Panjab Reports state that "ventilation is far from satisfactory but apart from a drastic alteration in the method of ginning little can be done to improve ventilation sufficiently to dispose of the dust in ginning rooms, the cost of such alteration is at present prohibitive." The Central Provinces' Reports mention that ventilation arrangements

on the whole, shown satisfactory improvement in most perennial factories. In the present conditions, owners of ginning factories are unable to adopt the expensive system of ducts and exhaust fans to overcome the dust nuisance. The provision of ridge ventilation in cotton ginning factories has been a standard practice in the United Provinces in respect of new factories and is reported to have proved satisfactory when combined with a reasonable height of roof. Ventilation in other factories is steadily improving though the progress is not quite rapid due to depressed trade conditions. The extended use of electricity is steadily improving the general standard of lighting and is commended on with approval in the Provincial factory reports for the year 1933. The factory department in the province of Bihar and Orissa has compiled a little guide book to "Safety, Lighting and Ventilation in small factories," based on photometric observations, in order to help interested persons and builders of factories to so adjust the window area as to secure sufficient amount of natural lighting.

Extent of Medical Facilities provided—The results of a recent enquiry into Welfare work conducted by the Labour Office shows that the provision of facilities for medical attendance and the supply of medicines is fairly general in all the larger labour-employing organisations in the Bombay Presidency. The Textile Labour Union in Ahmedabad is the only association of employees which provides medical facilities for its members. There are also Government, Municipal or charitable hospitals and dispensaries which are open to the public and which are used by the labouring classes. In the United Provinces, many of the larger employers maintain dispensaries but no hospitals. The Dufferin Fund, a private organisation aided by grants from Government and local bodies, maintains female hospitals at the more important towns. The Lady Chelmsford Maternity and Child Welfare League maintains a number of centres for child welfare and the treatment of maternity cases. Many of the employers in the Central Provinces and Bihar have provided well-equipped dispensaries, and medical facilities are within easy reach of the workers in almost all the factories and every important mining area in the Province. Some of the larger concerns in Bihar and Orissa and in the Punjab also provide medical facilities for their employees. In Madras only a few large factories provide dispensaries. Medical facilities in the plantations are, however, fairly good. All the jute mills in the neighbourhood of Calcutta provide dispensaries but most of the doctors in charge are not registered medical graduates. Owing to financial stringency the Indian Jute Mills Association were unable to take any action on the welfare survey conducted by a lady doctor in the mill area and leprosy survey carried out by the school of tropical medicine. In spite of the general depression, the Jute Iron Works built a hospital with up-to-date equipment. In all the tea gardens in Assam and in Bengal medical attendance and medicine are provided for all classes of workers. The medical arrangements in a few of the larger concerns are supervised by

equipped hospitals are also provided for the labour force in the mines and oil-fields in Assam. Part-time medical attendance and medicines are provided by the employers in the Assam Oil Mines Board Area. Medical facilities are also provided in the mines in Madras. In the Jharia Mining Settlement eight hospitals are maintained by employers, the number of beds varying from 6 to 12 in each ward.

All the Provincial Factory Reports for the year 1933 record a year of normal health amongst factory workers. There was no declaration of industry anywhere on account of epidemics during the year 1933 except perhaps to some extent in Poona on account of the severe epidemic of plague in that City which lasted from July to October. Continued improvement in general sanitary conditions in the larger factories is reported in all provinces. In Bombay concentration on several factories of the bazaar type has led to considerable improvements and a rise in the standard of neighbouring smaller concerns not yet amenable to this Act. The lack of municipal facilities for the disposal of trade waste in Ahmedabad is stated to be a cause of insanitary factory surroundings in that area. Conditions in the Dharavi Tanneries in the Bombay Presidency were investigated during 1932 and considerable improvements were effected. There was marked improvement in the sanitary conditions of factories in the Titagarh area in Bengal on account of the successful installation of a sewerage scheme. The Bihar and Orissa report for 1932 states that the advisability and possibility of appointing Medical Inspectors of Factories was under consideration of the local Government. The United Provinces Report refers to occasional cases of persons suffering from obnoxious diseases being employed in food product factories and states that the Medical Officers of Health were asked to give this question attention in their capacities as Additional Inspectors of Factories with a view to stopping the practice. A Sanitary Inspector was appointed in the Western India Match factory at Tiruvallur (Madras) to be in charge of the anti-maternal campaign. A medical officer has also been appointed at a new factory established in Bombay for the manufacture of lead accumulators.

Maternity Benefits.

In September 1924, Mr N M Joshi made the first attempt in the Legislative Assembly to introduce a Bill to make provision for the payment of maternity benefits in certain industries. Under this Bill, the Local Governments were to be asked to establish a Maternity Benefit Fund and to make payments out of this Fund. The Bill, after circulation, was thrown out by the Assembly in August 1925.

The first Province in India to pass a Maternity Benefit Act was Bombay. The Act came into force on 1st July 1929. According to this Act, the payment of maternity benefits is an obligation which is imposed directly on the employer. The Annual Report on the administration of this Act for the year ending 30th June 1933 shows there were 117 claims paid per 100 women employed and the total amount of maternity benefit paid under

the Act was Rs 1,37,813. The statistics for the half year ending December 1933 show that out of an average daily number of 1,409 women employed in the areas to which the Act applies, 2,110 women applied for benefit and that 2,723 women, or 62 per cent of those employed, were paid benefits amounting to Rs. 61,417-4-0. The Bombay Municipality has started since February 1928, a maternal benefit scheme by which benefit is given to halalkhore and scavenging women in the form of leave with full pay not exceeding 42 consecutive days, including the date of confinement, as certified by the Executive Health Officer, if the birth takes place in Bombay, and by a Police Patrol or by hospital authorities if it takes place out of Bombay.

An Act was passed by the Central Provinces Council in 1930 on the same lines as that in Bombay. During the year 1931 benefits amounting to Rs. 4,132 were paid to 146 women workers as compared with Rs. 12,591 paid to 605 women workers in the previous year.

In Assam, voluntary maternity benefit schemes have been adopted by almost every tea estate of repute. While pregnant women remain at work, they are put on light work on full rates of pay. During the period of advanced pregnancy and after childbirth leave on half pay is usually granted and in some cases full pay is allowed and a bonus at childbirth is often granted in addition. The bonus is in some cases conditional on the child being healthy. The Assam Railways and Trading Company, the next largest employers of labour in Assam, grants six months' leave on half pay provided the women have been examined by the medical officers and attend hospital once a week. The Assam Oil Company grants leave on half pay for three months. On some estates in Coimbatore District female coolies are fed free for a month before and a month after confinement. On other estates, maternity benefit ranging from Rs 3 to Rs 5 is paid and in some other estates free feeding of the women for two weeks before and three weeks after confinement is arranged.

Labour Commission's Recommendations.—Among the more important recommendations made by the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in connexion with the health of the industrial worker are the following.—

- (a) India should have an Institute of Nutrition (The Government of India have postponed action on this recommendation indefinitely for want of funds)
- (b) Local authorities should construct sanitary markets in all urban and industrial areas
- (c) Adulteration of Foods Acts should be in force in all Provinces.
- (d) In industrial provinces Public Health Departments should be strengthened to deal with industrial hygiene and industrial disease
- (e) Women should be appointed to public health staff particularly in the more industrialised Provinces
- (f) Comprehensive Public Health Act should be passed in all Provinces.

(g) Where piped water supplies are not available special precautions as to purity should be taken

(h) Every provincial health department, every railway administration and all Boards of Health and welfare in mining areas should employ full time malarialogists

(i) A Government diploma for health visitors should be instituted as the recognised qualification required of all women aspiring to such posts

(j) In the larger industrial areas Governments local authorities and industrial management, should co-operate in the development of child welfare centres and women's clinics; and Government should give percentage grants for approved schemes

(k) Maternity Benefit legislation on the lines of the Bombay and Central Provinces Acts should be enacted in all Provinces, and

(l) All methods should be explored that may lead to the alleviation of existing hardships arising from the need of provision for sickness

Amendment of the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act—It was represented to Government that the Act requires amendment in certain respects and the Royal Commission on Labour have also dealt with the question of maternity benefit. Accordingly the Government of Bombay introduced in the Local Legislative Council on the 11th August 1933

a Bill to amend the Act. The Bill was referred to a select committee on the same day and was passed in 1934. The following changes have been made in the Act—

(a) The maximum period for which a woman shall be entitled to benefit is raised from seven to eight weeks

(b) The qualifying period of service is raised from 6 months to 9 months

(c) The benefit was payable in three instalments, one at birth of a child and the other two thereafter. The Act now provides for payments to be made either in two instalments, one before and the other after child-birth or in one lump sum payment after delivery

(d) There was no time-limit within which the benefit may be claimed. The Amending Act prescribes a limit of six months after child-birth

The Select Committee did not agree to the proposed changes in the rate of benefit and deleted the clauses in the Bill relating to this question

Under their rule-making powers under the Act, the Local Government made a new rule in December 1933 which makes an employer liable for paying maternity benefit in the event of his closing his factory. A woman entitled to maternity benefit is not to be deemed dismissed within the provisions of Section 8, if she is discharged on account of the closing of the factory in which she is employed.

WELFARE WORK.

(Excluding Health and Housing).

In 1926, the Government of India requested all Provincial Governments to collect full and comprehensive information with regard to the measures undertaken and the efforts made to ameliorate the conditions under which the workers live when they are not actually employed. The enquiry originated as the result of the Recommendation adopted by the Sixth Session of the International Labour Conference in connexion with the development of facilities for the utilisation of workers' spare time. The Labour Office of the Govt. of Bombay conducted an enquiry in the Bombay Presidency, the results of which were published in the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for January 1927.

Apart from the few individual employers who have organised welfare work on modern lines, the first organised attempt to introduce welfare activities of a particular type was taken by the Bombay Millowners' Association early in 1930. In a circular letter dated 8th January, 1930, addressed to the mills affiliated to the Bombay Millowners' Association, this Association requested all mills in Bombay City to give their wholehearted co-operation to their efforts for devising machinery for the improvement of the relations between the management and labour by giving immediate effect, wherever it was possible, among other things, to those classes of welfare work which have been uniformly successful, *e.g.* (a) periodical social gatherings of workpeople, (b) provision of free mill dispensaries as soon as financial considerations permit and (c) the establishment of creches at all mills.

There were in 1934 nearly 30 cotton mills in Bombay City which provided creches and in one of these mills the creche was for untouchables only. Several of the mills which have creches have staffed the creches with both qualified nurses and *ayahs*. Light food such as milk, biscuits, etc. is given to the children in 17 cases and in 13 of them change of clothes also is provided for under the new factories Act which came into force from 1st January 1935 it is obligatory on all factories employing more than fifty women workers are ordinarily employed a suitable room shall be provided for the use of children under the age of six years belonging to such women. Local Governments are empowered to make rules prescribing the standards for such rooms and the nature of the supervision to be exercised over the children therein. Only seven working mills have no dispensaries for their workmen. A few mills keep patent medicines only. A large majority of the mills which maintain dispensaries have engaged full-time compounders. The E. D. Sassoon & Company have employed two male doctors and a lady doctor for the benefit of their employees and the company also have a staff for antimalarial propaganda. Nearly a third of the total number of the working mills in Bombay provide night schools for the education of their employees. The Sassoons also offer facilities to the workers for technical education. Facilities for recreation of a regular character such as games, wrestling, etc. are provided for by about ten mills. Occasional recreational activities like cinemas, dramas

muslo, etc., are arranged for in a few mills while in a few others annual social gatherings are held. Tea shops are provided in a good number of mills while cheap grain shops for the benefit of the workers are run by four mills. The Sassoon group of mills allow their workmen to make purchases from their cloth shops at 10 per cent discount on credit, recoveries being made from wages. The employees of 17 mills enjoy the benefits of provident funds while pension schemes for employees are in force in 9 mills. Co-operative credit societies are established in 23 out of the 65 working mills studied.

More complete and up-to-date information on all welfare items will be available as a result of a very comprehensive enquiry conducted by the Bombay Labour office in 1934 as a part of its General Wage Census programme covering all perennial factories in the Presidency Proper.

The Royal Commission on Indian Labour have recommended that there should be a more general extension on the part of the employer of welfare work in its broader sense, and that in the larger jute and cotton industrial areas, mills and factories should organise in groups, each establishment having its own welfare centre and health visitor under the supervision of a woman doctor employed by the group.

The All-India Industrial Welfare Conference of 1922 passed a resolution that social service organisations should be asked to take up the work of training welfare workers. The establishments of workers' committees in all industrial establishments was also urged but very little progress appears to have been made so far in this direction.

In the Bombay Presidency except in the case of the Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Mills in Sholapur and the Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute at Bombay, no other employers have employed any special welfare officers or workers to conduct their welfare activities. But Messrs E. D. Sassoon & Co., Ltd., have appointed a Labour Officer for all their eleven Textile Mills in Bombay City.

In Bihar and Orissa, the Tata Iron and Steel Company has appointed a welfare officer with an office and staff to co-ordinate the various welfare activities that have been carried on by the Steel Company.

In the Central Provinces and Berar, except at the Impress Mills, no regular staff of welfare officer and workers appears to have been appointed.

In the United Provinces, the British India Corporation employ a full-time welfare superintendent and a trained staff consisting of 4 doctors, 5 nurses, 8 matrons, 8 compounders, about 1 dozen midwives, 19 teachers and 2 sergeant patrols.

In Bengal, attempts have been made by some jute mills to set up day and night schools but many of these schools are reported to have been closed owing to the lack of interest shown by the employees. Except for the facilities for technical training that are provided at the Ichhapur Riddle Factory, the Cossipore Gun and

Shell Factory and the Government Weaving School at Serampore there is little or no organised provision for industrial and vocational training in the industrial centres in Bengal.

The welfare centre inaugurated in Clive Jute Mills made good progress during the year 1933. The Indian Iron and Steel Company, Hirapur, established a Baby Clinic in the charge of a qualified nurse. The Burmah Shell Company's labour bureau and welfare department at Budge Budge continued to do excellent work. An instance of the progress made is stated to be the success of the night school conducted by the department. A number of workmen who attend the school were, until recently, absolutely illiterate but now many of them are able to fill up money order forms, write out an address, and read a telegram.

This company has also employed a full time Labour officer to look after the labour employed in their oil installation in Bombay.

In Bombay, the Bombay Municipality has introduced compulsory education in F and G Wards which are chiefly peopled by millhands. In the Government factories at Kurkee, the Kurkee Education Society which is well supported by the factory authorities conducts six night schools. The Gokak Falls Mills Company maintains one night school for adult workers. In Ahmedabad one mill runs a school for half-timers and eight mills maintain schools for workers' children. Three mills in the Sholapur district and the Government workshop at Dapuri provide for the primary education of half-timers.

The Social Service League, Bombay, maintains several night schools and a Textile Technical School at Parel, for imparting practical and theoretical training to actual mill workers. The Bombay Y M C A conducts nearly night schools with an average daily attendance of about 200. The Ahmedabad Labour Union conducted in 1933, 16 day schools, 10 night schools, one Nursery school, one boarding school for boys and one boarding school for girls.

In Bihar and Orissa, the Tata Iron and Steel Company has established a Technical Institute at Jamshedpur to train in theory and practice certain selected students for positions in the operating departments. The Company also maintains over twenty schools for the education of the children of its employees.

In Madras, seventy factories registered under the Indian Factories Act have provided schools for half-timers and in some cases for employees' children also. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills maintain a day as well as a night school. The day school is an elementary school with 5 standards and has a technical section attached to it.

In Burma, very few firms provide facilities for education. The Burma Oil Company maintains schools in the Yenang-Yaung Oilfield for about 800 children and proposes to start a night school for its employees. The Burma Corporation makes an annual donation of Rs 1,000 for the maintenance of the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School at Nambin and is also constructing a school at Baldwin for the education of the children of its employees.

In the United Provinces, the British India Corporation maintains four day schools for boys and girls, two night schools and two industrial classes, for employees. The Elgin Mills at Cawnpore, the United Agra Mills, Agra and the B N W Railway Workshops at Gorakhpur also provide for the education of the children of their employees. The Elgin Mills have built a permanent stage for dramas and purchased a cinema machine for the entertainment of their workers. Messrs Bege Sutherland & Co who are the managing agents for several large concerns carry on welfare activities in providing schools free milk to supply pupils, dispensaries, gymnasium and sports, library, recreational programmes, etc.

In the Punjab, only the new Egerton Woollen Mills Company, Dharawal, maintains a school.

In the Central Provinces and Berar, the Empress Mills in Nagpur have Nursery and primary classes for the children in the creches. During the year 1932, 552 children received primary education in factory schools as against

765 in the previous year, the fall in attendance being due to a general reduction in the number of children employed. Crèches are attached to six cotton mills and one pottery works in this province. The educational work outside the mills is conducted by the Young Men's Christian Association which has established 9 centres where the mill-workers reside. Of these, 8 centres have night schools. The Empress Mills also make annual contributions of about Rs 3,500 to other schools where the children of the work-people study.

In Assam, some of the tea gardens maintain schools for children, but these schools are not popular as the labourers are generally recruited from the aboriginal tribes with whom education is at a discount particularly as it interferes with the earnings of their children who find employment in the gardens. The Assam Oil Company maintains a Middle English School and the Assam Railways and Trading Company provides a Middle English and a Primary School for the children of their employees. No industry provides schools for adult labourers.

Welfare Work on Railways.

Recreation—Railways as a group are the largest employers of labour in India and their welfare work is therefore being dealt with separately. All Railways provide facilities for recreation for their employees and their children. The total number of institutes and clubs which have been provided for railway employees and their children amount to nearly 200 for Europeans and Anglo Indians and over 150 for Indians.

Each institute is regarded as a club provided by the Railway free of rent. The institutes provide a reading room, indoor and outdoor games, etc., and are generally self-supporting although grants are made from fines' funds to meet the recurring expenses in deserving cases. The railways also undertake to recover the subscriptions of the members through the pay-sheets and to remit them to the manager of the institute. The membership of the institutes is compulsory on some railways.

Sports committees and athletic clubs have been formed on several railways, e.g., the G I P and the East Indian Railways with the object of promoting athletic sports among the employees and organizing tournaments. The Indian Railway Athletic Association formed for the promotion and development of inter-railway athletic competitions of all kinds is a registered association and its membership is open to the Railway Board and its subordinate offices as well as to railways which are parties to the Indian Railway Conference Association. Inter-district or inter-divisional competitions are also run by local sports' committees with the idea of encouraging sports among all classes of staff. The inter-railway boxing, wrestling and football competitions are arranged in four groups. In 1931 the North Western Railway provided a stadium within easy reach of the living quarters of the Railway employees at Mughalpura.

The cinema shows and magic lantern lectures which have been recently organized for the recreation of railway employees are growing in popularity with the staff.

The East Indian Railway locomotive and carriage and wagon workshops, Lucknow, have Welfare Committees which meet monthly and dispose of matters brought forward by the various delegates. Such Committees have also been formed in the Perambur as well as the Golden Rock workshops of the South Indian Railway.

Education—Almost all Railways provide facilities for the education of their illiterate staffs as well as for the children of Railway employees. The progress made in this direction on each railway may be briefly stated as follows—

The N W. Railway have started three experimental schools for adult workers in the running locomotive sheds at Lahore, Sikanr and Kotri. The experiment has so far been confined to the locomotive staff as the majority of the staff in this branch are illiterate and education provides a great inducement in that wages can practically be doubled by qualifying for promotion to the higher grades of running staff. The East Indian Railway provide 37 schools for the employees of the Operating Department. The Eastern Bengal Railway provide 9 night schools for adult employees, the daily average attendance at these schools being 309. On the Burma Railways educational facilities for adult workmen have hitherto proved a failure and another experimental school has recently been opened for firemen.

The B B & C I. Railway has recently opened classes for imparting instruction in the three R's at 3 centres on the Broad-Gauge and 3 on the Metre-Gauge systems. As an inducement to study, a bonus of Rs 5 is paid to each man passing a simple test. On the L. B. Rail-

because a number of employers either failed to submit returns or submitted incomplete returns and partly because neither the Central nor the Local Governments were able to provide the staff required for the purpose owing to financial stringency. The annual issues of Prices and Wages were also suspended in 1923 as a result of retrenchment and no regular official wage statistics are now published for British India as a whole.

In the United Provinces a scheme for a census of Industrial Wages to be taken along with the regular census was considered but was not carried through. A periodical survey of wages has been carried out every five years since 1912 in the Punjab. These surveys deal with the wages of certain classes of workers in three principal towns, in selected villages unaffected by urban conditions, and at certain Railway stations to secure a means of comparison with rural wages in the same neighbourhood. Beyond the figures of average monthly wages of certain classes of labour submitted by factories in all Provinces every year for inclusion in the annual Reports on the Administration of the Indian Factories Act, no regular and detailed statistics of industrial wages are available. In Madras quinquennial wages censuses have been conducted since 1908 showing the average wages of certain artisans (as well as farm servants employed as agricultural labour) in respect of homogeneous tracts and districts. These censuses, however, only relate to rural and urban wages and not to industrial wages. A thorough investigation of the conditions of labour, and particularly the rates of wages on tea estates in Assam, was made in 1921-22 by a Committee appointed by the Government of that Province. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay conducted three enquiries into the wages of workers in the cotton mills in the Bombay Presidency in 1921, 1923 and 1926 respectively. Early in 1934 there was a considerable agitation among labour ranks in Bombay City for a Government enquiry into alleged large reductions in wage rates in textile mills in the Bombay Presidency, particularly in Mills in Bombay

City. The Government of Bombay decided that the Commissioner of Labour should conduct a Departmental enquiry into wages and unemployment in the Bombay Cotton Textile Industry and this enquiry covering about a dozen principal occupations in all Mills in the Presidency was launched in March and the Report of the Enquiry was published in June 1934. The Government of the Central Provinces and Berar conducted a similar enquiry on parallel lines and the report of that enquiry was published in August 1934. Apart from these enquiries the Bombay Labour Office has also conducted enquiries into (1) Wages of peoples in Bombay, (2) Agricultural Wages, (3) Wages of Municipal workers, (4) Clerical Wages in Bombay City and (5) Wages of Printing Press Workers in selected Printing Presses in Bombay City. The results of all these enquiries have been published either in the form of special Reports or in the "Labour Gazette."

The Government of Bombay have now launched a general wage Census which is intended to cover in about two years, all factories, transport workers, workers in docks, municipalities and building trades, etc. The first part of the Census held for the month of May 1934 covered every perennial factory in the Bombay Presidency. The enquiry was conducted on the basis of the muster roll and essential information regarding the number of days worked during a pay period by each worker, his rate of wages and his earnings was called for. Seasonal factories will be covered for one month of intensive working during the winter of 1935-36 and all non-factory industries and organisations will be covered between March and December during the next or the following year. To the best of the knowledge of the Labour Office no other country in the world has attempted an enquiry into wages on such a gigantic scale and the results of the Census will be of a far reaching character. The Labour office hopes to publish all the reports covering perennial factories by the end of March 1936.

WAGE RATES.

Agriculture—Whether wages paid to agricultural labour in India have kept pace with the increase in the cost of living is, for several reasons, a very difficult question to answer. Firstly conditions vary so markedly between province and province that it is almost impossible to obtain accurate and comparable figures of wages for different classes of agricultural labour. Secondly there exists a variety of methods adopted for remunerating the workers engaged in different agricultural areas in India. For example, in the Punjab, there are four forms of wages, such as (a) purely cash wages, (b) cash wages with supplements which may consist of food, tobacco, clothing, bedding, etc. (c) purely in kind wages, and (d) the wages in the Punjab are shown daily

wages of the three important classes of agricultural labour in rural areas in the Punjab —

Carpenters	16 to 32 annas a day.
Masons	16 to 38 annas a day.
Unskilled labourers ..	5½ to 16½ annas a day

As regards the last occupation it was pointed out that the most frequent wage was between 7½ to 8½ annas. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay published a Report in 1924 of an Enquiry into Wages in Agriculture which gave the average daily earnings of three classes of agricultural labour, viz, skilled labour, unskilled labour and field labour in the Punjab. The results of the Enquiry are given in the following table:—

individual mills it might apply to any year between 1913 and 1918 in which year the first increase of 15 per cent was granted as dearness allowance. This was increased to 35 per cent on the 1st January 1919. The next increase granted on 1st February 1920 was 20 per cent extra to male workers on time rates and to female workers both on time and piece rates, and 40 per cent extra to male operatives on piece rates—the total percentages amounting to 55 and 75 respectively. On the 1st November 1920 the 55 per cent was raised to 70 per cent and the 75 per cent to 80 per cent. During the years 1932 and 1933 most of the working Mills in Bombay reduced wages by effecting cuts in these allowances. There has been no uniformity in the matter and although in some mills allowances of 50 per cent or over are granted these allowances in other mills have been reduced to 25 per cent or less. The weighted average cut for the whole industry in Bombay amounts to about 18 per cent.

As a result of the discussions between the Government of Bombay and the Bombay Millowners' Association which followed the publication of the report of the Departmental Enquiry, the Association decided to recommend to all their members the adoption of consolidated rates for workers on time rates of wages. Uniform standard rates were published and these have been adopted by most Mills in Bombay. City Individual Mills were, however, permitted to continue the dearness allowances in the case of workers on piece rates of wages but these allowances were to be increased by five per cent from 1st January 1935 in view of the reduction in Statutory weekly hours from 60 to 54.

In the Ahmedabad mills there is a complete lack of uniformity in the methods adopted for calculating the different additions and deductions before arriving at the final earnings. In Ahmedabad, the millowners and the local Labour Union were engaged for over a year in examining a proposal by the owners to reduce wages by 25 per cent. After protracted discussions the question was referred to a Conciliation Board consisting of Mr Chamanlal Parekh, President of the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association and Mr Shankarlal Banker. In subsequent discussions, Mr Manu Subedar replaced Mr Banker as the representative of Labour. On the breakdown of these negotiations the whole question was referred to Mr Patkar, late Judge of the Bombay High Court, as an umpire, but in the meanwhile the employers and the workers were able through the mediation of Mr M. K. Gandhi at Delhi, to reach a satisfactory agreement acceptable to both parties and this agreement known as the Delhi Agreement was signed by both the parties in the presence of Mr Patkar in Bombay in January 1935. *Inter alia*, the agreement laid down a uniform cut of 61 per cent in the wages of all workers on both time and piece rates of wages provided that the earnings of two loom weavers should not be reduced below Rs 41-4-0 for 26 working days. Standardisation of piece rates is to be effected after 1st January 1936 and with a view to provide for a prompt settlement of all wage questions on either side in future, the parties were to evolve a scheme for automatic adjustment of wages.

The methods of calculating wages in Sholapur are different from those in Bombay and Ahmedabad. There are five items which go to make the full wage of an operative. These items are (1) the basic rate, (2) dearness allowance which is 35 per cent in the case of all female workers and all male time workers and 40 per cent in the case of all male piece workers, (3) the number of grace days granted for which payment is made, (4) bonus, and (5) the benefit derived for the grain concession. The Sholapur Millowners decided to reduce wages by 12½ per cent with effect from 1st January 1934. The proposal was met by a violent strike which lasted for nearly three months but the workers were forced to accept the cut.

As far as cotton textile workers in the Bombay Presidency are concerned the results of the 1926 census of wages in textile mills in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur conducted by the Bombay Labour Office would, to a certain extent, still hold good if the average of the cuts effected in Bombay (about 20 per cent), Ahmedabad (6½ per cent) and Sholapur (12½ per cent) are applied. The following table gives the average daily earnings for men, women, children and all adults employed in textile mills in the three centres mentioned on this basis—

Centre	AVERAGE DAILY EARNINGS FOR.			
	Men	Women	Children	All adults
Bombay	Rs 1 3 0	Rs 0 9 9	Rs 1 1 0	Rs 1 1 0
Ahmedabad	1 5 0	0 11 9	0 5 0	1 3 4
Sholapur	0 14 3	0 5 10	0 3 60	0 12 10

The average monthly earnings of workers in different age and sex groups in the Bombay and Sholapur cotton mills, if worked out on the same basis as in the above table, would be as follows—

Sex and Age group	Average monthly Earnings* in			
	Bombay		Sholapur	
	Rs	a p	Rs	a p
Men	30	1 9	20	15 0
Women	14	3 0	8	12 0
Children			5	0 0
All Adults	26	5 0	20	0 0

*Similar figures cannot be worked out for Ahmedabad owing to the admixture of wage payments on the basis of monthly and fortnightly, bi-monthly or 16-day "hapti" payments.

The figures in the table give average monthly earnings after allowing for absenteeism. It is interesting however to ascertain what the average monthly earnings would be for workers putting in full time, i.e. without remaining absent. The following table gives the figures of

average monthly earnings of full time workers in textile mills in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur after applying the cuts effected in the last three years, the figures for Ahmedabad being arrived at by multiplying the average daily earnings by 27.

Sex and Age group	Average monthly earnings of full time workers in					
	Bombay		Ahmedabad		Sholapur.	
	Rs	a p	Rs	a p	Rs	a p
Men	30	6 0	36	2 0	23	5 0
Women	16	0 0	19	11 0	10	0 0
Children			8	11 0	0	2 0
All adults	32	3 0	32	13 0	21	0 0

The Report of the Departmental enquiry conducted by the Bombay labour office last year into Wage Cuts and Unemployment in the Cotton Textile Industry in all centres in the Bombay Presidency contains a wealth of most valuable information both on wages and the extent of "rationalisation" attempted and effected in this industry during the last few years. The enquiry was conducted on the basis of the sample method and the ten most numerically important occupations which between them cover about 70 per cent of the total number of workpeople employed in the industry were studied. The results are presented for six centres. (1) Bombay City, (2) Ahmedabad centre, (3) other Gujarat centres, (4) Sholapur Centre, (5) Khandesh Centres, and (6) Southern Mahratta Centres. The average daily earnings for the ten occupations studied in these six centres are as follows —

Occupation.	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Gujarat excl Ahmedabad	Occupation.	Sholapur	Khandesh.	Southern Mahratta
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p		Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p
Drawing Tentersmen	1 2 81	3 11 0	14 5	Drawing Tentersmen	0 12 11	0 13 0	0 11 0
Shubbing Tentersmen	1 3 101	5 11 1	8 1	Shubbing Tentersmen	0 14 8	0 13 10	0 13 1
Inter Tentersmen	1 3 21	1 5 1	0 0	Inter Tentersmen	0 13 2	0 13 1	0 12 1
Roving Tenters	1 2 41	3 10 0	14 6	Roving Tenters	0 12 3	0 11 11	0 11 1
Ring Riders*	0 14 10	1 0 10	0 12 3	Ring Riders*	0 10 7	0 10 4	0 8 1
Tarwallas*	0 13 2			Tarwallas*	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 5 7
Doffers*	0 10 10	0 11 7	0 7 11	Doffers*	0 7 3	0 6 0	0 5 2
Two Loom Weavers	0 8 10	1 14 11	1 10 6	Two Loom Weavers	1 8 0	1 4 2	0 15 3
Winders-Women	0 11 9	0 11 11	0 8 6	Winders-Women	0 5 8	0 7 2	0 6 3
Reelers-Women	0 11 0	0 12 2	0 9 8	Reelers-Women	0 5 6	0 8 3	0 6 8
All Workers	1 4 81	1 6 0		All Workers	0 12 0		

*In the case of these occupations the averages in most cases are for men only and in some for both men and women workers.

The real wage index number for cotton mill workers in Bombay in April 1934 as compared with July 1926 was approximately 111, for Ahmedabad it was 151 and for Sholapur for February 1934 as compared with July 1926 was 115.

The Provincial Annual Reports on the administration of the Factories Act often contains some figures regarding average monthly and daily earnings for some of the more numerically important industrial occupations. Such figures are, however, not compiled on any recognised statistical principles. Nor are they based on enquiries covering all units in particular industries, and they are generally collected from a few employers. The figures given in the following table should therefore be considered merely as a nominal guide to general wage rates and not as of any particular value for purposes of wage fixation.

Occupations	Average Monthly Earnings in			Average Daily Earnings in the Madras Presidency.
	C P and	Bengal	Punjab	
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p
Filters	42 0 0	31 0 0	50 0 0	1 0 0
Blacksmiths	35 0 0	45 0 0	35 0 0	1 1 2
Carpenters	36 0 0	43 0 0	35 0 0	1 0 5
Moulders		42 0 0		1 0 3
Masons	32 0 0	40 0 0	35 0 0	0 15 4
Engine Drivers	35 0 0	32 0 0	35 0 0	1 4 1
Farmen	24 0 0	22 0 0	20 0 0	0 11 5
Masons	32 0 0	40 0 0	34 0 0	0 15 4
Spinnors	15 0 0	14 0 0	20 0 0	0 12 0
Weavers	30 0 0	25 0 0	28 0 0	1 0 8

Jute Industry.

The jute industry holds the premier position amongst the industries in the Bengal Presidency; The following table gives the average monthly wages of some important occupations in a jute mill. The figures are not the exact averages of wages of the total number of employees in the industry. They are averages obtained from the actual payments made in some representative mills.

Department	Designation	Average monthly wages.	
		Multiple shift	Single shift
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Rs a p</i>	<i>Rs a p.</i>
Roving Machines	Rovers	12 15 0	14 7 0
	Shifters	12 6 0	14 2 0
Spinning Frames .. .	Warp spinners .. .	13 4 0	16 14 0
	Weft spinners .. .	16 0 0	17 10 0
Winding	Bobbin cleaners .. .	10 0 0	11 0 0
	Warp winders (piece workers) .. .	21 6 0	23 0 0
Weaving	Weft " (" ") .. .	26 8 0	28 2 0
	Hessian weavers (" ") .. .	28 8 0	31 0 0
Dressing and Beaming	Sacking weavers (piece-workers) .. .	29 5 0	32 1 0
	Beamers and dressers .. .	28 8 0	32 0 0
Sack sewing workers	Machine sewers (piece)	21 11 0	25 10 0
Engineering Section	Engine Staff	19 0 0	22 8 0
Workshop hands—	Firemen .. .	28 1 0	30 2 0
	Mason .. .	34 0 0	34 0 0
Machine shop fitting .. .	Carpenters (Chinese) .. .	85 0 0	93 5 0
	Carpenters (Indian) .. .	30 0 0	33 2 0
Tin Smithy .. .	Turners (Metal) .. .	40 0 0	40 0 0
	Tin Smith .. .	30 0 0	30 0 0
Blacksmith shop .. .	Blacksmith .. .	36 0 0	36 0 0
	<i>Women</i>		
Batching Softners .. .	Feeders .. .	11 12 0	13 5 0
	Receivers .. .	11 8 0	13 5 0
Teasers Preparing Breaker Carding Ma- chines .. .	Feeders .. .	9 6 0	12 9 0
	Receivers .. .	9 8 0 9 0 0	11 13 0 11 2 0
Finishing Carding Machines .. .	Feeders .. .	10 6 0	11 7 0
	Receivers .. .	9 7 0	11 0 0
Drawing machines	Feeders .. .	10 0 0	11 2 0
	Receivers .. .	10 0 0	11 2 0
Roving machines .. .	Feeders .. .	10 6 0	11 6 0
	Sweepers .. .	9 6 0	11 2 0
Twist Frames Weaving .. .	Twisters .. .	13 8 0	14 15 0
	Sweepers .. .	12 1 0	12 10 0
Sack Sewing .. .	Hand Sewers .. .	13 5 0	14 11 0

It will be seen from the above table that there is an appreciable monetary advantage to workers in the single-shift system.

Wages in Mines.

The tables given below show the daily earnings in the month of December for each of the two years 1932 and 1933 for workers in the main occupations in coalfields and the other important mines in British India.

Daily earnings of underground workers in important coalfields in British India.

I

Coalfields	Over men & Sirdars Foremen & Mates		Miners		Loaders.	
	1932	1933	1932	1933	1932.	1933.
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a. p.	Rs a. p.
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa)	1 3 0	1 2 6	0 9 9	0 8 6	0 8 6	0 7 3
Raniganj (Bengal)	1 0 6	0 15 6	0 9 3	0 8 3	0 8 0	0 7 0
Girdih (Bihar & Orissa)	1 7 9	1 7 0	0 9 9	0 9 6	0 7 0	0 8 3
Azam ..	1 7 0	1 4 6	1 4 0	1 1 3	1 1 6	1 0 6
Punjab ..	0 14 6	0 13 9	0 12 6	0 12 3	0 14 9	0 12 6
Baluchistan ..	1 6 9	1 7 0	0 13 3	0 14 9	0 13 0	0 11 3
Pench Valley ..	1 5 6	1 5 3	0 14 0	0 13 0	0 6 9	0 6 0

II

Coalfields	Skilled Labour		Unskilled Labour		Females	
	1932	1933	1932.	1933	1932	1933
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a. p	Rs a. p.
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa)	0 10 9	0 10 6	0 7 9	0 7 3	0 6 6	0 5 9
Raniganj (Bengal)	0 10 9	0 9 9	0 7 6	0 6 7	0 5 9	0 5 0
Girdih (Bihar & Orissa)	0 10 6	0 10 6	0 8 6	0 8 0	0 5 9	0 4 6
Azam ..	1 2 0	1 0 9	0 15 0	0 13 9
Punjab ..	6 11 6	0 11 6	0 7 0	0 7 0
Baluchistan ..	0 12 6	0 12 9	1 0 0	0 6 0
Pench Valley ..	0 10 6	0 10 0	0 6 9	0 7 3	0 6 9	0 5 9

Daily Earnings of Workers engaged on "Open Workings" in Important Coalfields in British India

I

Coalfields.	Over Men and Sirdars Foremen and Mates		Miners.		Loaders	
	1932	1933.	1932	1933.	1932	1933.
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p.	Rs a p	Rs a. p.	Rs a p
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa)	0 14 9	0 12 9	0 8 6	0 7 6	0 7 9	0 5 9
Raniganj (Bengal)	0 12 9	0 9 6	0 6 0	0 5 0	0 5 6	0 4 0
Girdih (Bihar & Orissa)	0 13 6	0 14 9	0 9 0	0 8 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Azam
Punjab ..	0 11 9
Baluchistan
Pench Valley

II

Coalfields.	Skilled Labour		Unskilled Labour		Females	
	1932	1933	1932	1933.	1932	1933.
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa)	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 7 9	0 6 3	0 7 0	0 5 9
Raniganj (Bengal)	0 6 0	0 6 3	0 5 0	0 3 0	0 4 0	0 3 0
Girdih (Bihar & Orissa).		0 8 0	0 6 6	0 6 0	0 5 0	0 4 9
Assam ..						
Punjab		0 6 9	..		
Baluchistan
Pench Valley (C P)						

Daily Earnings of Labourers working on Surface in important Coalfields in British India.

Coalfields.	Skilled Labour.		Unskilled Labour.		Females.	
	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932	1931	1932
	Rs a. p.	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a. p	Rs a p	Rs a. p
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa)	0 10 9	0 10 0	0 7 0	0 6 3	0 5 3	0 4 0
Raniganj ..	0 9 9	0 8 9	0 7 3	0 6 6	0 4 9	0 4 0
Girdih (Bihar & Orissa)	0 11 9	0 12 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 5 3	0 5 3
Assam .. .	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 11' 9	0 11 3	0 8 0	0 7 9
Punjab .. .	0 14 0	0 12 0	0 9 3	0 8 6	0 4 3	0 4 0
Baluchistan .. .	0 13 9	.	1 0 0	.	.	.
Pench Valley (C P)	0 12 0	0 10 0	0 6 9	0 7 0	0 5 0	0 4 9

Gins and Presses.

The male coolies in the gin factories in Madras and the Punjab earn on an average annas 8 per day while the female coolies get only as 5-1 and as 6 respectively. In the Central Provinces the average daily earnings of male and female coolies are as 10-2 and as 5-10 respectively.

The average daily wages of female press coolies in Madras and the Central Provinces amount to annas 5-10 while those of male coolies amount to annas 9-6 and annas 13-10 respectively.

The Plantations.—Labour in the tea gardens in Assam is paid on a piece-work basis.

In addition to the standard daily task which the worker must execute in order to earn his wages (called *Harira*) the labourer is given an opportunity at certain seasons to supplement his earnings by the performance of a second task the payment for which is known as *tucca*. In some cases where it is impracticable to prescribe a definite task is in leaf plucking at the beginning and the end of the season payment is made by time. A distinctive feature of work in the gardens is that the labourer usually brings his family with him and the wife and sometimes the children are also wage earners. The joint earnings of a family must always be taken into consideration. The average family of a labourer

has been calculated as consisting of one working man, one working woman, about three-tenths of a working child and non-working child and about two-tenths of an adult non-working dependant. The following table gives the average monthly earnings of the labourers in the tea gardens in Assam in March 1933

Districts	Average Monthly Cash Earnings of		
	Men	Women	Children
	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.
Chachar Badi	6 11 11	4 10 0	3 15 4
Hulakandi	6 0 0	5 0 8	3 13 11
North Sylhet	7 2 4	5 5 0	4 3 0
Kamrangaj	7 12 8	5 7 4	4 8 7
South Sylhet	7 4 11	5 12 4	4 0 0
Habibganj	7 13 0	5 15 5	4 8 11
Daga Hills	8 14 8	6 7 4	
Dhulian ..	8 15 2	6 14 10	4 10 2
Goalpara	8 2 0	7 1 2	2 7 5
Amhatl	8 0 0	6 11 0	4 12 0
Lalpara ..	8 6 11	8 0 2	2 8 4
Tejpur	9 0 0	7 0 5	5 12 0
Mangaldai	9 12 9	7 11 10	6 1 7
Nowgong	8 12 4	7 13 0	5 11 0
Sibsagan ..	10 0 1	8 15 1	6 8 1
Jorhat ..	9 15 7	8 3 10	6 3 2
Golaghat ..	11 1 8	7 11 9	6 3 1
Dibrugarh ..	11 6 3	10 0 8	6 14 8
North Lakhimpur	10 3 6	8 12 7	5 2 9

Periods of Wage Payment—There is a complete absence of uniformity as regards the periods for which payments of wages are made in the various important branches of organised industry in India. In scarcely any industry is there a single period of wage payment. Different systems are found in establishments belonging to the same industry and in the same district and within the same establishment different classes of workers are frequently paid for different periods. The month, the fortnight and the week are generally the periods of wage payment in Cement and Brick Works, Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories, Flour Mills and Baglanecring Works. Monthly payment of wages is mainly adopted for workers in Printing Presses, Municipalities, Tramways and Railways. In the

Cotton Mill Industry wages are calculated on a monthly basis in all the mills outside Ahmedabad. In the case of the Ahmedabad mills, wages of process operatives are calculated on a fortnightly basis and of workers in the maintenance department on a monthly basis.

In mines, tea gardens and rice mills the predominant periods of wage payment are a month and a week. In jute mills wages are calculated per week. Wages are calculated on both the monthly and the fortnightly basis in the Iron and Steel Industry, Sugar Mills and in Tanneries. The system of monthly payment appears to be universal in its application to supervisory and clerical staffs engaged in all different industrial establishments, while the most general system in the case of casual labour is of a daily payment of wages.

Periods elapsing before payment—The "waiting period" or the time which elapses between the end of the period for which wages are earned and the date of payment varies considerably from industry to industry and from establishment to establishment in the same industry. It may be generally stated that the longer the wage period the more delayed is the payment of wages. Monthly wages are not paid so promptly as fortnightly wages, weekly wages are withheld for still shorter periods and daily wages of casual labour are nearly always paid on the day on which they are earned or on the following day. Speaking generally the average period of waiting may be considered to be 10 to 20 days in the case of monthly payments, 5 to 7 days for fortnightly payments, and 2 to 4 days in the case of weekly payments. Another factor which affects the period of waiting is the method of payments. Where workers are paid on piece rates, intricate calculations are required to ascertain the amount due, and consequently piece rate wages cannot be paid so promptly as wages of workers on fixed time rates of pay. The payment of Wages Bill under reference to a Select Committee of the Legislative Assembly as we go to Press provides that all wages to factory workers for whatever period they may be calculated, must be paid within seven days of the end of the period for which they are due.

Indebtedness prevails to a very great extent among labourers, but no reliable figures are available except those for the Bombay Presidency which were collected by the Bombay Labour Office during its enquiries into the workers' family budgets for different cantons. From the statistics of the Empress Mills the percentage of labourers indebted appears to be more than 50. Though exact figures for the Punjab are not available it is reported that the volume of indebtedness amongst the agriculturists is greater than anywhere else in India. As regards urban and industrial labourers it may safely be assumed that a great majority are in debt to their food suppliers. In Madras the indebtedness of the worker is heavy especially in the case of plantations where it is reported that 75 per cent. of the wages of the labourers are taken away on pay days by money lenders. The mine managers of the Jharia coalfields in Bihar and Orissa generally put this figure at one week's wages. It is also stated that the extent of indebtedness varies with caste and social custom. In Bombay City, interest on debts

forms nearly three per cent of the total monthly expenditure. Of the families considered for the Labour Office enquiry no fewer than 47 per cent were in debt. The extent of the indebtedness of the family in debt is ordinarily the equivalent of two and a half months' earnings. The extremes were 14 months' and one-third of a month's earnings respectively. As regards single men, for whom 603 budgets were collected, 45 per cent were in debt, the average expenditure on interest being as 12-3 and the average expenditure on interest for those in debt being Rs 1-11-2 per month. Enquiries for the Bombay Port Trust workers showed that over 80 per cent of the families considered were found to be in debt. In the majority of cases the amount of debt varied from a month's income to four months' income. In Ahmedabad during 1926 about 69 per cent of the families were in debt. The amount of debt varied from a few rupees to many times the monthly income. According to an enquiry made by the Labour Office in the year 1925 into the family budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur City, 63 per cent of the cotton mill workers' families in Sholapur were in debt, the extent of which varied from less than a month's income to many times the monthly income. In 49 per cent of cases, however, a family's debt was equal to between one and four months' of its income.

Bonus and Profit Sharing Schemes—“The successful working of a profit sharing scheme presupposes the realisation by the worker of an identity between the various interests engaged in the concern and a conscientious effort on their part to do their best for its maximum success. The employers of labour do not feel that labour conditions in India are such as to justify the hope that this high ideal of co-operation will be realised in a substantial measure in practice.” The only solitary concerns in which profit sharing schemes have been tried are the Tata Iron and Steel Company, and in the Buckingham and the Carnatic Mills. In 1928 the Tata Iron and Steel Company introduced a scheme under which a monthly bonus based on production is paid to all men drawing less than Rs. 300 per mensem or Rs 10 per day, whose work contributes to the production obtained and who have been in the Company's service for at least six months. In the Buckingham and the Carnatic Mills a bonus is paid to the workmen on a basis relative to the dividend declared.

Bonuses are paid for a variety of reasons. Some concerns grant bonus for regular attendances and for economical utilization of material. In some collieries in Bihar and Orissa a worker is paid a sort of bonus for working six days a week. A bonus is also being granted for raising

and loading extra tubs. The Tata Iron and Steel Company grant bonuses, (1) for general production, (2) for departmental output, and (3) regular attendance. This is paid to all employees drawing less than as 8 per day. The Company has also introduced a 'Jack pot scheme'. The idea of this scheme is that if 50 men are required to perform certain duties connected with the operation of any unit and the full force is not present, the wages which would have been payable to the absentees are distributed amongst those present.

The system of paying bonus in addition to a cash wage either for better work or for better attendance used to obtain in several industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency especially in cotton textile mills but, except in Ahmedabad where bonuses are paid for better attendance and for better efficiency, the majority of the mills which used to pay such bonuses have either consolidated these bonuses with pay or have abolished them altogether. In countries which have no legislation for the control of deductions which may be made from wages on account of fines, the bonus might be regarded as a voluntary gift paid by the employer to the worker who attends regularly without absence or produces work better than specified standards but in countries where 'truck' legislation exists, the bonus easily degenerates into a device whereby an employer tries to get round the Act which lays down percentages of wages beyond which deductions on account of fines shall not be made by dividing the wages into part wages and part bonus. In the Ahmedabad textile mills all weavers who produce 80 to 85 per cent. efficiency on quantity production are paid a bonus of eight annas per loom per fortnight. In this centre all damaged cloth is handed over to the weavers and its cost at wholesale price is deducted from their wages. In the case of minor defects the weavers are fined. As the total estimated bonus of the deductions made from the Ahmedabad weavers' wages both on account of fines and damaged material handed over amounts to more than Rs 15 lakhs annually, the efficiency bonus is not so profitable to the worker as it would appear to be. The good attendance bonus also operates very harshly in certain cases. In one mill in Western India, workers earning Rs 30 or under a month are paid a bonus of 4 annas a week for a complete week's work and a further bonus of eight annas a month for a complete month's work. If a worker loses a day he loses twelve annas and if the day lost be a Saturday preceding a closed day he loses two thirty ones of his monthly wages.

Good attendance and efficiency bonuses are not granted in Government, local board and public utility concerns.

WAGES ON RAILWAYS.

No information more recent to that for the year 1929 is available regarding wages paid on Indian Railways. In that year every individual system and the Railway Board, in the memoranda of written evidence submitted to the Royal Commission on Indian labour, gave statistics of rates of pay. The following information, therefore, relates to the year 1929 but it is understood that all-round reductions have been made on almost all railway systems during the last two or three years.

Owing to the different types of grades of pay which are prevalent on the Railways it is not possible to give particulars for all of them. Scales of pay of some important classes of railway servants on some principal railways have therefore been set out in the tables below. The limits of pay given in the tables, show the minimum of the lower grade and the maximum attainable the higher grade.

Statement showing scales of pay of important classes of Railway servants other than Workshop employees and Colliery Staff on the principal Railways.

Name of Railway System	ENGINEERING.					
	Mates		Gangmen		Trollymen.	
	Rs a.	Rs. a	Rs a	Rs a.	Rs. a	Rs a.
North-Western Railway ..	20 0 to	34 0	13 0 to	22 0	15 0 to	24 0
East Indian Railway ..	13 0 to	39 0	12 0 to	16 0	12 0 to	16 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	20 0 to	52 0	13 0 to	18 0	13 0 to	18 0
G I P Railway ..	12 0 to	37 0	9 0 to	26 0	11 0 to	24 0
B B & C I Railway (Broad-gauge) ..	14 0 to	37 0	12 0 to	26 0	12 0 to	27 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway ..	15 0 to	31 0	10 0 to	17 0	18 0 to	25 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway ..	11 0 to	19 6	9 6 to	15 6	11 0 0	
M & S M Railway ..	13 0 to	30 0	10 6 to	22 0	10 6 to	15 0
South Indian Railway ..	14 0 to	25 0	12 0 to	15 0	12 0 to	15 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	20 0 to	30 0	14 0 to	16 0	14 0 to	16 0

* Per day Senior mates only are in the grade of Rs. 37-3-52

Name of Railway System.	TRAFFIC.					
	Station Masters		Guards.		Signallers	
	Rs a.	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a.	Rs a	Rs a
North Western Railway. ..	45 0 to	509 0	30 0 to	210 0	33 0 to	199 0
East Indian Railway ..	52 0 to	509 0	30 0 to	160 0	30 0 to	209 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	36 0 to	350 0	45 0 to	210 0	30 0 to	170 0
G I P Railway ..	50 0 to	395 0	70 0 to	210 0	45 0 to	140 0
B B & C I Railway (Broad-gauge) ..	55 0 to	400 0	50 0 to	210 0	60 0 to	70 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway ..	52 0 to	509 0	35/40 to	210 0	30 0 to	170 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway ..	30 0 to	330 0	20 0 to	150 0	15 0 to	30 0
M & S M Railway ..	40 0 to	425 0	40 0 to	170 0	25 0 to	110 0
South Indian Railway ..	30 0 to	325 0	25 0 to	120 0	25 0 to	95 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	40 0 to	450 0	40 0 to	200 0	20 0 to	100 0

Name of Railway System	TRAFFIC.				MECHANICAL.	
	Goods clerks Book- ing clerks and Parcel clerks		Ticket Collectors.		Pointsmen.	
	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a.	Rs a.	Rs a
North Western Railway ..	33 0 to	270 0	52 0 to	160 0	10 0 to	27 0
East Indian Railway ..	28 0 to	300 0	25 0 to	125 0	12 0 to	18 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	34 0 to	145 0	32 0 to	160 0	13 0 to	17 0
Great Indian Peninsula Railway ..	40 0 to	100 0	50 0 to	90 0	15 0 to	18 0
B. B & C I Railway (Broad-gauge) ..	15 0 to	180 0(2)	55 0 to	190 0		
Bengal Nagpur Railway ..	50 0 to	250 0(5)	30 0 to	120 0	13 0 to	18 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway ..	25 0 to	60 0(2)	18 0 to	40 0(6)	10 0 to	14 0
M & S M Railway ..	75 0 to	180 0(2)	25 0 to	80 0	15 0 to	16 0
South Indian Railway ..	25 0 to	125 0(5)	25 0 to	100 0	12 0 to	18 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	32 0 to	120 0(2)	20 0 to	100 0	12 0 to	16 0

* Parcel Clerk only.

(2) Goods Clerks only, wages are regulated according to local market rate.

(5) Goods and Parcel Clerks

(6) Maximum of the Maximum scale not given.

Name of Railway System	MECHANICAL.					
	Cabinmen		Drivers		Firemen	
	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a	Rs a
North Western Railway..	15 0	to 45 0	31 0	to 220 0	0 8½	to 100 0
East Indian Railway			40 0	" 200 0	15 0	" 50 0
Eastern Bengal Railway			34 0	" 220 0	13 0	" 90 0
Great Indian Peninsula Railway	65 0	0(1)	72 0	" 310 0	16 4	" 32 8
B B & C I Railway (Broad-gauge)			2 8	" 7 8(3)	0 10	" 1 12(3)
Bengal Nagpur Railway	11 0	0	5 0	" 11 0(4)	2 8	" 4 8(4)
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway			31 0	" 46 0(6)	13 0	" 35 0
M & S M Railway			35 0	" 200 0	16 0	" 50 0
South Indian Railway	25 0	to 30 0	41 0	" 250 0	21 0	" 88 0
Assam Bengal Railway	16 0	" 25 0	75 0	" 263 0	12 0	" 22 0
			30 0	" 275 0	14 0	" 60 0

(1) Maximum

(3) Indians per day.

(4) Europeans per day

(6) Maximum of the maximum scale not given

Statement showing scales of pay per day of some important skilled labourers in Workshops

Name of Railway System.	Fitters		Moulders		Welders	
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p.
North Western Railway	0 8 0	to 2 8 0	1 0 0	to 2 8 0	1 4 0	to 2 8 0
East Indian Railway	0 10 0	" 2 8 0	0 10 0	" 2 4 0	0 10 0	" 2 4 0
Eastern Bengal Railway	0 10 0	" 3 14 0	0 12 3	" 3 2 3	0 12 3	" 3 2 3
Great Indian Peninsula Railway*	50 0 0	" 86 0 0*	44 0 0	" 86 0 0*	44 0 0	" 89 0 0*
B B & C I Railway	0 8 0	" 3 5 0	0 7 0	" 3 5 0	0 8 0	" 2 9 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway	0 12 0	" 2 0 0	1 0 0	" 2 14 0	1 0 0	" 2 0 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	0 15 4	" 1 14 8		1 4 0		1 0 0
M & S M Railway	0 7 0	" 5 4 0	0 11 0	to 5 4 0	0 12 0	to 5 4 0
South Indian Railway	0 14 0	" 2 8 0	0 14 0	" 2 8 0	0 14 0	" 2 8 0
Assam Bengal Railway	0 12 0	" 3 0 0			1 8 0	" 2 8 0

Name of Railway System	Turners		Carpenters.		Blacksmiths.	
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p.
North-Western Railway	1 1 0	to 2 8 0	0 14 0	to 2 8 0	1 4 0	to 2 8 0
East Indian Railway	0 10 0	" 2 4 0	0 10 0	" 2 4 0	0 10 0	" 2 8 0
Eastern Bengal Railway	0 12 3	" 3 2 3	0 12 3	" 3 2 3	0 12 3	" 3 2 3
Great Indian Peninsula Railway*	50 0 0	" 89 0 0*	39 0 0	" 69 0 0*	44 0 0	" 93 0 0*
B B & C I Railway	0 7 0	" 3 5 0	0 9 0	" 2 11 0	0 9 0	" 3 9 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway	1 0 0	" 2 14 0	1 0 0	" 2 14 0	1 0 0	" 2 0 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway		1 4 8		1 7 4		1 7 4
M & S M Railway	1 0 0	to 5 4 0	0 8 0	to 4 4 0	0 7 0	to 5 4 0
South Indian Railway	0 14 0	" 2 8 0	0 11 4	" 2 0 0	0 14 0	" 2 8 0
Assam Bengal Railway	0 12 0	" 2 12 0	0 12 0	" 3 0 0	1 1 4	" 3 0 0

N B—These rates are exclusive of Overtime and Piece-work profits

* The scales of pay for the G I P Railway are per mensem.

The following rates may be taken as representatives of daily wages of workshop employees at important centres —

Centre	Unskilled.		Semi-skilled.		Ordinary skilled.	
	As p.	As p.	As p.	As p.	As p.	As p.
Bombay	14 0	to 16 0	17 0	to 24 0	26 0	to 46 0
Shore	10 0	„ 12 0	14 0	„ 18 0	14 0	„ 40 0
Almora	9 0	„ 11 0	10 0	„ 16 0	12 0	„ 40 0
Delhi	7 6	„ 10 9	10 0	„ 18 0	16 0	„ 36 0

Besides the usual pay the employees of the railways are granted allowances and perquisites for special work, climatic and local conditions, etc

Amount sent to villages.—In the absence of a completely urbanized industrial labour force in India, the practice of remitting part of the wages earned by workers in industrial centres to their place of origin is a very common one. But no authorized or statistical information for a definite period of time is available as regards the amounts sent by work people in this manner. If statistics pertaining to this subject were compiled, it would be a valuable aid in estimating the agrarian income of Indian industrial workers. In the Central Provinces and Berar 80 per cent of the labour force from the United Provinces leave their villages to find in their villages to look after their families. The labourers are reported to be sending more than 50 per cent of their earnings to their homes. Estimates of the amount sent to their homes by the various labourers in the public area in Bengal are published in the reports of the Indian Labour Commission. The figure for 1928 was Rs. 1,77,77,816-1-2, but it does not represent the amount sent by the labourers from coal mines in the public area. Labourers from coal mines in the public area are reported to send or take home to their villages 50 to 60 per cent of their earnings. The amount sent by the labourers in the mining field is estimated to be Rs. 1,77,77,816-1-2, but it does not represent the amount sent by the labourers from coal mines in the public area. Labourers from coal mines in the public area are reported to send or take home to their villages 50 to 60 per cent of their earnings. The amount sent by the labourers in the mining field is estimated to be Rs. 1,77,77,816-1-2, but it does not represent the amount sent by the labourers from coal mines in the public area.

the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay collected some information regarding remittance of amounts by workers' families. In Bombay City a large number of workers do not maintain an establishment, but live as boarders and though married keep their dependants in their villages. In the case of resident families the average monthly amount remitted comes to Rs. 2-1-11 which constitutes 4-23 per cent of the family income which is Rs. 50-1-7 per month. In the case of persons living singly in Bombay City, the average monthly remittance comes to Rs. 11-7-1 which constitutes 26-2 per cent of their monthly income. The labour force in Ahmedabad is not immigrant to the same extent as in Bombay and therefore remittances to dependants is not an important item in the worker's budget. It appears that nearly 7 per cent of the working class families in Ahmedabad remit money to their dependants living away from them. The average for only those families remitting money comes to Rs. 6-6-0 per month. Sholapur draws its labour force from the immediate neighbourhood and the labour there is not of the same cosmopolitan character as in Bombay. Of the total number of families whose budgets were collected during the family budget enquiry at that centre only 6 per cent reported that they had to remit money every month to their dependants in villages. The average of the amount remitted by such families comes to Rs. 4-12-7.

Deductions.—Deductions from wages on account of fines and for services rendered by an employer to his workmen is a subject which has been engaging the attention of the Government of India since 1926. In that year, the Government of India requested all local governments to make enquiries, in their respective administrations, as to the extent to which fines and other deductions were being realized by employers in India from their work people.

The views of the local governments were also invited on the desirability of taking any action, legislative or otherwise to counter any abuses which might be found to prevail. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay conducted a very comprehensive enquiry into the subject covering all factories, railways, municipalities, transport services, commercial houses, shops, hotels, etc., and the results were published in the form of a special report. As a result of its investigations that Government came to the conclusion that fining was an abuse grave enough to require legislation for its control and recommended accordingly. The subject was again examined in 1928-29 by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee (The Fawcett Committee) in connection with the standardised rules put up by the employers and the demands put up by the workers during the prolonged general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay City in 1928. The Committee recommended *inter alia*, that deductions from wages on account of fines should not exceed two per cent of an operative's earnings during a particular pay period. The Millowners' Association, Bombay, accepted this recommendation and it is very noteworthy that almost all textile mills in Bombay which are affiliated to the Association have limited their monetary punishments within this limit. There is, however, no control on fining in textile mills in Ahmedabad. In this centre the work of 'cutlooking' or scrutinising manufactured cloth is often entrusted to contractors who often pay a lump sum every year to the mills for this privilege. Commissions varying from six annas to twelve annas in the rupee on all fines inflicted is paid by the mill to the contractor. The system is also closely linked up with that of handing over damaged cloth to the worker concerned and deducting its value at cost or wholesale price from the worker's wages. The cutlooker also receives commissions on the value of the cloth handed over. It is estimated that these deductions in the Ahmedabad cotton mills amount to nearly if not more than fifteen lakhs of rupees every year. The matter is a grave abuse and a scandal which calls for immediate legislative action. The action already taken by the Government of India in implementing the

recommendations of the Royal Commission on Indian labour on the subject have already been dealt with elsewhere in this section.

The Royal Commission on Indian Labour have made several important recommendations in connection with the income of industrial workers and the question of their indebtedness. In discussing the possible application to India of the minimum wage Convention adopted at the 1928 session of the International Labour Conference, the Commission are of opinion that the convention, "in referring to trades in which wages are exceptionally low, must be regarded as having in view trades in which wages are low, not by comparison with western or other foreign standards but by comparison with the general trend of wages and wage levels in kindred occupations in the country concerned." If the principle of the minimum wage is to be applied to India, they consider that it would first be necessary to create machinery for fixing minimum rates of wages in those trades in which wages are lowest and where there is no question of collective bargaining. The industries indicated for a careful study of conditions are mica, wool cleaning, shellac, bidi (the indigenous cigarette) manufacturing, carpet weaving and tanneries and those in which there is a strong presumption that the conditions warrant detailed investigation. Full information re wages and conditions should be collected and if the surveys indicate 'Sweating' the trades should be demarcated and the number and the composition of wage Boards should be decided. In the setting up of wage boards important criteria for consideration should be the cost of enforcement, and a policy of gradualness should not be lost sight of. If the investigations appear to warrant minimum wage fixing machinery, the necessary legislation for setting up such machinery should be undertaken. These recommendations are under the consideration of the various Provincial Governments and the Government of Bombay have already initiated a general wage census to be completed in about three years in order to collect all possible information on the subject of wages in all types of industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency.

COST OF LIVING AND STANDARD OF LIFE.

The publication of a cost of living index with a pre-war base for the working classes in Bombay City was started in the *Labour Gazette* from September 1921 and the scope and method of its compilation are described in the issues of the *Labour Gazette* for September 1921, September 1923 and April 1929. The index number is based on what is known as the aggregate expenditure method and includes in all 21 items representing food, fuel and lighting, clothing and rent. The table below gives the Bombay working class cost of living index numbers month by month from January 1918.

*Bombay working class cost of living index numbers by month—
(July 1911=100).*

Month	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
January	131	182	183	169	173	156	159	167	155	156	151	160	147	117	110	109	96
February	131	176	181	162	165	155	156	157	151	155	145	148	141	111	110	106	96
March	136	172	177	160	165	151	151	159	155	155	145	149	141	111	111	105	94
April	114	167	172	160	162	156	150	158	151	153	141	148	140	111	103	101	93
May	117	168	173	167	163	153	150	156	159	152	147	147	139	110	107	100	91
June	148	174	181	173	163	152	153	151	153	154	146	147	149	109	107	101	95
July	149	186	190	177	165	153	157	157	157	156	147	148	139	108	109	101	97
August	153	170	191	180	161	151	161	152	155	157	146	149	130	108	109	103	97
September	165	172	192	185	165	161	161	151	155	151	145	149	136	108	109	102	100
October	175	174	191	183	162	152	161	153	151	151	146	149	131	108	109	100	100
November	175	173	186	182	160	153	161	153	151	150	147	150	127	108	110	101	101
December	181	174	181	179	161	157	160	155	156	151	148	150	121	109	110	98	96
Annual Average	151	175	183	173	161	154	157	155	155	151	147	149	137	110	109	103	97

The Labour Office conducted in the year 1926 an enquiry into working class budgets in Ahmedabad and the results of this enquiry have been used in the construction of a cost of living index for that centre. The Ahmedabad working class cost of living index number has been compiled on a post-war base and has been

published in the *Labour Gazette* since January 1930. Items representing food, fuel and lighting, clothing, house rent and miscellaneous groups have been included in the index. The following table gives the index numbers from August 1927 to November 1933—

*Ahmedabad working class cost of living index numbers by months
(Average prices from August 1926 to July 1927 =100)*

Month.	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	Month.	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
January	93	99	93	75	76	73	70	July	97	98	88	75	75	73	72
February	92	99	91	74	75	72	69	August	96	98	87	77	76	73	71
March	90	99	89	75	75	70	69	September	96	97	85	75	78	73	71
April	91	96	89	75	74	70	69	October	97	98	82	74	79	73	71
May	91	94	89	75	71	71	71	November	97	98	81	75	78	73	73
June	95	96	90	73	75	72	72	December	99	95	77	77	76	71	72
								Average	95	97	87	75	76	72	71

A cost of living index number based on the results of the enquiry into family budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur conducted by the Labour Office in 1925 has been published in

the Labour Gazette since February 1931
Sholapur working class cost of living index numbers by months (Average prices from February 1927 to January 1928=100)

Month.	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	Month	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934.
January .		100	104	70	72	73	68	August	95	102	89	73	73	70	72
February	97	99	100	77	75	72	70	September	95	104	91	73	74	69	75
March	93	98	96	75	76	69	68	October .	95	102	85	72	74	68	76
April	92	98	94	72	72	67	67	November .	95	104	82	71	75	68	76
May ..	94	100	95	71	72	68	69	December	97	100	76	71	71	68	74
June .	95	103	95	71	73	70	71	Yearly							
July	95	100	92	71	74	70	73	Average		101	92	73	73	69	72

Cost of Living Indexes have, during recent years, been compiled for Nagpur and Jubbulpore in the Central Provinces (with January 1927 as base) and for four classes of industrial workers in Rangoon in Burma (with 1931=100) The monthly figures of the cost of living Index numbers or these Indexes during the year 1934 were as follows —

Month.	Nagpur	Jubbulpore	Rangoon			
			Burmans	Tamils, Telegus and Oriyas	Hindu-standis	Chittagonians
January	57	52	87	90	90	86
February	57	52	88	90	90	86
March	54	52	86	89	89	84
April	54	53	87	90	89	86
May	54	53	88	91	89	87
June	57	54	90	92	90	88
July	58	55	88	91	89	86
August	57	54	88	92	89	87
September .	57	56	90	94	91	90
October	58	56	88	94	91	88
November	59	57	85	93	90	80
December	57	56	84	91	89	85
Average for year	57	54	84	91	90	87

Standard of Life—Very little information is available regarding the standard of living of the working classes in India. The most satisfactory method of obtaining this information is by means of a family budget enquiry in which information is collected regarding the composition, income and expenditure of the family. To enable general conclusions to be drawn from investigations of this type it is always necessary to conduct the enquiries by what is known as the extensive method, an attempt being made to secure the information from a large number of families so as to minimise the effect of the peculiarities of exceptional cases. The sampling method is often resorted to in conducting extensive family budget enquiries because of the impracticability of collecting data by the census method. It is essential that the sample should be representative in order to yield reliable results.

At the Third International Labour Conference of Labour Statisticians held at Geneva in October 1926, the Committee on family budgets passed a resolution that in order to provide adequate information with regard to actual standards of living, enquiries should be conducted generally at intervals of not more than ten years into the income, expenditure and conditions of living of families representative of large homogeneous sections of the population. It was also decided that for a complete enquiry information should be collected as to the district in which the family resides, the composition of the household, the industries and occupations of members of the family, the nature of the housing accommodation and the amount of each important item of family income and expenditure together with quantities of purchases, where practicable. It was agreed, however, that a less detailed investigation omitting the particulars of the family income would be sufficient where the sole object of the enquiry is to provide weights for the calculation of cost of living index numbers.

Family budgets were collected by the Labour Office for 3,076 working class families in Bombay City in 1921-22 and the report based on the results thereof was published in 1923. A new family budget enquiry in Bombay City was

undertaken by the Bombay Labour Office in 1932-33. The Report of this enquiry has been submitted to Government and will shortly be published. Weights based on the results of this enquiry are to be used in compiling a fresh cost of living index number for Bombay on a new base period. The Labour Office collected 985 budgets of working class families in Ahmedabad in 1926 and 1,133 budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur in 1925. The reports based on the results of these enquiries were published in 1928. A second family Budget enquiry for Ahmedabad was conducted in 1934 when over a thousand budgets were collected, the figures are in process of tabulation and the report of this enquiry will be published early in 1936. A small family Budget investigation for cotton mill workers in Bombay City was also conducted by the Labour Office in 1930 but the results of this investigation have not been published so far.

In the United Provinces a number of budgets were collected at Cawnpore with the object of compiling a cost of living index number. But the results of the enquiry were not found to be satisfactory and the province has not been compiling any cost of living index number.

The Labour Statistics Bureau, Rangoon, which was established by the Government of Burma in 1926, has made an extensive enquiry into the Standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon and the report based on 4,309 budgets was published in 1928. The results of this enquiry have been separately analysed for Burmese, Telugu, Tamil, Uriya, Hindustani, and Chittagonian workers. Separate index numbers for each of the different classes of workers have also been published at the end of the report. 1,002 budgets for the working class families in Nagpur and 507 budgets for working class families at Jubbulpore were collected between September 1926 and January 1927 for compiling cost of living index numbers for these two centres. The figures for the Nagpur, Jubbulpore and Rangoon Indexes for the year 1933 have been given in the above table.

TRADE UNIONS.

The history of trade unionism in India is a history of recent years. It was not until 1918 that labour had begun definitely to organise itself. Previous to that year very little effort appears to have been made to establish organisations of labour. The earliest association of workers in India was the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma which had been registered under the Indian Companies Act and its main activities were in connection with the provision of various benefits to its members such as legal defence, sickness insurance, life assurance, etc. After the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, came into force this Association re-organised under it as a Trade Union with the new name of the National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma. The Bombay Workers Union, founded in 1922, was

for the clerical classes employed in the Bombay Post Offices, a Union of wargers in the Ahmedabad cotton mills formed in 1917, the Clerks' Union, Bombay, established in April 1918 in order to organise the various classes of clerical labour employed in commercial and other offices in Bombay city, and the Madras Labour Union formed in 1918 for the textile workers in the three mills in the city of Madras, were the main labour organisations in existence at the end of the year 1918. In addition, there existed certain benevolent social institutions such as the Kringar Hithwardhak Sabha and the Social Service League, whose activities were directed towards the betterment of the condition of the working classes. But these Societies were not composed of workers themselves.

Union, (3) The Corporation Scavengers' Union, (4) The S I Railway Employees' Union and (5) The Coimbatore Labour Union. The Madras Harbour Port Trust Workmen's Union was revived in 1925-26. A section of the workmen of the Buckingham and Carnation Mills organised a separate Union in 1925-26 called the Buckingham and Carnation Mills Employees' Union, as a rival to the Madras Labour Union which is an old organisation in the same industry. The Cordite Factory Labour Union, Aruvankadus, came into prominence during 1926-27. Unions were newly formed for the employees of the Public Works Department workshops and the Government Central Press, Madras, while the Diocesan Press Employees' Union which had remained dormant was revived. The labourers working in the cotton ginning and pressing factories in Tiruppur, Coimbatore District, started a Union for their benefit. Most of the Unions included in their programme a demand for separate representation for Labour in the Legislative Council. The Oil Workers' Union and certain other Unions came into prominence only when there was an impending labour dispute. There were twenty-nine registered Trade Unions in the Madras Presidency at the end of March 1934.

Railways—Labour Unions are, or have been, operation on ten of the Class I railways, on some of which as many as three or more operate at the same time. Most of them are registered trade unions and the majority have secured some measure of recognition from the respective railway administrations. Many railway trade unions came into existence during the period 1918-1921 but several of them were short-lived. Those unions which have managed to survive are actively looking after the interests of their members and show signs of improved organisation and usefulness especially in those where union committees are not dominated by persons with a communistic bent of mind. A noteworthy feature is that there is an increasing tendency in many railway unions to look for office-bearers and leaders from amongst members who are actually engaged in railway work. There can be no doubt that, within the last few years, the appointment of establishment and employment officers and special attention to welfare of railway labour have been due largely to trade union propaganda.

The following is a list of such All-India Federations of Trade Unions or All-India associations of workers for which some information is available.

The All-India Railwaymen's Federation—Though not a registered body under the Indian Trade Unions Act, this Federation has been taking an active part in collective bargaining with railway authorities. Having affiliated to it about twelve unions of men working on all but two of Class I railways and with a membership of nearly 1,00,000, it has been able to exercise considerable influence with the Railway Board and arrangements have been made for half-yearly conferences with the Board for the discussion of matters affecting wages and conditions of service of railway employees as a whole. The federation is taking continuous interest in bringing railway employees closer together and securing greater

unity in the trade union movement in the country. At the last annual convention the Federation devoted special attention to the question of reinstatement of retrenched staff, wage-cuts, the proposed statutory Railway Board, etc.

The National Union of Railwaymen of India, Burma and Bombay—This Union was started by the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma which came into existence as a sequel to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Guards' strike in 1897. It was at first registered under the Indian Companies Act, but after the Indian Trade Unions Act came into being, it altered its name, redrafted its constitution and registered as a Trade Union. It has a membership of about 4,575. It provides for its members various voluntary and other benefits such as death sickness, unemployment and life insurance benefits. It is one of the few unions in India which maintains a political fund.

The All-India and Burmah Covenanted Non-Gazetted Railway Services Association—This Association, whose membership is limited to covenanted Europeans employed as foremen in railway workshops in India, was started in October 1926 with the object of securing for its members the benefits of the Lee Commission's recommendations. It submitted a memorial to the Viceroy on this question in November 1926. It has a membership of about 800 employees scattered all over India and it originally had its Head Office in Bombay. The Association registered with the Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency, in March 1928, but transferred its Head Office to Punjab in 1929 and again to Madras during the year 1932-33.

The All-India Trade Union Congress—This organisation was inaugurated in 1920 for two main purposes: (1) to co-ordinate the activities of the individual Labour Unions in India which till then remained isolated and were unable to take concerted action and (2) to recommend workers' delegates to the International Labour Conferences. When the Government of India had to select a Labour representative to attend the Washington Conference in 1919, there was no representative body of labour in India to be consulted and they therefore appointed Mr N M Joshi as the Workers' Delegate. In order, therefore, that responsible Labour opinion in India might have a voice in the selection of the delegates to the International Labour Conferences, the All-India Trade Union Congress was organised and the first session of the Congress was held in Bombay on the 31st October 1920. Eight hundred delegates from different parts of India were present and sixty Unions were affiliated and 42 others expressed their sympathy with the Congress. It became a central organisation of the trade union movement in India but from the beginning it had a strong political colour. Its presidents and secretaries have all been politicians first and labour leaders next, with the exception of a few persons like Mr N M Joshi. The Congress appointed itself a permanent body to meet once a year. It had a definite constitution, an elected Executive to carry on its work, and Provincial

Madras on July 16 and 17, 1932, with Mr V V Giri as President. The Federation claimed the allegiance of 40 unions in various parts of the country including Native States and a total membership of 78,000. The Conference adopted the provisional constitution of the Federation framed by the Committee of management and also considered the question of trade union unity.

Almost from the time of the unfortunate split which occurred at Nagpur in 1929, the necessity of bringing about trade union unity has been felt in almost every quarter. Efforts have been made since 1930 to bring the different groups together informally and to try to find a reasonable basis of agreement. Some Bombay unions formed a 'platform of unity' the main planks of which were (1) that the Trade Union is an organ of class struggle involving purely direct action, (2) that the Trade Union Congress should not be affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions, Amsterdam, and (3) that delegates should not be sent to the International Labour Conferences. In these efforts the railway unions which had remained aloof from the two rival national organisations took very great interest and the All-India Railwaymen's Federation convened in Bombay a representative conference in May 1931 when a committee was appointed for the purpose of considering and reporting upon the best methods of bringing about unity in the ranks of Indian labour. The platform of unity referred to was particularly examined by this committee whose suggestions for amendments were not approved by the extremist labour leaders belonging to the All-India Trade Union Congress. The All-India Trade Union Federation at its first session held in Madras however welcomed the efforts made by the Trade Union Unity Conference held under the auspices of the All-India Railwaymen's Federation and authorised its working committee to co-operate with other unions in facilitating the reconciliation of differing points of view. A special session of the All-India Trades Union Federation was held at Calcutta in April 1933 for the purpose of considering the question of Trade Union unity amongst other subjects, and a resolution was passed authorising the General Council to negotiate with the Provisional Committee of the National Federation of Labour (a new national trade union organisation formed by certain leaders of labour) on the question of trade union unity with a view to bring about amalgamation between the two organisations on a fair and equitable basis. As a result of these negotiations, the National Trades Union Federation came into existence on and from 10th May 1933 in place of the All-India Trades Union Federation and the National Federation of Labour.

The main objects of this Federation are (a) to establish a socialist State in India, (b) to socialise and nationalise the means of production, distribution and exchange as far as possible, (c) to ameliorate the economic and social conditions of the working classes, and (d) to support and actively participate in the struggle for India's political freedom from the point of view of the working classes by all legitimate, peaceful and democratic methods such as legis-

lation, negotiation, propaganda, etc., and, in the last resort, by strikes and similar other methods. Each affiliated union has to pay to the Federation an annual fee of Rs 20 for 2,000 members and below, Rs 10 for every additional 1,000 members or less upto 10,000 and Rs 5 for every additional 1,000 members or less above 10,000.

The first session of the National Trades Union Federation was held in Bombay on the 24th to 26th Dec 1933 with Mr Minal Kanta Bose, the President of the Federation, in the chair. The number of unions affiliated to the Federation was reported at 50 and the total membership of individual members at 1,37,000. It was resolved to organise an All-India Textile Labour Federation to resist the employers' attacks on the workers in the textile industry, and to provisionally affiliate the National Trades Union Federation with the International Federation of Trade Unions for a period of two years in the first instance.

There was a split in the Federation at its first session held in Bombay. The representatives of several Bengal Unions walked out of the conference on the 26th December 1933 in consequence of differences of opinion between them and Mr N M Joshi and held a meeting on the same day under the presidency of Mr Abdul Gham and resolved to form an All-India Federation of labour with the name and style of the *All-India Trades Union Federation* with headquarters at Calcutta. Mr M Daud, M.A., Bar-at-Law, was elected President. It was proposed to draft a constitution and place it for adoption before the next session to be convened at an early date. Six unions, all situated in Bengal, with a total membership of 15,000 promised affiliation to the new body.

There are, in addition, the following All-India Associations in existence —

(1) The All-India Postal and R. M. S. Association, (2) The All-India Postmen's and Lower-Grade Staff Union, (3) The All-India Telegraph Union, (4) The All-India Post and Telegraph Administrative Offices Staff Association, (5) The All-India Government Employees' Federation, (6) The All-India Currency Association, (7) The Central Body Military Accounts Association and (8) The National Federation of Textile Labour in India.

Trade Union Legislation

In 1920 a Company owning a mill whose workers were on strike brought a suit against the leader of the local labour union which was conducting the strike and others, seeking to restrain them from inducing the plaintiffs' workmen to break their contracts, and suing for damages for their actions in this respect. The Madras High Court to whom the suit was referred gave their decision granting an *interim* injunction restraining the defendants from inciting the plaintiffs' employees to continue the strike. The case was eventually withdrawn but the proceedings suggested that, in the absence of legislation, even legitimate trade union activity was attended by considerable peril. As a result of a resolution moved by Mr N M Joshi and accepted by the Legislative Assembly in March

of registered Trade Unions in successive years were as follows —

Year.	Membership.
1927-28	1,166
1928-29	3,842
1929-30	3,299
1930-31	3,151
1931-32	3,454
1932-33	5,090

The figure for 1932-33 represents about 2 per cent of the total membership of registered trade unions.

Royal Commission's Recommendations — With regard to Trade Unions, the Labour Commission recommended that every employer organisation should set up a special committee for the purpose of giving continuous consideration to the improvement of the well being and efficiency of the workers in establishments controlled by its members and that "recognition" of a Union should mean that the Union has the right to negotiate with the employer in respect of matters affecting either the common or individual interest of its members.

The fact that a Union exists only of a minority of employees or the existence of rival Unions are not sufficient grounds for refusing recognition. With regard to the internal administration of Trade Unions the Commission recommended that Union leaders should endeavour to give as many members as possible some share in the work of the Union and that Trade Union organisers should endeavour to find suitable men within the Union to act as officials and should train them for the position.

With regard to the Trade Unions Act, the Commission recommended that it should be re-examined during the year 1934 and that all limitations imposed on the activities of registered Unions and their officers should be reconsidered so as to ensure that the conditions attached to registration are not such as to prevent any well-conducted *bona fide* Union from applying for registration. Section 22 of the Act should be amended so as to provide that ordinarily not less than two-thirds of the officers of a registered Trade Union shall be actually employed or engaged in an industry with which the Union is concerned. The Government of India in their third Report on the action taken on the Commission's recommendations state that these recommendations have been "noted for consideration in due course".

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.

The weapon of the "strike" in industry first came into prominence in India during the period immediately following the close of the War when the majority of the strikes as shown in the introductory Section were designed to secure increases in wages commensurate with the rise in the cost of living. The epidemic of industrial strikes which characterised the period 1919-20 reached a climax in the winter of 1921. During this period strikes took place purely from economic causes and most of them ended successfully from the view-point of the workers, after a short struggle. After this period, however,

they tended to be more prolonged and less successful and, partly owing to political causes, there were a number of fairly serious disputes in public utility services. In more recent years the machinations of the Communists have been increasingly responsible for the calling of general strikes and their undue prolongation.

Extent of Disputes — All-India statistics of industrial disputes for each quarter and for each year have been compiled and published since 1920 by the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour.

The following tables show the number of disputes which occurred during the nine years 1925-33 in each province and in each class of industry respectively —

Provinces	No of disputes in								
	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Bengal	43	57	31*	60	35	34	47	27	29
Bombay	69	57	54	111	70	75	53	53	82
Madras	4	2	19*	7	12	11	15	14	0†
Central Provinces & Berar	6	4	2	1	2	1	7	8	8
United Provinces	6	3	3	2	4	2	11	2	5
Bihar & Orissa	2	3	4*	8	2	4	1	1	
Burma	3	1	3	7	4	3	10	4	5
Punjab	1			2			7	3	
Assam		1	12	5	9	10	15	7	10
Ajmer-Merwara									2
Total	134	128	129	209	141†	148	166	119‡	146†

* One strike extended to three provinces.

† Includes 3 disputes in Delhi.

‡ One strike extended to two provinces.

Bonus Dispute Enquiry Committee—The next Committee to be appointed by the Government of Bombay was the Committee of Enquiry with Sir Norman Macleod, as Chairman to enquire into the general strike of the Bombay cotton mill workers of the year 1924 in connexion with the non-payment of an annual bonus for the year 1923 by the Bombay mills

The findings of the Committee were —

- (1) That the mill workers had not established any enforceable claim, customary, legal or equitable, to the annual payment of a bonus, and
- (2) that the results of the working of the mill industry as a whole for the year 1923 were such as to justify the contention of the millowners that the profits did not admit of the payment of a bonus

Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee—The third *ad hoc* Committee to be appointed in the Bombay Presidency was the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir Charles Fawcett, Judge of the Bombay High Court, in connection with the general strike of the cotton mill workers in Bombay city of the year 1928 in pursuance of the agreement arrived at between the Bombay Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee at a conference held under the Chairmanship of the Hon Sir Ghulam Hussain Hidayatullah, General Member of the Government of Bombay, on the 4th October 1928

This Committee sat for a continuous period of five and a half months and its Report was published on the 26th March 1929

Some of the conclusions and recommendations of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee were as follows —

- (1) The proposals of the Millowners' Association (a) for standardization of wages duties and numbers of operatives in a mill and (b) for Standing Orders for the operatives about the conditions of their employment were in the main fair and reasonable
- (2) While there was justification for the Association's proposal to make a cut of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in weavers' wages, there were reasonable objections to be urged against its adoption in the present circumstances and it was recommended that it should be dropped by the Association provided the Labour leaders undertook to co-operate in working the scheme for the standardization of wages
- (3) That part of the standardization scheme which is called the "Rational" or "Efficiency" system and which aims at reducing the number of operatives employed in mills while raising their wages and providing conditions favourable for the extra efficiency, expected from the operatives was fair and reasonable
- (4) With regard to the Seventeen Demands submitted by the Joint Strike Committee some of the demands which were considered to be fair and reasonable were—

(a) That the Millowners shall not vary any of the present conditions to the disadvantage of the workers before securing the approval of the workers through their organisations

(b) That the Millowners' Association shall not permit its individual members to vary the conditions of service to the disadvantage of the workers without the sanction of the Association.

(c) The rates of new varieties shall be fixed by the Millowners' Association in consultation with the representatives of the Workers' organisations

(d) Notices in vernacular showing the rates of piece work in detail should be posted in the Departments for the information of the workers

(e) That there should be no victimisation of men who had taken part in the strike or any Union activities

Most of the above were eventually conceded by the Millowners' Association

(5) The following demands were held to be unfair and unreasonable—

(a) The wages of those workers whose average monthly wage is less than Rs 30 should be raised substantially

(b) The newly introduced system of compelling the workmen (1) to take out and present tickets of attendance and (2) to clean machinery daily should be discontinued

(6) The recommendations of the Committee for alleviating unemployment consequent on the introduction of efficiency methods of work were as follows —

(a) The millowners should set up some machinery for taking note of all cases where workers are discharged on account of reduction of staff, and help them as far as possible to get suitable employment either in some other mill or in some other industry

(b) The Millowners' Association should consider the advisability of a scheme for the payment of a gratuity to a worker, which may amount to say, four weeks or six weeks' wages according to his length of service payable in suitable cases to discharged employees who may need help during the waiting period while they are seeking employment. The formation of an Out-of-Work Donation Fund on a voluntary basis to be created by a system of setting aside a contribution by the Millowners of one anna per operative per month to which fund the operatives through their representatives should be invited to contribute one anna or at least half an anna per head per month was suggested

- (7) The Trade Unions should combine to arrange for the assistance of an expert technical adviser in dealing with disputes arising under the Standardisation Scheme.
- (8) In view of the fact that several matters required adjustment in connexion with the scheme for wage standardisation after it had been brought into operation and with a view to avoiding strikes and lockouts, machinery was provided by "Mediation Rules" agreed to by both sides for setting up joint Committees to enquire into disputes arising under the scheme and to endeavour to arrange for their settlement.

Owing to the undue prolongation of the general strike in the Bombay Cotton Mills of the year 1929 and the consequent disruption of labour, it was not possible for the Bombay Millowners' Association to bring into operation the Mediation Rules recommended by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee for the simple reason that there are no recognised Unions representatives of Bombay Cotton Mill workers in the City. The Bombay Textile Labour Union, of which Mr N. M. Joshi, M. L. A., is the President had barely 400 members. The recognition accorded by the Bombay Millowners' Association to the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union which claimed a membership of over fifty thousand after its registration in May 1928 was withdrawn by the Association on the publication of the reports of the Court of Enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act to inquire into questions connected with the general strike of the year 1929 and the Riots Enquiry Committee. The Association has been giving anxious consideration to the practical steps which might be taken by mills to bring about better relations between employers and their workmen and for the prevention of accumulation of grievances. In a circular letter dated the 8th January 1930 addressed by the Association to all the mills affiliated to it, they issued instructions that all mills should take immediate steps whereby complaints and grievances of the workers may be attended to by the management concerned at once. For this purpose complaint boxes were to be placed in the compounds of all mills in which workers are invited to put in petitions regarding their grievances or suggestions for improvement of conditions of work. The mills have been requested to give sympathetic consideration to any complaints or suggestions made and to redress or give effect to them wherever possible. Further measures calculated to improve the relations between the employers and the employed are under consideration. The Association have also devised measures for joint discussions between managers of mills and the Association on general questions relating to the internal administration of the mills.

The next Committee to be appointed in the Bombay Presidency was a Court of Enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act in connexion with the general strike of cotton mill operatives in Bombay City of 1929. After a prolonged enquiry into the causes of and the conduct of this strike which lasted for nearly

four months, the Pearson Court of Enquiry came to the unanimous conclusion that the whole of the blame for the calling and the continuation of the strike rested with the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union. The Report of the Court was published on the 16th Sept and its moral effect was so great that the union called off the strike unconditionally on the next day.

Perhaps the most comprehensive enquiry undertaken in India into wages and conditions of labour was the Departmental Enquiry conducted by the Commissioner of Labour (Mr T. J. Jennings, C. B., Barrister-at-Law) and the Assistant Commissioner of Labour (Mr S. R. Deshpande B. Litt. Oxon) of the Government of Bombay into Wage Cuts and Unemployment in the Cotton Textile Industry in the Bombay Presidency in 1931. The Assistant Commissioner of Labour and the Labour Officer at Ahmedabad together with statistical assistants of the Labour office visited every cotton Mills in the Presidency and procured full information on wages and on the terms of reference which are reproduced below with the Departmental findings—

1. The extent of the reduction in wages of work people employed in the cotton Mills in the Bombay Presidency since 1st January 1926

Findings—Wages in Bombay City were lower by 21 per cent in April 1931 as compared with July 1926, and in Sholapur reductions amounted to 17 per cent. Wages in Ahmedabad had risen between 5 to 15 per cent during the same period.

2. Whether the reductions have been uniform in the cotton Mills at each centre of the industry

Findings—The reduction in Sholapur was uniform in all Mills but as the Bombay Millowners' Association permitted its members to take independent action as they pleased the extent of the cuts varied widely as between Mill and Mill.

3. Whether the cost of living of the working classes has fallen during this period and to what extent

Findings—Cost of living has fallen in all centres. Taking July 1926 as 100 it fell by 29 points in Bombay City in April 1931. In Ahmedabad the fall in December 1931 as compared with August 1926 was 31 per cent and in Sholapur there was a fall of 28 per cent. Between February 1927 and December 1931.

4. What has been the average rise or fall in real wages during this period in the various centres of the industry

Findings—Bombay, April 1931 eleven per cent higher Ahmedabad 54 per cent. higher and in Sholapur 15 per cent higher.

- 5 Where wage reductions have been effected or are contemplated, the reasons, therefor

Finding—The reason most generally given was trade depression. Other reasons varied with the centres. In Bombay it was stated that it was necessary to reduce the cost of production, and labour cost were those most capable of reduction as the fall in the cost of living would enable the workers to maintain the standard of life they had in 1926 even after wages were reduced. As regards Ahmedabad there was no general reduction of wages at the time but such a reduction was contemplated owing to diminished profits and the wage reductions in other centres. In one centre wages were reduced owing to the probable coming into operation of the 54 hour week.

- 6 The extent to which Rationalisation for example, efficiency schemes have been introduced in the Cotton Mills of the Bombay Presidency and the effects which such schemes have had upon wages and the conditions of work of the operatives

Findings—That method of rationalisation which takes the form of asking operatives to mind more machines than formerly has made the greatest progress in Bombay City. In Ahmedabad rationalisation has been particularly directed towards improving the efficiency and types of machines used. The effect of rationalisation on earnings varied from Mill to Mill. In the few cases where rationalisation had not been accompanied by wage cuts, the workers were getting about 50 per cent more than they did before rationalisation was introduced, where it was accompanied by wage cuts the workers were not getting any more. The extra rates for minding more machines being neutralised by reductions in wages. The effects of rationalisation on the conditions of work have been beneficial because the workers were either working a shorter day or their work had been rendered easier. In Bombay a form of rationalisation is to ask a weaver to mind four looms instead of two. In Ahmedabad the system had not been adopted but double-side working in the frame Department was developing. Where operatives are minding more machines than formerly the workers have usually been given 35 to 60 per cent more wages in ring spinning and 50 to 75 per cent more on the speed frame. But some benefit from the increased efficiency of the plant had been passed on to some workers in the form of higher earnings on those machines. There has been very little rationalisation in Mills outside Bombay and Ahmedabad.

- 7 What is the extent of unemployment in the cotton Mill industry and what are its causes.

Findings—For lack of any agency official or non-official for collecting statistics of unemployment it was very difficult to formulate an answer to this question. 28,000 workers had lost their employment in cotton Mills in Bombay City (The opening of closed Mills and the employment of workers on night shift had, however, more than absorbed this number by the end of the year). In Ahmedabad 26,551 more operatives were employed than in 1926 and in Sholapur the number employed was more or less stationary.

Few Government reports have received a more universal or widespread welcome in India and the report of the Departmental enquiry formed the subject of leaders and articles in all sections of the Press in India five weeks after its publication. The most important result of the Report was the passing by the Government of Bombay of a Trade Disputes Conciliation Act appointing the Commissioner of Labour as ex-officio Chief Conciliator and the appointment of a senior Member of the Indian Civil Service (Mr. W. B. Gilligan) as a Labour Officer to look after the interests of Cotton Mill workers in Bombay City, to represent their grievances to their employers and to procure redress of such grievances whenever and wherever possible.

A development of the greatest possible importance in the field of industrial Conciliation and arbitration in India occurred early this year when the Commissioners of Labour of the Government of Bombay offered his services as Conciliator to the Western India Match Co during a dispute which occurred during January 1935 between the Company and its workmen at their Ambernath factory over question connected mainly with reductions in wages. Mr. I. F. Gennings, C.B.E., Commissioner of Labour, and Mr. S. R. Deshpande, Assistant Commissioner of Labour were able to secure an agreement between the two parties on the basis of which work was resumed after a strike lasting for a month. Subsequent to restarting work there was a further disagreement between the employers and the workers on the new piece rates and these were referred to the Commissioner of Labour for arbitration.

Bengal—Several special Committees were appointed by the Government of Bengal during the period of intense industrial unrest during the years 1920-21.

(1) As the result of a strike of taxi-drivers and professional drivers of private cars in Calcutta which was caused by objections to certain rules, particularly (a) a new rule requiring medical examination of applicants for professional driver's license, and (b) another rule forbidding the carrying of attendants in taxis, Government appointed a Committee of Enquiry into the existing licensing regulations and the control of taxicabs generally. The strike lasted from the 12th to the 20th January 1921, and ceased as a result of the institution of the inquiry. The Committee made a number of proposals for amendments in the existing regulations. These proposals were ultimately accepted and brought into effect on the 12th October 1921.

(2) As the result of a strike of drivers and conductors of Calcutta and Howrah tramways, which lasted from the 27th January to the 24th February 1921, Government appointed a Committee of Inquiry after the resumption of work by the strikers on the 8th March 1921. The men resumed work towards the end of February on condition (a) that the Calcutta Tramways Company would investigate their grievances and announce their decision within a week, and (b) that if the men were dissatisfied with the Company's decision, Government would appoint a Committee of Inquiry. There was general agreement between the Company and the men's representatives in regard to the majority of the Committee's recommendations. Some, however, of the Directors of the Company did not accept the terms. Another strike of the tramway employees of a much more protracted character broke out in 1922. It lasted from 20th December 1922 to 27th January 1923. No Committee of Inquiry was appointed, although the representatives of the men raised several points which arose from the previous inquiry. Work was resumed unconditionally.

(3) During a strike on the light railway of Messrs Martin and Company in the 21 Parganas and Howrah which lasted from the 15th June to the 2nd July 1921, a special Conciliation Board was constituted by Government by a special resolution at the joint request of the employers and the employees concerned. The result of the Board's efforts was a compromise on most of the points raised by the workers, and as a result of the Board's recommendations it was agreed that joint works committees should be set up on the Howrah-Amra and Howrah-Sheakhala lines. Works Committees were established soon after the Board's report was published, but they failed to function owing to the men's indifference.

(4) The Bengal Legislative Council passed a resolution on the 4th March 1921 to the effect that Government should appoint a Committee to enquire into the general causes of the prevailing unrest and to suggest remedial measures. The report of the Committee was published on the 18th June 1921. The main recommendations of the Committee were—

- (a) the establishment of joint works committees in industrial concerns;
- (b) non-intervention of Government in private industrial disputes, which it was considered should be settled by voluntary conciliation;
- (c) the constitution by Government of a conciliation panel to deal with disputes in public utility services, and
- (d) the appointment by Government of special conciliation judges in the case of private industrial disputes. If both parties desired outside intervention.

As the result of the recommendations of this Committee, a conciliation panel was constituted under Government resolution dated the 29th August 1921. The panel contained thirty names, and was composed on a representative basis, leading public bodies being asked to recommend persons to serve on it. The panel was reconstituted every year till 1929, when it was superseded by the Trade Disputes Act. Several applications for Government intervention were received during the period of the panel's existence but in no case did Government consider that intervention was justified.

The Government of Bengal agreed with the Committee's view that there was no reason why voluntary conciliation boards, wisely constituted, should not achieve a large measure of success in labour disputes affecting public utility services, where the parties had come to a deadlock, and a solution of the disputes could only be found in the intervention of outsiders. The panel was intended to deal only with disputes affecting public utility services in Calcutta and its neighbourhood. In the settlement of ordinary labour disputes not directly affecting the public, the Committee held that it was not ordinarily the duty of Government to intervene in such disputes either directly or indirectly but if both parties express a desire that their differences should be investigated by an impartial authority, the Governor in Council should be prepared to establish a conciliation board to deal with the matter, or to take such other action as might be suitable in the circumstances of the case.

TRADE DISPUTES LEGISLATION.

The history of the various proposals for legislation providing machinery for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes in India covers a period of about ten years. The findings of the Industrial Disputes Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay in the year 1921 in pursuance of a Resolution moved in the Bombay Legislative Council for the appointment of a Committee "to consider and report on the practicability or otherwise of creating machinery for the prevention and early settlement of industrial disputes" has already been dealt with above. Mention has also been made of the action taken by the Government of Bombay under circumstances which led to its abandonment owing to the Government of India circulating a draft Bill as an All-India measure. The Bill circulated by the Government of India in August 1924 was very wide and comprehensive in scope and extent.

Nothing further was heard about this Bill until the end of 1925 when His Excellency the Viceroy in a speech at the Annual Meeting of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, at Calcutta, said "The question of providing means of conciliation of trade disputes has been thoroughly explored but it would be premature to legislate on this question until the Trade Union Bill has become law." The Trade Unions Act was passed in the Legislative Assembly in March 1926 and was brought into operation with effect from the 1st June 1927.

In August 1928 the Government of India published their second Bill making provision for the investigation and settlement of trade disputes and for certain other purposes. This Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly with a motion for circulation on the 21st

September 1928 The Bill differed in several important respects in comparison with the Government of India's original Bill of 1924. The main part of the Bill falls into three parts. Clauses 3 to 14 of the 1928 Bill related to the establishment of tribunals for the investigation and settlement of trade disputes. This part of the Bill was based generally on the British Industrial Courts Act of 1919 and its detailed provisions were adopted for the most part from clauses in that Act. The main difference was that, whereas the British Act sets up a Standing Industrial Court, the Conciliation Boards which the Bill proposed to establish were intended to be appointed *ad hoc* like the Courts of Inquiry, in order to deal with particular disputes. The object of Courts of Inquiry which would ordinarily be composed of persons having no direct interest in the disputes would be to investigate and report on such questions connected with the dispute as might be referred to them. The objects of Boards of Conciliation which would ordinarily include representatives of the parties to a dispute would be to secure a settlement of the dispute. Provisions were made so as to enable both Courts of Inquiry and Boards of Conciliation to enforce the attendance of witnesses and the production of documents. Neither party would be under any obligation to accept the finding of the Court or the advice of the Board, and in cases where the dispute is not brought to an end during the deliberations of the tribunal that had been appointed, reliance was to be placed on the force of public opinion which would be enabled by the publication of the report of the tribunal to arrive at just conclusions on the merits of the dispute.

The second part of the Bill consisted of clause 15 which related to public utility services. In accordance with the definition of "Public Utility Services" in clause 2 of the Bill, Clause 15 would be applicable to such railway services as would be notified by the Governor-General in Council. The clause made it a penal offence for workers employed on monthly wages in public utility services to strike without previous notice and also provided heavy penalties for persons abetting such an offence. The clause was based on the principle that persons whose work was vital to the welfare of the community generally should not be entitled to enter into a strike before sufficient time had been given to examine the merits of their grievances and to explore the possibilities of arriving at a possible settlement. Provisions of a somewhat similar type already exist in the Indian Post Offices Act, in a number of Municipal Acts in India, and the principle is one which is widely accepted in other countries.

Clauses 16 to 20 of the Bill contained certain special provisions relating to illegal strikes and lockouts. These clauses followed closely the provisions of sections 1, 2 and 7 of the British Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act 1927. They were to be applicable only in the case of the strikes and lockouts which satisfied both of two conditions. In the first place, the strike or lockout must have other objects than the mere furtherance of a trade dispute within the industry to which the strikers or employers belonged, and, in the second place, the strike or lockout must be designed to coerce Govern-

ment either directly or by inflicting hardship on the community. If these conditions were satisfied, the strike or lockout would become illegal. Persons furthering the strike or lockout were liable to punishment and would be deprived of the protection granted to them by the Indian Trade Unions Act, while persons refusing to take part in it would be protected from Trade Union disabilities to which they might otherwise be subjected.

The motion for circulation was adopted in the Legislative Assembly and the Bill was circulated to all Local Governments for opinion. Some Provincial Governments recommended that questions connected with picketing and intimidation of the type which were entirely responsible for the undue prolongation of the general strikes in the cotton mills of Bombay City of the years 1928 and 1929 and the rioting in Bombay in the year 1929, should also be covered. The Bill was referred to a Select Committee of the Legislative Assembly in February 1929.

The Select Committee decided to limit the duration of the Act to five years. In connection with the definition of the term "Public Utility Services" they were of the opinion that the wide power enabling the Government to declare any industry, business or undertaking to be a public utility service was undesirable as well as unnecessary and the provision made for this in the draft Bill was omitted. Various proposals designed to lay upon the Government a definite obligation to convene a Court of Inquiry or a Board of Conciliation in cases where one of the parties so required were considered. But the Committee thought that unless both parties were agreed in desiring a reference it would be useless to fetter the discretion of the Government as to the time at which the matter was reported for action under clause 3. At the same time they held that no option should be left to the Government to refuse to appoint a Court or Board where the Government was assured that both parties were agreed as to the necessity as well as to the form which it should take. They therefore considered it necessary to provide that in every case a Court of Inquiry, where it consisted of one or more persons, should not include persons having an interest in the dispute or in any industry affected by it, and in this connection the Committee proposed a further definition of the term "An independent person." The clause relating to the publication of the findings of Courts and Boards was maintained on the lines of the English Act so as to make it quite clear that every report of a Court or Board, whether final or *interim*, must be published, and that only the publication of such information or evidence as the appointing authority thought fit should be left to its discretion. It was considered inadvisable to forbid the representation of parties before Courts and Boards by legal practitioners subject only to exceptions and they redrafted the clause in such a manner as to permit that such representation would ordinarily be permissible subject, however, to such conditions and restrictions as might be provided by the rules.

The Select Committee accepted the principle underlying the clause in connection with strikes in public utility services but they held that the clause as originally drafted was open to certain criticisms. For example, it was pointed out that

many persons are actually employed upon a daily wage which is in practice paid monthly, also that the clause as provided would appear to penalise abstention from work on the part of a particular individual and further that the clause was one-sided and inflicted no penalty upon an employer who locked out his workmen. The latter point was considered as one which should certainly be met as the nature of his employment, a casual or day-to-day labourer must be entitled to cease work at any moment and be similarly liable to dismissal and it was agreed that he should therefore be excluded altogether from the operation of this clause. The Committee adopted a suggestion made by the Government of Bombay, which made it clear that the cessation of work must be in the nature of a strike as defined in the Bill and it was provided that in order to render it a penal offence the strike must be in breach of a definite contract between the employer and the workmen. The Committee added a collateral provision penalising an employer for locking out his workmen in breach of any contract. The Committee adopted the clause in connection with illegal strikes but with some amendments which in their opinion, would restrict its scope without materially impairing its effectiveness. In sub-clause 2 of this section they made it clear that, for the application of money to be illegal it must not merely tend to further or support the strike, but have the direct effect of so doing. This was intended to exclude a case in which money is spent upon the relief of the dependents of strikers. A further sub-clause, borrowed from a similar provision from the English Act of 1927 explaining the circumstances in which a group of workmen should be deemed to be within the same trade or industry was added. The penalties provided for the infraction of an illegal strike were modified. With regard to clause 20 of the draft Bill, the Committee held that there was no sufficient justification for giving an option to the Government to apply for injunctions restraining the expense of the funds of a Trade Union in connection with an illegal strike. It was considered that under clause 16 such expenditure had been declared illegal and the persons properly interested in seeing that the funds were not mis-spent are the members of the Trade Union concerned. The Committee were of the opinion that the Bill had not been so altered as to require republication and they recommended that it should be passed as duly amended by them.

The Select Committee as such did not deal with the question of making provision for picketing and intimidation in their report but in a minute of dissent Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart, stated that the alteration of the law relating to picketing was one for which, in his opinion, the time was ripe. Picketing of any kind should be rendered illegal while a Court or Board is sitting and the law on picketing at any time should be altered to render it illegal at or near a workmen's house as under the English Law. There appeared to be some doubt as to whether legislation of this kind should take place in this Bill or by an Amending Bill to section 503 of the Indian Penal Code. It had been stated that if an amendment of this kind were passed in the Select Committee it would delay the Bill. As he did not desire to delay the acceptance of the

provisions of the Bill he did not press the point which was raised by other members of the Select Committee. Sir Victor Sassoon, however, thought that suitable action should be taken by Government either when the Bill came up before the House or by bringing out an amending Bill to the Indian Penal Code to deal with this most important and necessary point. The action taken by the Government of Bombay in connection with the passing of an Intimidation Act has been dealt with in the chapter on Industrial Disputes.

The Bill as amended by the Select Committee was passed by the Legislative Assembly on the 27th April 1929 without any change and received the assent of the Governor-General on the 12th April 1929. The Act was due to expire early in 1934 but by virtue of an amending Act it has been placed permanently on the Statute Book.

During the period of nearly six years for which the Act has been in operation, it has only been made use of on four occasions: once by the Government of Bombay when they appointed a Court of Enquiry in the year 1929 to enquire into the general strike in Cotton Mills in Bombay City in that year, twice by the Government of India who appointed a Board of Conciliation in 1930 in connection with a dispute in the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway which arose over the question of the transfer of a number of workmen from the Railway workshops in Bombay to the new workshops which they were starting in Dohad, and a further Court of Enquiry in 1931 to enquire into and report on the grievances of the large numbers of workmen who were recruited on all Indian Railways during that year, and once by the Government of Burma.

Royal Commission's Recommendations.—The Royal Commission on Indian labour were of opinion that some statutory machinery would be permanently required to deal with trade disputes and that it will be necessary to consider the form which such machinery should take before the Trade Disputes' Act expired in 1934. They recommended that the possibility of establishing permanent courts in place of *ad hoc* tribunals under the Act should be examined and also that the question of providing means for the impartial examination of disputes in public utility services should be considered. The Commission also recommended that section 13 of the Trade Disputes' Act should be amended so as to provide that no prosecution or suit shall be maintainable on account of any breach of the section or any damage caused thereby, except with the previous sanction of the Government which appointed the tribunal. Act XIX of 1932, giving effect to this recommendation was passed by the Indian Legislature in September 1932.

In May 1933, the Government of India issued a circular letter to all Provincial Governments inviting opinions, after consultation with the interests concerned as to (1) whether the Indian Trade Disputes Act, 1929, should be converted into a permanent measure, and 2) what amendments, if any, should be made in the Act. The Government of India were provisionally disposed to accept the Royal Commission's recommendation to include "Inland Water Services" within

the definition of a "Public Utility Service" but not "Tramway Services" because the latter generally have no monopoly in transport in the areas in which they run. Opinions were also specifically invited on the following five questions: (1) whether any statutory provision should be made in the Act for the appointment of Conciliation Officers, (2) whether a permanent Industrial Court on the lines of the British Industrial Court should be framed in each Province, (3) whether strikes or lockouts should be prohibited during the pendency of a Court of Enquiry or a Board of Conciliation, (4) whether awards of Boards of Conciliations should be made binding on both employers and the employed, and (5) whether picketing either by itself or when it is resorted to while a strike has been referred to a Court or Board should be made illegal. The Government of India were also disposed to accept the recommendation made by the Commission to omit the words "between an employer and any of his workmen" in Section 3 of the Act because as this Section stands at present it requires notices of the appointment of a tribunal appointed under the Act to be sent to every individual employer affected by a dispute. The Government of India requested all local governments to send them their replies by 1st November 1933. At the moment of going to press the Legislative Assembly passed a bill introduced by the Government of India to convert the Trade Disputes Act into a permanent measure. As regards the various amendments in the provisions of the Act it is understood that the Government of India propose to introduce another bill in the Assembly sometime later. Indian labour in general has been very badly let down by the communist agitators who dominated labour platforms all over the country in 1928 and 1929 and to-day there are few labour leaders in India who can command respect and adherence from both the employers and the employed. Great labour leaders like Mr N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., have, during the last two or three years, been engaged in fighting the cause of labour either before the Round Table Conferences in connexion with India's political future or in the Legislative Assembly in connexion with Bills and proposals for new labour legislation.

With regard to the action which should be taken by Provincial Governments the Commission recommended that every Provincial Government should have an officer or officers whose duty it would be to undertake the work of conciliation and to bring the parties privately to agreement. The Commissioner of Labour in Madras, the Director of Industries in the Punjab, the Director of Statistics and Labour Commissioner in Burma and Deputy Commissioners and the Director of Industries in the Central Provinces have already been entrusted with powers as Conciliation Officers.

The most notable achievement in the field of industrial conciliation in India was the passing of the Bombay Trade Disputes Conciliation Act, 1934. This Act is, in the first instance, to apply to the textile industry. It provides for the appointment of the Commissioner of Labour as *ex-officio* Chief Conciliator and also for the appointment of a Labour Officer, special Con-

ciliators and Assistant Conciliators. If the Chief Conciliator or any Conciliator appointed under the Act (a) in any area for which a Labour Officer is appointed, on receipt of an application or report from such Labour Officer, or (b) elsewhere, on receipt of an application from either or both parties to a dispute or upon his own knowledge or information is satisfied that a trade dispute exists or is apprehended, he may cause notice to be given to the parties to the dispute to appear before him and he is empowered to proceed to bring the two parties together with a view to conciliation. The Labour Officer duties are "to watch the interests of workmen with a view to promote harmonious relations between employer and workmen and to take step to represent the grievances of workmen to employers for the purpose of obtaining their redress. Both the Labour Officer and the Conciliator have been given powers of entering premises and calling for documents relevant to the subject-matter of the enquiry. The Act came into immediate effect and Mr W. B. Laligon, I.O.S., was appointed Labour Officer with effect from the 1st September 1934. In accordance with an undertaking given to Government by the Millowners' Association, Bombay, for the appointment of the Association's Labour Officer, the Association appointed Mr C. A. Dalal B.Sc. (London), as their Labour Officer to maintain a uniform policy for discussion and to represent Mill Managements in proceedings with the Government Labour Officer and the Chief Conciliator. During the short period for which the Act has been in force remarkable results have been achieved and there is today an almost complete absence of industrial strife in the cotton mill industry in Bombay City. This will be evidenced by the figures in the following table which show the number of disputes, number of workers involved in these disputes and the number of working days lost in textile Mills in Bombay City for each half year from the beginning of 1930 to the end of 1934.

Table showing the number of disputes in the Textile Industry in Bombay City for five years, 1930 to 1934

Period	No. of Disputes	No of work people involved	Working days lost
1930			
Jan'y to June	7	10,454	67,925
July to Dec	20	25,953	86,715
1931			
Jan'y to June	7	10,196	78,751
July to Dec	7	11,819	130,204
1932			
Jan'y to June	4	1,890	22,290
July to Dec	7	4,855	145,058
1933			
Jan'y to June	15	16,145	149,778
July to Dec	20	25,895	198,775
1934			
Jan'y to June	16	110,984	3,275,077
July to Dec	10	2,608	7,321

INDIA AND INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONVENTIONS.

The Preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles refers to the fact that "the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries." In order to establish universal peace based on social justice, the Peace Treaty not only laid down general principles in regard to questions affecting labour which were recognised by the High Contracting Parties to be of "special and urgent importance," but also brought into being the International Labour Organisation which was entrusted with the task of securing, as far as practicable, the observance of the principles. The International Labour Conference has been discussing various questions connected with industrial, agricultural and maritime labour since 1919 and has recorded its findings in conventions and recommendations. The Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference are not automatically binding on the State Members, but they have to be submitted to the Legislature of each country, and this secure the regular examination both by the Executive Government and the Legislature of schemes which international opinion considers necessary and desirable for the amelioration of labour conditions. During the thirteen Conferences that have been held, over forty Conventions have been adopted. Out of these the following thirteen have been ratified by India —

1. Hours of work (1919)
2. Unemployment (1919)
3. Night work of Women (1919)
4. Night work of young persons in Industry (1919)
5. Rights of Association (Agriculture) (1921)
6. Weekly Rest in Industry (1921)
7. Minimum age of workers and trades (1921)
8. Medical Examination of Young Persons employed at Sea (1921)
9. Women's Compensation (Diseases) (1925)
10. Equality of Treatment (Accidents) (1925)
11. Inspection of Emigrants on board ship (1926)
12. Seamen's Article of Agreement (1926)
13. Weight of Packages transported by vessels (1929)

In addition to the Conventions dealt with above, the International Labour Conference have also adopted numerous Recommendations.

The Seventeenth Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva from the 5th to 30th June 1933 adopted conventions in respect of (a) employment agencies, (b) widows and orphans' insurance and (c) invalidity and old age insurance. It also adopted Recommendations in connection with the first two subjects.

GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION.

During pre-Reform days Labour was not a question to which the Central or Provincial Governments in India gave the same attention as they did to such subjects as education, health or justice. After the amendment of the Indian Factories Act of 1891 in 1911, the appointment of the Indian Industrial Commission in May, 1916, may be considered to be the first milestone in the progressive interest taken by Government in questions connected with labour. The active participation of India in the Great War led to the 'creation of an unprecedented opportunity' and 'the emergence of an unprecedented need' for a definite industrial policy for India as a whole. The examination of various industrial questions by the Industrial Commission included, to a certain extent, the examination of questions connected with labour as well. Previous to this date no provincial or All-India inquiries of a general character were held into conditions of labour with the exception of some quinquennial censuses into agricultural wages. No information was available in 1919 as to the rates of wages which were paid in industry, and, for that matter, very little information in this direction is available even to-day. Indian labour secured its first opportunity with her participation in the signing of the treaty of peace and her becoming a live member of the international comity of nations. The participation by India, in the first International Labour Conference held at

Washington in the year 1919 made it necessary for the Government of India and the Governments of the more industrialised provinces not only to consider the question of the representation of labour in the Central and Provincial Legislatures but also to allocate to special departments or offices the administration of labour questions.

Under the Devolution Rules (Schedule I, Part 2, Rule 26) industrial matters included under the heads factories and welfare of labour fall within the scope of the provincial legislatures. Under the same rules "regulation of mines" and "inter-provincial migration" are central subjects. A Labour Bureau was established by the Government of India in the year 1920 but it was abolished in March 1923 on the recommendation of the Indian Retrenchment Committee. The administration of labour matters since then has been in the hands of the Department of Industries and Labour with a Member of the Viceroy's Council holding the portfolio. Amongst Local Governments, the Bengal and the Madras Presidencies were the first in the field for the creation of special Labour Officers, but it was the Government of Bombay who took the lead in the field for the creation of a proper Labour Office for the collection and compilation of all kinds of statistics in connection with prices, cost of living, wages, etc.

Bengal

The Government of Bengal appointed a Labour Intelligence Officer in the year 1920. Labour laws were to be administered in the Commerce Department, but the Revenue Department continued the administration of the Assam Labour Immigration Act. The Labour Intelligence Officer was to keep a record of industrial disputes in the Presidency and also the number of labour organisations. From time to time, as circumstances permitted, he was to conduct special inquiries. He was, however, not provided with an adequate staff for the purpose. The Labour Intelligence Officer is also the Deputy Secretary to the Government of Bengal in the Commerce Department and since the bringing into effect of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, he has also been appointed Registrar of Trade Unions. The Royal Commission on Indian Labour have recommended that Bengal should have a properly staffed Labour office on the same lines and with at least the same staff as the Labour office of the Government of Bombay.

Madras.

The Government of Madras appointed a Labour Commissioner in the same year, viz., 1920, to watch and study at all times the conditions of labour particularly industrial labour throughout the Presidency and to keep Government informed by periodical reports of its movements and tendencies and of the existence of any disputes between employers and employed. The settlement of labour disputes and prevention of strikes are features of his work but his interference in such disputes is limited to tendering his offices to settle them. In the case of disputes affecting the internal administration of a railway he may interfere only if both sides agree to his intervention but he must obtain the previous sanction of Government in each case. He is also the Protector of Depressed Classes in which work most of his time is occupied. On a par with the Labour Intelligence Officer, Bengal, the Labour Commissioner in Madras has also no special statistical office to deal with labour statistics and no reports have been published of any special inquiries into questions connected with industrial labour in the Presidency. Since the creation of the Office the conduct of periodic censuses into agricultural wages is, however, placed in his hands.

The Bombay Labour Office

The real pioneer work in the field of labour information and statistics in India during the last fourteen years has been done by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay which was established in April 1921. In the Government resolution announcing the establishment of this office the following were declared to be its functions—

“(1) *Labour Statistics and Intelligence*—These relate to the conditions under which labour works and include information relating to the cost of living, wages, hours of labour, family budgets, strikes and lockouts, and similar matters.

“(2) *Industrial Disputes*—As experience and knowledge are gained and the activities of the Labour Office develop it will promote the settlement of industrial disputes when these arise, and

“(8) *Legislation and other matters relating to labour*—The Labour Office will advise Government from time to time as regards necessary new legislation or the amendment of existing laws.”

When the Labour Office was first started it was placed in charge of Director of Labour. The post of the Director of Labour was, however, abolished in 1926 and the labour office was placed under the charge of the Director of Information whose designation was changed to Director of Information and Labour Intelligence. With a view to implementing the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in the matter, the Government of Bombay in May 1933 again changed the designation of the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence to ‘Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information’. With this change in designation the administrative control of the Factory and Boiler Departments was transferred from the Collector of Bombay to the Commissioner of Labour and the Commissioner of Labour was also appointed ex-officio Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation and Registrar of Trade Unions. Under the Bombay Trade Disputes Act, 1934, the Commissioner of Labour has also been appointed ex-officio Chief Conciliator. In addition to the Commissioner there are four granted officers attached to the Labour Office. Three of these are Assistant Commissioners of Labour at headquarters in Bombay and the fourth who is called the Labour Officer at Ahmedabad is stationed at that centre. There are also three full time Lady Investigators but these are not gazetted appointments. The Assistant Commissioners, the Labour Officer and all the Investigators receive conveyance allowances. The office staff contains two Statistical Assistants, three senior clerks, ten junior clerks, two stenographers, one typist one cashier, one despatcher, one dattari and five peons in Bombay and one peon in Ahmedabad. The activities of the office comprise (1) prices and cost of living, (2) wages and hours of labour, (3) rents, (4) economic and social conditions of various communities, (5) unemployment, (6) industrial disputes, (7) trade unions, (8) other industrial and labour intelligence, (9) international labour intelligence, (10) labour legislation, (11) the *Labour Gazette*, (12) library, and (13) office organisation.

The *Labour Gazette* has been published monthly from September 1921. It is intended to supply complete and up-to-date information on Indian labour conditions and especially the conditions existing in the Bombay Presidency, and to supply to local readers the greatest possible amount of information regarding labour conditions in the outside world. The *Labour Gazette* circulates to many different countries and is perhaps the only publication of its kind in India from which foreigners interested in labour and economic conditions in India can obtain accurate and up-to-date information. It has also hitherto been practically the only medium through which the work and publications of the International Labour Office have been made regularly available to people in India. A substantial grant is allowed by the Local Government to the Labour Office for the purchase of books and the Labour

Office has accumulated a very useful and fully catalogued library on labour, industrial and economic matters. The Labour Office Library is open to research workers in Bombay. In addition to books, the library contains bound copies of all the more important periodicals received from Labour Ministries, International organisations and research organisations in various parts of the world.

The Labour Office has conducted several special inquiries, the results of which have either been published in the form of special reports or as special articles in the *Labour Gazette*. Among the inquiries the results of which have been published in the form of reports are three inquiries into wages and hours of labour in the Cotton Mill Industry in the Bombay Presidency for the years 1921, 1923 and 1926, four reports of inquiries into family budgets three of which related to working class family budgets in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur and the fourth to middle class family budgets in Bombay City. The remaining reports dealt with inquiries into agricultural wages in the Bombay Presidency, an inquiry into deductions from wages or payments in respect of fines and an inquiry into middle class unemployment in the Bombay Presidency. Other special inquiries related to wages of poons and municipal workers, warlike work, rentals in Bombay and Ahmedabad, maternity cases among women operatives, methods of wage payments, strikes, clerical wages in Bombay City, incidence of sickness among cotton mill operatives, infant mortality, etc. In the *Labour Gazette* statistics are regularly published for working class cost of living index numbers for Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, wholesale prices index numbers for Bombay and Karachi, retail food prices for five important centres in the Bombay Presidency, for industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency and for Workmen's Compensation, prosecutions under the Indian Factories Act, and the employment situation. A new working class index number has been compiled for Ahmedabad and statistics with regard to this have been published in the issues of the *Labour Gazette* since January 1930. A working class cost of living index number for Sholapur has also been published. Quarterly information is also collected with regard to all known Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency and full information is published in the *Labour Gazette* every three months. The present staff of the Labour Office is as follows —

Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information, Commissioner of Workmen's Compensation and Registrar of Trade Unions—Mr J. F. Gennings, C.B.E., Barr-at-Law, J.P.

Assistant Commissioners of Labour—Mr S. R. Deshpande, B.Litt. (Oxon), Mr N. A. Melubani, B.A., F.S.S. and Mr S. V. Joshi, B.A., (Cantab.) Mr Joshi is also assistant to the Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency.

Labour Officer at Ahmedabad—Mr A. S. Tyengar, B.A., LL.B.

Lady Investigators—Mrs K. Wagh, Miss G. Pimpalkharkar and Miss S. Dabholkar (These are non-gazetted appointments.)

The Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information has six offices under his charge: (1) The Labour Office, (2) the Information Office, (3) the Office of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, (4) the office of the Registrar of Trade Unions, (5) The office of the Chief Inspector of Factories, and (6) the office of the Chief Inspector of Boilers. In the case of the Office of the Registrar of Trade Unions one Asst. Commissioner of Labour has been appointed as Assistant to the Registrar of Trade Unions and the office work is done by a Statistical Assistant and a junior clerk from the staff of the Labour Office. The Information Office is under the administration of the Home Department. The Labour Office was under the administration of the Home Department till the year 1926, but it was transferred to the General Department and is now under the control of the Political and Reforms Department.

Central Provinces

The Department of Commerce and Industry is the administrative authority which deals with all labour questions. The Revenue Department deals with mines. The Department of Industries under the Director of Industries is in immediate charge of all matters relating to labour. He is also Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies and Registrar of Trade Unions. The Factory Office is under the general supervision of the Director of Industries. There is no special Labour Office or Labour Officer in the Central Provinces but the factory staff is utilised for collecting such information on labour questions as may be required from time to time. A Board of Industries consisting of representatives of the employers and the employed has been in existence since the year 1914 and all matters affecting the interests of labour are considered by this Board. But the Board acts purely in an advisory capacity.

Other Provinces

In Burma a Labour Statistics Bureau with a Special Officer in charge was set up in 1926. This Bureau has conducted an extensive investigation into the standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon, the Report of which was published in 1928. In the Punjab the Director of Industries is the administrative officer for all acts concerned with labour. In the United Provinces almost all departments of the Local Government deal with labour questions. Labour as such is with the Home Member, electricity is with the Finance Member, the factory staff is under the immediate control of the Director of Industries who is under the Minister of Education and Industries and Boiler Inspection is under the Public Works Department. The Registrar of Co-operative Societies of the United Provinces has been appointed Ex-officio Registrar of Trade Unions in the Province. In Assam the main question connected with labour is that concerning the recruitment of labour for the tea plantations from other provinces. As inter-provincial migration is a Central subject, the Local Government are not very actively interested in the special consideration of other labour questions.

Representation on Legislatures.—The Government of India nominates one member for labour interests in the Legislative Assembly. Since the last reforms were brought into opera-

tion Mr N M Joshi, of the Servants of India Society, has been continuously nominated as labour member in the Legislative Assembly in the Bombay Presidency the Local Government had provided one seat for labour, and Mr S K Bole was nominated as the labour member in the first two Councils after the reforms. In 1927 the Local Government increased the number of seats for labour to three but the principle of nomination was maintained. The three persons representing labour interests in the Bombay Legislative Council at present are Messrs S K Bole, Syed Munawar and R B Bakhale. In the Central Provinces, Mr R W Fulay, a Nagpur pleader, has been nominated as a representative of urban factory labour. In Bengal there have been two nominated members to represent labour interests since the introduction of the reforms. The Assam Government reserves one seat for the nomination of a member to represent labour but it has been found impracticable to find any one who could adequately represent this constituency and therefore the seat is vacant in the present Assam Legislative Council.

Relation between Central and Local Governments.—It has already been stated above that under the Devolution Rules, factories, settlement of labour disputes and welfare of labour are reserved subjects. These subjects are, however, subject to central legislation. The provincial legislatures are not debarred from initiating legislation on these matters but they can only do so with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council. The actual administration of the Acts passed by the central legislature under the above heads falls on the Local Governments who have to bear the entire cost of administration, as it is not permissible under the constitution to incur any expenditure from central revenues on the administration of provincial subjects. This constitutional position is perhaps, to some extent, responsible for the opposition shown by some of the Local Governments to labour measures on which their opinions have been invited by the Government of India during recent years. The Governor-General in Council exercises control over the administration of the Acts passed by the legislature in two ways in the first place he is vested by Statute with the general power of superintendence, direction and control, and, secondly, these Acts in most cases either reserve certain powers to him to make the powers conferred on Local Governments subject to his control. The general principle observed by the Government of India has been to grant to the provinces as free a hand as possible in the administration of the various All-India Acts.

Effect of differences in Law in Indian States and British India.—Few Indian States have any labour legislation but most of them are of little industrial importance. The only States which have more than 8,000 persons employed in factories and mines are Hyderabad, Mysore, Indore, Baroda, Jammu and Kashmir, Gwalior and Travancore. Most of these States have a Factories Act which, however, is much below the standard of the corresponding Act in British India. In recent years there has been a tendency on the part of certain capitalists to endeavour to evade the provisions of the Factory Law in British India by establishing mills or factories in the territories of Indian States.

Recommendations of the Royal Commission.—The most important recommendation made by the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in connexion with Government administration of matters connected with labour is for the setting up of an Industrial Council which would enable representatives of employees of labour and of Governments to meet regularly in conference to discuss labour measures and labour policy. It is suggested that the Council should meet annually and its President should be elected at each annual session. The Secretary of the Council should be a permanent official responsible to it for current business. The functions of the Council would be (1) the examination of proposals for labour legislation referred to it and also to initiate such proposals, (2) to promote a spirit of co-operation and understanding among those concerned with labour policy, and to provide an opportunity for an interchange of information regarding experiments in labour matters, (3) to advise the Central and Provincial Governments on the framing of rules and regulations, and (4) to advise regarding the collection of labour statistics and the co-ordination and development of economic research. If Labour Legislation is made a Central subject in the new constitution of India, the Royal Commission recommend that the authority finally responsible for such legislation must be the Central Legislature. If Labour legislation is to be decentralised, some co-ordinating body will be necessary. The decisions of the Council could not be given mandatory power, but in certain circumstances it might be made obligatory for Provincial Governments within a specified time to submit proposals for legislation to their respective legislatures for a decision as to their adoption or rejection.

The Commission recommended that Labour Commissioners should be appointed both for the Central and in all the Local Governments except Assam. Labour Commissioners should be selected officers who should hold the appointment for a comparatively long period. They should be responsible for the publication of labour statistics, should have the right to enter all industrial establishments and should be generally accessible both to employers and labour and should act as conciliation officers. Where there is danger of establishments being transferred to Indian States in order to escape regulation, an effort should be made to obtain the co-operation of the adjoining states. The Commission also recommended that the possibility of making labour legislation both a federal and a provincial subject should receive adequate consideration, and that if federal legislation is not practicable, efforts should be directed to securing that, as early as possible, the whole of India participates in making progress in labour matters. For States in which there is appreciable industrial development, the Industrial Council should offer a suitable channel for co-operation. On the 7th March 1935 Mr P N Saprú moved a resolution in the Council of State urging the establishment of the Industrial Council on the lines suggested by the Whitley Commission. Mr D E Mitchell speaking on behalf of Government expressed sympathy with the resolution. He did not deny that the creation of such an Industrial Council would be of very great value but there was no great hurry for it.

He quoted the Committee's report and said they were not for its immediate establishment. The situation had considerably altered since the recommendation had been made in 1901 and there was a possibility under the new constitution that labour would be decentralised. In that case there was the danger that legislation made under uniform provisions would come into conflict with the Centre. In view of this he thought that the creation of such a Council in this State was not desirable. The Resolution on being put to the vote was nullified by a vote of 11 against 7.

With regard to the question of representation of labour on the legislature, the Boylston Commission recommended that if special circumstances, as to remain a feature of the Indian constitution labour should be given adequate representation in the Central and Provincial legislatures. The method which he most likes to be effective in securing the best representation of labour is that of election by elected trade unions. A special tribunal should be set up in each province to determine before election the weight which should be given to

each industrial trade union. The question was examined by the Indian Provincial Councils and as for a the Provincial Councils were concerned the constitutional award of His Majesty's Government has given effect to the Labour Councils' recommendation. The Provincial Councils recommended a combination of trade union constituencies and special constituencies and this has been adopted in the Government of India Bill under discussion in the House of Commons.

In the Government of India Bill the following subject may be included for consideration both by the Federal Council and the Provincial Legislatures:

- (1) Factory regulation of the working of Mills, but not including industrial development.
- (2) Welfare of labour, provision funds, employers' liability and workmen's compensation.
- (3) Trade Unions, industrial and labour disputes.

Domestic Servants.

The relationship of master to servant in India is a subject to which attention is frequently directed in the Press by complaints about the alleged deterioration of domestic servants and the hardships to which employers are subjected by the boycotting action of discharged servants. The remedy most commonly propounded for misbehaviour on the part of servants is registration with a view to checking the use of false testimonials or "chits," and to enabling masters to obtain certain information as to the character of the persons they employ. This mode of procedure is of German origin, for the old Prussian Servants' Ordinances (*Gesindeordnung*) were supplemented in 1854 by a law applying only to agricultural labourers and domestic servants, which punishes breach of contract, and since then various State laws dealing with domestic servants have been passed in Germany. The conditions are not, however, analogous for the servant keeping class in India is proportionately larger than in Europe, as also is the number of servants kept by each individual.

The first attempt in the East to deal with the problem by legislation was made in Ceylon. The act dealing with the registration of domestic servants in that Colony is comprised in Ordinance No 28 of 1871. It extends to all classes of domestic servants, hired by the month or receiving monthly wages, and the word "servant" means and includes head and under-servants, female servants, cooks, coachmen, horsekeepers and house and garden coolies. The Act came into operation in 1871 and empowered the Governor to appoint for the whole of the Island or for any town or district, to which the Ordinance is made applicable, a registrar of domestic servants, who is to be under the general supervision and control of the Inspector-General of Police. A registry is kept

by the registrar of all domestic servants employed within his town or district, and he has to enter therein the names of all the servants, the conditions in which they are employed at the time of such registration, the dates of their several engagements, and such memorandum of their previous service or antecedents as they may desire to have recorded in the register. But the registrar must, previous to his entering all these details, satisfy himself as to the credibility of the statements made to him. Any person, who may not have been a domestic servant before, but who is desirous of entering domestic service, has to submit an application to the registrar, and if the registrar is satisfied that there are reasonable grounds to believe that the applicant is a fit and proper person to enter domestic service he shall enter his name in the register, recording what he has been able to learn respecting the person's antecedents together with the names of any persons who are willing to certify as to his respectability. If the applicant is unable to produce satisfactory or sufficient evidence as to his fitness for domestic service the registrar may grant him "provisional" registration, to be thereafter converted into "confirmed" registration according to the result of his subsequent service. If the registrar is satisfied that the applicant is not a fit and proper person he should withhold registration altogether, but in such a case he must report his refusal to register to the Inspector-General of Police.

Every person whose name has been registered in the general registry is given a pocket register containing the full particulars of the record made in the general registry. No person can engage a servant who fails to produce his pocket register or whose pocket register does not record

the termination of his last previous service, in any On engaging a servant the master has to enter forthwith in the pocket register the date and capacity in which such servant is engaged and cause the servant to attend personally at the registrar's office to have such entry inserted in the general registry Similarly, in case the master discharges a servant he must insert in the pocket register the date and cause of his discharge and the character of the servant Provided that if for any reason he be unwilling to give the servant a character or to state the cause of his discharge he may decline to do so But in such a case he must furnish to the registrar in writing his reasons for so refusing If the servant on dismissal fails to produce his pocket register the master must notify that fact to the registrar Whenever any fresh entry is made in the pocket register the servant is bound to attend the registrar's office to have such an entry recorded in the general registry Every servant whose name is registered shall, if he subsequently enters service in any place not under the operation of the Ordinance, attend personally at the nearest police station on his entering or leaving such service and produce his pocket register to the principal officer of police at such station in order to enable the police officer to record the commencement or termination of the service. The police officer has then to communicate it to the registrar of the town or district in which such servant was originally registered

Various penalties of fine as well as of imprisonment are imposed for violation of any of the acts required to be done or duties imposed by the Act on the various persons mentioned below As respects masters if they fail to fulfil any of the duties imposed on them by the Act they expose themselves to a liability of their being fined to the extent of Rs 20. Similarly a servant, who fails to fulfil any of the duties imposed on him by the Act is liable to pay a fine not exceeding Rs 20 But in case he gives any false information to the registrar or to any other person on matters in which he is required by this Ordinance to give information, he is liable to a fine not exceeding Rs 50 or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding 3 months A fee of 25 cents is charged to the master on engaging a new servant, a like fee of 25 cents is charged to the servant on his provisional registration, or on registration being confirmed, or for registration of previous service or antecedents. But in case of loss or destruction of the pocket register the servant has to pay one rupee for the issue of a duplicate pocket register.

A similar Ordinance (No. 17 of 1914) has been introduced in the Straits Settlements, where its operation has been limited to such local areas as may be declared by the Governor in Council, and its application within such areas has been restricted to the class of householders who are expected to desire the benefit of the provisions

Sea Routes between India and Europe.

The Indian port for the direct journey to and from Europe is Bombay. There are ordinarily five lines of steamers by which the journey to and from the West *via* Bombay can be performed, either by sea all the way, or—and in some cases only—by sea part of the way and by rail across Europe. They are the P. & O., the Anchor Line, the City and Hall Line and the Lloyd Triestino. The Natal line steamers are available for Western passages only, the steamers sailing round the Cape on their Eastward voyages There are ordinarily other services between Calcutta and the

West, by steamers sailing round Ceylon, and several lines connect Colombo with Europe Of the latter the Orient, the Messageries Maritimes, the Bibby Lines, N.Y.K., Australian Commonwealth, and Royal Dutch Lines are the chief besides the P. & O. The Bibby and Henderson services extend to Rangoon The new railway between India and Ceylon greatly increases the importance of the Colombo route for Southern India The shortest time between London and Bombay is 13 days *via* Genoa or Venice The following are the fares which are convertible at approximately current rates of exchange.—

Peninsular and Oriental S. N. Co.

FARES FROM BOMBAY OR KARACHI.	1st Saloon.				2nd Saloon.	
	A	B	C	D	A	B
Free passages (single and return) are granted between Karachi and Bombay by British India Steamer.	£	£	£	£	£	£
To Plymouth or London by sea, Single	78	72	66	60	48	42
Return	136	120	116	106	84	74
To Marseilles, Single	74	68	62	56	44	38
Return	120	119	109	99	77	67
To Malta, Single	68	62	56	50	42	36
Return	119	109	99	89	74	64
To Gibraltar, Single	76	70	64	58	46	40
Return	133	123	113	103	81	71

CIVIL AVIATION.

The development of internal aviation in India was first essayed by Lord (the George) Lloyd, during his Governorship of Bombay (1918-21). Lord Lloyd succeeded in securing the inauguration of a postal mail service between Karachi and Bombay. The service was carried in R.A.F. machines. The use of these aeroplanes complicated the matter from the outset. The service was not warmly supported by the public. The effort failed. The general attitude of the Government of India for some time after this was that as no air services in the world had yet been run without a Government subsidy and as India had no money available for such a purpose, a general

The problem of internal air services was freshly taken up by the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour when Sir Bhupendranath Mitra was member of Government for that portfolio. Force of circumstances had already necessitated the appointment of a Director of Civil Aviation and the first holder of the post was Lt-Col F C Sheldermine, O B E.

Non-official members of the Assembly, under the leadership of Dr Moonje, then an elected member, for some time strongly pressed Government to institute a practical system for the training of young Indians in Civil Aviation. They foresaw that the development of civil aviation in India was only a matter of time and their great desire was to prevent it following in the wake of the mercantile marine and the commissioned ranks of the army, in which Indians came to the fore under modern conditions only in time to be faced with competition by Britishers who were first in the field. The upshot of this agitation was an arrangement by which young Indians might be sent to England for training with a view to their future employment in the Civil Aviation Department as aerodrome officers, inspectors of aircraft and engines, etc. Light lads were dispatched for the opening of this system. Others followed and results have been successful. These men are not trained primarily as commercial pilots, but a development of their training, if they show special aptitude and desire to adopt a pilot's career, is always in view. This is a wise precaution and some of them take pilot's certificates. All of them receive a certain amount of training as pilots and they also go through a post-graduate course at the Imperial College of Science and Technology and a period of attachment to selected aircraft works and to the London Terminal Aerodrome at Croydon. The course lasts for two years and three months, during which time the men receive scholarships amounting to £240 per annum. A condition of eligibility for these scholarships is that applicants must possess a B S O degree in engineering or physics.

In all, 8 Indians were trained as Government Scholars and are at present employed in the Civil Aviation Directorate. Of these, 6 are employed as Aerodrome Officers at Karachi, Allahabad, New Delhi, Calcutta, Akyab and Rangoon, the remaining two as Assistant Aircraft Inspectors at Karachi and Calcutta. In 1933, a further batch of 5 ground Engineers was sent to England for training in advance aeronautical engineering. One was to undergo a course in oxy-acetylene welding and of the remainder two were to be trained in aircraft and two in engine manufacture. The course is for a period of 2½ years.

Internal Air Services—Sir Bhupendranath Mitra was in due course obliged to reconsider the question of assisted internal aerial services in India. An arrangement was made by which the Imperial Airways' Service between Croydon and Karachi was, on 30th December 1929, extended to New Delhi, mails from and for Europe being carried to and for each week. This conveyance of mails between New Delhi and Karachi was performed under a

special arrangement, the chief point of which was that the service was conducted by the Postal Department of the Government of India and that Imperial Airways chartered to them machines for the purpose. This meant, in effect, that the Western service of the Airways Company continued to Delhi, but that technically the service from Karachi eastwards, belonged not to them but to the Government of India. Passengers as well as mails were carried. On the expiration of the period for which the contract on these lines was arranged, the Government of India decided not to renew their charter with Imperial Airways and adopted the alternative course of contracting with the Delhi Flying Club to carry the weekly Karachi-Delhi air mails to and fro. Passengers were also carried by this service. This, like the earlier special arrangement with Imperial Airways, was obviously a transitional plan. It came into operation early in 1932. It filled the need of the moment, pending the development of a permanent scheme.

Before Sir Bhupendranath Mitra could critically develop the matter, he was succeeded in charge of the Departmental portfolio by Sir Joseph Bore and the latter entered with enthusiasm into the problem. Its solution was largely assisted by a great deal of spade-work carried out by Col Sheldermine before he resigned his appointment as D C A in order to take up the corresponding one in England. A scheme was worked out under the direction of Sir Joseph Bore for the institution of a weekly air-service between Karachi and Calcutta in connection with the weekly arrivals and departures of air mails conveyed by Imperial Airways, Ltd, from and to England. If the Government of India had at this time taken no steps towards the organisation of a service of the kind, they would have been unable to prevent Imperial Airways or some other non-Indian concern from establishing one and the authorities in India were determined that civil aviation within India should be Indian in character, either through the development of private enterprise or through the institution of Government-owned services.

The arrival of acute financial stringency following on the world depression, necessitated the abandonment of the Government Karachi-Calcutta service in 1931. Four Avro-10 aeroplanes had already been purchased for the service and they were sold, one of them being retained for the use of Their Excellencies the Earl and Countess of Willingdon, who had newly arrived in India on the appointment of the Earl to be Viceroy.

Efforts to attain the desired result were revived successfully in 1933. Arrangements were made with the British Government and Imperial Airways, Ltd, for the extension of the London-Karachi air service across India from Karachi to Singapore, as a link in the England-Australia air service. A private company Indian Trans-Continental Airways, Ltd, was formed with rupee capital and a majority of Indian Directors, in which shares are held by Imperial Airways Ltd 51 p c, Indian National Airways Ltd 25 p c, and the Government of India 24 p c. This Company operates jointly

with Imperial Airways, a weekly service from Karachi to Singapore, where it now connects with Qantas Empire Airways' weekly service from Singapore to Australia.

Indian National Airways Ltd. was a bold but largely through the efforts of Mr. P. B. Gopinath Chetty, came to participate as a shareholder in Indian Air Transport Airways and to develop India and other Indian air routes. In North India they run a bi-weekly service between Calcutta and Rangoon and a daily service between Bombay and Calcutta with prospects of extension to Agra. India is in close contact with the Government of India; they have also instituted a weekly service from Calcutta to Karachi, to link with Imperial Airways London-Karachi service.

Before all these developments, however, the first move had taken place in Western India. Through the enterprise of T. T. S. on 11th, under a ten-year contract with the Government of India a feeder service was started in 1922 between Karachi, Bombay and Madras, connecting it Karachi with the London-Karachi service. It now includes Hyderabad in its schedule. An extension of the service to Colombo is contemplated.

In Burma Imperial Airways Ltd. operate a weekly service between Rangoon and Mandalay and hope to extend it to Moulmein and Lashio.

From the beginning of the new year Imperial Airways London-Karachi service, and with it the P. B. India service up to Calcutta and the feeder services, Karachi-Lahore and Karachi-Bombay-Madras, have been operated twice weekly.

Instruction in Aviation—Instruction in Aviation is given in India through clubs founded for the purpose. There are nine of these. Above them is the Aero Club of India and Burma, Secretary Flight Lieut. G. V. Curry, which exercises control and general co-ordination of activities under the Director of Civil Aviation in India. The nine instructional clubs are the Delhi, U.P., Bengal, Madras and Bombay Flying Clubs, Karachi Aero Club, Northern India Flying Club, Lahore, Jodhpur and Kathiawar Flying Club (A Punjab Flying Club at Lahore, lost its three aeroplanes in crashes and had to wind up. Its place has been taken by the Northern India Flying Club). A Club has recently been formed in Rangoon known as the Burma Flying Club. Indian National Airways, Ltd. have also established a Flying School in Rangoon for the training of pupils in aviation. The institution of two other clubs in the G.P. and Hyderabad Deccan respectively is in prospect.

The Club movement dates from March 1927, when, as a result of the interest taken in the subject by Sir Victor Sassoon, Bt., M.P., it was discussed by the Indian Legislative Assembly. An encouraging atmosphere was thus created and in the same month the Aero Club of India was formed, composed of about 40 members of the Assembly. Its first meeting

was held in London in September of the same year and during the next three months 100 more members of the Assembly and 100 other members joined. Strom, Currie, Currie and Alibabadi, with the object of developing interest in the movement and interest in the Government of India, which was at the time proposed and the formation of local clubs followed. The Aero Club entered into an agreement with the Royal Aero Club of Great Britain and the Royal Aeronautical Society in India and Burma.

Legislation—Air legislation in British India was till recently governed by the Indian Aircraft Act 1911. It was found to be very inadequate to deal with rapid development of aviation and in August 1927 the British Indian Central Legislative Council passed the Indian Aircraft Act 1927, replacing the old Act giving power to the Government of India to make rules to meet the needs of development and to enable them to improve the provisions of the International Convention for the Regulation of Aircraft Navigation, 1919, to which India is a party. During the same session, 1927, the Indian Airports (Amendment) Bill during the law of Currie by Mr. In India was also carried out.

Indian Air Races—The first race in India in December, 1927, resulted from Sir Victor Sassoon's letter stating that subject to a grant of Rs. 50,000 to the Aero Club for the year 1928-29 and a grant of Rs. 20,000 to which club formed, he would bear any deficit between the clubs' income and expenditure until the grants became available. This they agreed to and they further recommended that they would provide for a club an initial equipment of two aeroplanes, a spare engine and a contribution towards the cost of a hangar when no hangar was already available. These grants commenced as from the 1st April 1928 and were to continue for two years. Agreements were entered into between the Secretary of State and the provincial clubs, laying down the conditions of financial assistance. Moth aeroplanes manufactured by the De Havilland Aircraft Co. were selected as the training machines. Flight of these arrived in December 1928, and training with them began in January 1929.

The first Indian air-race was flown over a Delhi-Agra-Jaipur-Lucknow-Agra-Delhi course in February 1929, and was very successful. There was a similar race over approximately the same course in February 1930, when the entries were good and included two competitors who specially came out from England for the contest and the event was again completely successful.

The origin of these two races was the offer by Their Excellencies the Viceroy (the Earl of Willingdon) and the Comptess of Willingdon, of a Challenge Trophy for such a race.

There was no race in 1931. One was programmed for December, 1931, to be flown from Calcutta to Bombay with a halt for one night at Cawnpore. Six months' notice was given and substantial cash prizes, in addition to the

Viceroy's Challenge Trophy were offered, but only six entries were received. The Aero Club Committee in their announcement to this effect said that in their opinion the programme was too ambitious for the class of competitors who had hitherto entered most of whom could not afford to fly to the start, race over 1,200 miles and then fly home again. They added, 'Air racing, like every other form of racing costs money and can only be encouraged by the patronage of wealthy sportsmen and in India this has been the exception rather than the rule up to now. The funds annually available to pay for the race are limited and as soon as the length of the race and the number of stops are increased the cost of organisation rapidly increases. The running of the first race cost Rs. 5,600 and that of the second Rs. 5,354.

The Club are now endeavouring to organise a further race on a progressively large scale in the early part of 1936.

Director, Civil Aviation—Mr T. T. Timms, CIB, MC

Deputy Director, Civil Aviation—Mr A. T. L. Lodon

Chief Inspector of Aircraft—Mr A. B. Lane, MBE

Engineer Officer—Capt A. G. Wyatt, MBE

Engineer Officer—Mr H. J. Paterson, MBE

THE SUEZ CANAL

Transits through the Suez Canal during the year 1934 amounted to 5,603, and receipts amounted to \$56,410,000 francs, compared with 5,423 transits and \$52,280,000 francs in 1933. Thus, in spite of the 41 per cent reduction in dues which came into force on April 1 last, receipts were over 4,000,000 francs higher. But for a sharp fall in the last two months of the year, the receipts for 1934 would have been very much better, for at the end of October the gain over the corresponding period of the previous year was nearly 16,000,000 francs. The subsequent setback was largely the result of a severe contraction in demand in Eastern freight markets during the last quarter of the year. Recently there has been a slight recovery in the East which, if continued, will favourably affect the canal traffic. The December figures, which are announced with the results for the year, were 466 transits and 70,560,000 francs receipts, compared with 488 transits and 77,340,000 francs in December, 1933.

Improvement Schemes.—It was announced in 1914 that from and after January 1st, 1915, the maximum draught of water allowed to ships going through the Suez Canal would be increased by 1 ft, making it 30 ft English.

The maximum permissible draught of ships using the Canal was 24 4 feet in 1870, in 1896 ships drawing 25 4 feet could make the passage, and during the following 24 years the increase has been at the average rate of about 1 foot every six years, thus bringing the maximum draught authorized to 29 feet.

The scheme of improvement adopted by the Company on the recommendation of the International Consultative Committee of Works, the British representatives on which are Sir William Matthews and Mr Anthony Lister, is a comprehensive one, and the details suggest that it will meet the needs of the big ship.

A 40 Feet Channel.—The declared policy of the Canal Company in regard to the deepening of the Canal is to offer a slightly greater depth of water than that available in ports east of Suez. It is claimed that, with the exception

of Syden, there is no eastern port which at low tide has a greater depth of water than that now provided in the Canal throughout the full length of nearly 105 miles. In any case the work in hand should meet the needs of any ship likely to be built for the eastern trade during the next few years.

When the Canal was opened in 1869, the width was 72 feet and the depth about 26 feet 2 inches, in June, 1913, the width at a depth of 32 feet 8 inches had been increased to a minimum of 147 feet 6 inches over a length of about 85 miles, and to a width of 328 feet over a distance of about 20 miles. The latest scheme makes provision for a depth of 40 feet throughout and for a widening up to 196 feet 8 inches in the south section, and the cutting of an appropriate number of sidings in the north and central sections, where a minimum width of 147 feet 6 inches is believed to be sufficient for the requirements of the immediate future.

The work of enlarging the capacity of the Canal presents no special difficulty on the engineering side. A good deal of sand is occasionally driven into the channel at Port Said during storms, but a remedy for this will be found in extension of the west breakwater by about 2,700 yards at a cost of over £6,000,000. The construction of this extension, which has been in hand for the past two years, is making satisfactory progress. The Suez Roads are being adequately dredged in accordance with an agreement between the Egyptian Government and the Company.

Almost up to the end of 1915 the works for extending the jetty to the west of Port Said, works of capital importance for the protection of the entry to the Canal were pushed on uninterruptedly. In November, however, for want of hydraulic lime, the manufacture of artificial rocks for this jetty was interrupted. The submarine foundations in stone and rubble of the new jetty were, as a matter of fact, completed to a length of 2,500 metres; the protective blocks were laid for 1,040 metres, and cemented for over 800 metres. The protection of the Channel is thus secured, and there is no need of any apprehension as to its future.

daylight if you must. By moonlight its seduction is irresistible. Sit on the steps by the entrance gate and watch the moon drift above the trees and the ring of silver light stealing round the base of the dome and creeping gently upwards to the pinnacle. See it also in the fading evening light when amber and rose and gold, the sun sinks in the west behind the crenelated ramparts of Agra Fort. If you must visit it in the broad light of noonday then forget the first view from the gateway and wander awhile about the gardens where you will find exquisite glimpses of snowy structures so light and graceful that they seem to rest on air, of buoyant cupola and climbing campanile. Here is grandeur as well as beauty.

The Taj Mahal, however, is only one of the many interesting sights of Agra, and its Fort, Itmad-ud-Daulah's Tomb, Akbar's Tomb, 5 miles from Agra, and Fatehpur Sikri, the deserted city of Akbar about 23 miles distant are all well worth a visit. No other fortress in the world presents so great an appearance of knightly splendour, of proud and noble dignity or, with a more sovereign grace, crowns its red bastions with so wonderful a collection of palaces, mosques, halls of state, baths, kiosques, balconies and terraces as Agra Fort, a mile and a half in circumference with walls 70 feet high faced with red sandstone. The vigorous style of decorative architecture that Akbar introduced into his red sandstone palaces was embellished by his grandson Shah Jahan who was largely responsible for the delicate inlay work and the low reliefs in white marble. There are no buildings to equal these except those found in the Palace in Delhi Fort which Shah Jahan built when he transferred his headquarters to Delhi. Akbar's vigorous but supremely attractive style appears at its best in Fatehpur Sikri which he built in his joy at the realisation of his fondest hopes when his son Jahangir was born.

There in the year 1569 A.D. on a lonely eminence, Akbar founded his city and there began to rise as if by magic those great battlemented walls, the magnificent palaces and courtyards, the great mosque and the other superb specimens of the skill of the Moghul stone-masons which stand to this day a source of endless wonder and admiration to visitors.

The traveller moves northward past Muttra and Brindaban, famous places of Hindu pilgrimage due to their association with the birth and early life of Lord Krishna, until Delhi is reached. Delhi, the capital of India, in days gone by and now the Imperial Capital of India, has no rival in greatness, as all men know that he who holds Delhi holds India. Here the visitor will find much that will interest and enthral him. Here he can trace the growth and fall of dynasty after dynasty, here he will find some of the best examples of the work of the Moghul Period at its zenith as he wanders with muffled feet in the great courtyard of the largest mosque in India, the Juma Masjid, or in Shahjahanabad, the Fort and Palace of Shahjahan whose halls rival those of the palace in Agra Fort with their delicate inlay work in marble and their gardens. Here are crumbling memorials of the Mughal, Hindu, Rao's house, Kashmir Gate beneath which some still

salute dead Home and Salkhed as they pass, the tree encumbered sites of redoubt and battery, Nicholson's grave, Asoka's pillar, the site of the great Durbur.

Kutab, the first of the so-called seven cities of Delhi with its Kutab Minar, 238 feet in height erected in the 12th century A.D. of red and cream sandstone overlooks the plain where many of the pages of history were written. The Kutab Minar, tapering from the base to the summit, is divided by five oorbelled balconies while on the fluting is carved an intricate design in which are introduced verses from the Koran. In the main courtyard stands the famous pillar of solid wrought iron devoid of rust and dating back to about 400 A.D. Visitors to Delhi should not miss seeing the Kutab for it is unique in India.

New Delhi, the eighth city of Delhi, is worthy to rank with its seven predecessors, Kutab, Siri, Tughlakabad, Jahanabad, Ferozabad, Purana Qila and Shahjahanabad, the present day Delhi. Here you find an example of town planning carried out by some of the leading architects and engineers in the world on a site where they could start with a free hand.

If you decide to take the route northwards from Bombay via Rajputana, then you will see another but equally interesting side of India. Rajputana, the land of chivalry, attracts the visitor as few places do. Alone at Udaipur is there, in its perfection, the fairy palace of one's childhood, just such a long cataract of marble terraces and halls falling into the waters of a mountain encircled lake, as the illustrator of an Andrew Lang fairy book delights to draw.

Mount Abu, the Rajput Olympus, combines the delights of a hill station with one of the historic homes of the gods. The Dilwara Temples, the masterpiece of Jain architecture, contain some of the finest carvings in India. Forests of marble columns, carved and polished till they resemble Chinese ivories, are linked by flying arches that twist and twine from pillar to pillar like exquisite creepers, softening outlines and producing the effect of a symphony of graceful movement.

Northwards from Delhi is the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province whence most of the recruits for the Indian Army come. Here you will find Amritsar, the home of the Sikhs, Lahore, one of the most ancient and famous cities of India, the Khyber Pass, the historic gateway into India from the North, the flourishing cities of the Canal Colonies which have risen up since British Engineers have harnessed the waters of the Punjab "the Land of the Five Rivers" which formerly ran to waste and many another city. Through the Punjab also you will travel to reach Kashmir, famous since the days of the Moghul Emperors.

The glory of Amritsar is the Darbar Sahib (the Golden Temple). The pavements of the sacred tank are all of marble from Jaipur and the tank itself contains a sheet of water 510 feet square. In the midst approached by a marble causeway, rises the Golden Temple, nearly cubical in form and decorated with wonderful richness.

Lahore grew in importance with the dawn of Moghul supremacy when Babar, the founder

of that dynasty, made it a place of Royal Residence, reminiscence of which are to be found to-day in the pleasure gardens, fountains, mosques and pavilions of Mughal architectural beauty which have won undying fame for that dynasty here and elsewhere in India.

Khyber Pass, the great natural highway into India through the almost impenetrable mountain barrier of the North-West Frontier, is rich in historical association and has from time immemorial been the route by which conquering hordes have passed into India to disturb the peace of her people and continually offer their destiny. It is still the great trading route between India and the Central Asian State. On Tuesdays and Fridays when the continual string of caravans of great shaggy camels laden with merchandise, accompanied by stern, strong and picturesque dressed men with their women and children from Central Asia are moving to and from Afghanistan, the pass presents a most interesting and unique sight.

Kashmir, described by poets as "an emerald set in pearls" is a land of rich forest and upland pastures, of slow flowing rivers and glittering mountain torrents, fringed with an almost unbroken garb of mountain snow capped all the year. If you can imagine a valley set in the heart of Switzerland that is Srinagar, the capital of Kashmir. Life is good as you glide along the floor of the lakes in a boat when the lily flowers are out and the hills are one mass of colour with the snow capped mountains in the background. When days are warm on the lakes a trip can be made up the valleys and you can live in Acready and see the bear in his native haunts and the mountain deer on the hill tops.

For those who have arrived at Delhi via Bombay an interesting return trip can be made via Benares and Calcutta. Many visitors, however enter India via Calcutta and from here also many interesting tours can be made.

Calcutta, one of the first trading ports of the British East India Company in India, was founded by Job Charnock. It is now the second largest city in the Empire. Its public buildings, the Indian Museum, the Fort the Jain Temple, the Hindu bathing ghats along the river front, the Hindu shrines, are all worthy of attention.

Before winding your way towards Delhi troops should be made to Darjeeling to see the roof of the world and Mount Everest, the highest mountain and to Puri, the home of the famous temple of Jagannath. The ambition of every visitor to Darjeeling is to see Mount Everest, the world's highest peak, and, in order to do so they must travel some 7 miles away, past Ghoom station to Tiger's Hill (8,514 ft) as from Darjeeling the mountain is not visible. The best time to see sunrise on Mount Everest is in the early Spring or late Autumn. Then at the end you will find a view unequalled in any other part of the world. Twelve peaks over 20,000 feet with the awe-inspiring Kanchenjunga in the centre are spread out before you.

Puri also is an easy run from Calcutta. There in front of the gate of the temple is the famous black marble pillar, one of the most beautifully worked things in India with a tiny figure of the

Deity on it capital. Jagannath is 11 in height, in Puri all eyes catch the figure of this deity understood only by those who know India. Once a year the image of Vishnu is carried in procession upon the famous Jagannath car to the Girdhar Temple. The car is 15 feet high, standing on solid wooden wheels 4 feet in diameter, and dragged along by the devotees.

Twenty miles north of Puri, along the sea coast, or 51 miles by motor road stands the Black Legend of Konark the temple of the Sun God Surya.

On the road to Delhi, the visitor will travel through the Ganges plain one of the most fertile regions of India. Here he will find cities sacred to the Hindus such as Puthi Gaya and Benares which interest is connected with the history of the Locks and Ganges and other famous rivers.

Puthi Gaya is one of the most famous and most sacred of all the sacred sites of the Hindus for it is the scene of the Great Renunciation of the Buddha, the birthplace of Gautama Buddha and the birthplace of the Buddha. It marks the site of his birth, his first steps, and his final victory over worldly desires.

Benares is reported to be the oldest city in India, but there is no authentic record how old it is. It is said that it is situated in the two great Hindu epics, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana, which deal with events long before the Christian era. Benares is, however, one of the most holy cities in India for the Hindus, and its spiritual significance is shown in the quotation "Happy is he who dies in Benares for he is transported at once to Swi's Hindu an Pur also on Mount Kailash, north of Lake Manasarovar, were the great three-eyed deity seen in the past, the present and the future sits in profound meditation."

Benares sits on the banks of the Ganges and floating down the river in a boat the sight of Aurangzeb's Mosque and the many picture-que temples and ghats recalls to one's imagination through the dim vistas of time the endless processions of devout people wending their way down the narrow lanes to the temples with fragrant garlands hanging round the necks of the gods or to kneel in solemn devotion to the calm of Swi's divinity.

About 4 to 5 miles away from Benares lies Sarnath where Buddha preached his first sermon after obtaining divine wisdom at Gaya and in the adjoining Deer Park is a Museum of Archaeology of vivid interest.

Lucknow is a city hallowed by memories of a grim struggle, of heroic deeds and noble sacrifice, its appeal to the Westerner is influenced by its historical connections, its beautiful buildings and the mysterious glamour so closely associated with the East. Legend connects the founding of the city with Lakshmana, son of King Dasharatha of Ayodhya and brother of Rama, the mythical hero of the Ramayana, the epic poem of the Hindus. But Lakshmanpur or Lucknow as it is now called was at its greatest under the five Kings of Oudh (1732-1856).

All visitors send their way to the Residency and pay homage to the gallant band who held it during the Mutiny against terrific odds.

until relieved by Sir Colin Campbell. The deeds of Lawrence who was in command until he was killed and of Havelock who made his historic but unsuccessful attempt to rescue the garrison and was himself besieged are well known.

Cawnpore is one of the most important industrial cities of India and here you will find up-to-date factories, a symbol of the West with the teeming bazaars where business is still carried on as it has been done for generations.

Northern and Central India is, however, not the only interesting part of India and the South can show you sights unlike those in any other part of the World. South India is a land of temples, full of the most wonderful carving while Mysore, one of the most progressive Indian States, can show you fine buildings, falls higher than Niagara and wonderful scenery.

Madras is the capital of the Madras Presidency and the third largest town in India, and the Presidency includes that part of India which was one of the first in which English and other foreign nations settled. The visitor will still find in the large houses belonging to the merchant Princes with their far spreading compounds, in the conveyances still used by the local inhabitants and in the scenery, which is the India of the old picture books, traces of what India used to be when first the English settled there.

Mysore commemorates in its name the destruction of Mahashasura, a manotaur or buffalo headed monster by Chamundi, the form under which the consort of Siva is worshipped as the tutelary goddess of the ruling family. Mysore State is a picturesque land of mountain and forest presenting the most diversified and beautiful scenery. The Capital which bears the same name as the state is a city with many fine buildings and a visitor to India who wishes to see the working of an up-to-date Indian States situated among wonderful scenery cannot do better than visit Mysore. Elephants range throughout the southern forests and from time to time keddah operations are undertaken when wild elephants are captured in stockades. Tigers, leopards and bears are numerous and bison are found in certain forests. The famous Gersoppa Falls present one of the most beautiful sights of wild untamed nature to be found in India. Many of the temples contain examples of the finest carving, and Srirangapatam famous as the capital of Tippu Sultan and about nine miles from Mysore is well worth a visit. For those who are travelling from Bombay to Colombo an interesting trip can be arranged via Mysore.

At Madura and Trichinopoly will be found examples of some of the best and most interesting work in South India.

Madura has been aptly described by European scholars as the "Athens of South India" and from time immemorial has been the home of South Indian culture in all its aspects.

It contains one of the finest and largest temples in South India and unlike many other temples the tourist is allowed to wander without restrictions over most of it. Near Shiva's shrine and in

the hall of Manupam of a Thousand Pillars can be seen some of the finest carving in stone in all the world. The workmanship is so fine, the chiselling so delicate that one is lost in silent admiration as one looks at the representations of the Hindu Pantheon and at the graceful figures of men, women and animals.

Trichinopoly is noted for its rock temple and about three miles away is Srirangam with its famous temple which is claimed as the earthly abode of Vishnu the Lord of Creation.

No one visiting India should miss the opportunity of seeing Burma for it is a country of extraordinary charm, a country of contrasts. Whatever be your hobby, whatever be your interest, be it sport, history, ethnology or botany, or should you be merely fond of beautiful scenery you will find a greater variety in Burma than in probably any other country. You can see huge snowy ranges and alps spangled with rhododendrons and flowers unknown to science. You can find magnificent jungles almost impenetrable to man, bordering rushing torrents, or yet against you can see emerald green paddy fields and great winding rivers in the plains. Should you be adventurous and seek the wilder regions, you will find great gaps in the frontier unvisited by civilised men and peopled by head hunters, Chins, Nagas and the fierce Black Lahu. Yet you will also find civilisation in the big cities like Rangoon and Maymyo. Rangoon, the capital, is of special interest in that it possesses the famous Shwe Dagon Pagoda, the Sacred Golden Pagoda visited by more pilgrims than any other Buddhist Temple in Indo-China.

This short account of India is not intended to be comprehensive and does not even mention many of the interesting places to be visited, but it is hoped that it will give some indication of the wonderful pagantry, the magnificent buildings of an older age, the sport, and the many things of interest which India and India alone can offer.

December, January and February are the most pleasant months for a visit to India. The days are pleasantly cool and except on the seaboard the nights are cold. India speaking broadly has no winter except in the far north. It is a land of sunshine and colour. But the traveller arriving before November or staying in the country beyond the month of March must expect to find the tropical sun asserting its sway unless he wends his way to fair Kashmir or to one of the hill stations of India, Simla, the summer capital of India, Darjeeling the delightful or one of the many others situated among the hills of India.

Standard Tours.

The planning of an itinerary for an Indian or Burman tour will depend upon the port of arrival, the port of departure, personal desires of the party and the time available. Any of the leading tourist agencies such as Thos Cook & Son, Ltd., the American Express Co., Cox's & King's (Agents) Ltd., Army & Navy Stores, Grindlay & Co., Messrs. Jeena & Co., Bombay, etc., and the Publicity Officers of all the more important Railways as well as the Manager, Indian Railways Publicity Bureau, 57, Haymarket, London, and the Resident

Manager, Indian Railway, Pudukkottai, Madras, will work out tours to suit the convenience of individual parties. Many of the leading tourist companies will also arrange for inclusive and conducted tours. There are certain places, which are very well-known such as Delhi, Agra, Benares, Darjeeling, Jaipur, the Khyber Pass, Kashmir and Mysore, but there are innumerable other places almost as well known containing sights which cannot be equalled in other parts.

of the world. Part I of the new, American, edition, *Monte Alti* by John, 1890 and *Alti* by John, 1890 are a few of them while in Benares, Mandel, and the famous old cities of Agra and Agra are nearby are well worth a visit.

A collection of pictures for local and short tours in India, and *Alti* is every day. The show which can be seen in certain periods of time, but the show is not to suit individual parties or to suit the time in the direction.

Tour No 1—1 week—Bombay, Delhi, Jaipur, Peshawar, Lahore, Agra, Delhi, Agra, Calcutta, Lucknow, Benares, Darjeeling and Calcutta.

Alternatives (a) Puri and Konark in place of Darjeeling

(b) Gwalior, Saugor, Jabalpur and Jhansi in place of Puri and Konark

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate) on the basis of return tickets at 1½ single fares Calcutta—Bombay and Delhi—Peshawar	Rs. 27 £ 12	17-4 11 6-2	65-12 7 20

Tour No. 2—2 weeks—Bombay, Delhi, Jaipur, Agra, Lahore, Saugor and Peshawar. Alternative: Benares in place of Gwalior and Saugor.

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate)	Rs. 40 £ 15 8	26 17-16 11	72 2-10 11

If the alternative is taken, the fares are increased by about one quarter.

Tour No 3—1 week—Delhi, Lahore, Agra, Peshawar and Delhi.

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate) on basis of return tickets at 1½ single fares	Rs. 20 £ 7 8	15 8-10 13	16-2 1-5 4

Tour No 4—10 days—Bombay, Poona, Mysore, Madras, Trichinopoly, Madurai and Colombo.

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate)	Rs. 212 £ 10 8	107 8 34	30 3 12

NOTE.—If extra time can be allowed at Mysore, Srirangapatna, Geroppe Falls and Ootacamund can be visited.

Tour No 5—2 weeks—Colombo, Madurai, Madras, Mysore, Ootacamund, and Colombo.

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare by train (approximate)	Rs. 222 £ 20 8	124 10 32	45 3-10* 11

NOTE.—An interesting trip can be made after leaving Ootacamund via Cochin where the white Jews live, along the backwaters to Alleppey and Quilon by motor launch and motor car, down to Trivandrum, the capital of Travancore, by train, and by motor car to Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of India and, back via Trivandrum and Madurai to Colombo. This would take about seven days.

* Motor Mysore-Ooty from Rs. 75 additional per car.

Tour No 6—1 week—Rangoon, Mandalay, Gokteik Viaduct, Mandalay—Rangoon

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd	Revised fare by rail
Total fare (approximate)	Rs. 70 £ 5 \$ 25	35 3 18	12 1 4	1st ret 102-3-0 2nd „ 51-2-0 3rd „ 17-2-0

NOTE—Many interesting trips off the beaten track can be made in Burma, but special arrangements are necessary

For any visitor landing in Calcutta, it is possible to visit Benares, Agra, Delhi, Jaipur, Bombay, Mysore, Madras, Trichinopoly and Madurai and still reach Colombo on the 14th day, but this entails sightseeing by day and travelling most nights and is not recommended for the ordinary visitor. A very attractive tour can, however, be worked out for a similar trip over a period of four weeks either allowing more time at the more important places or including other of the places mentioned in Tours 1 and 4 such as Darjeeling, Puri, the Khyber Pass, Lahore and Amritsar, Udaipur, etc

Travelling in India is not expensive when the long distances travelled are taken into consideration. The first, second and Indian

servants fares are shown at the end of each tour. Hotel expenses average about Rs 15 (22/6 or 5½ dollars) per person a day except when special rates are charged during certain special periods, while a motor car for the day can be hired for Rs 25 to Rs 30 (38/6 to 45/ or 9 or 11 dollars) a day in most places, except when long distances have to be covered. Where the distances are short, tongas and two horsed landaus can be used and the daily charges vary from Rs 3-8 to Rs 9 (5/- to 13/6 or 1½ to 3½ dollars). Guides with a good knowledge of English can be obtained from Rs 5 to Rs 10 (7/6 to 15/- or 2 to 4 dollars) a day.

It should be noted that the leading travel Bureau will quote on application inclusive rates covering railway fares, hotel accommodation motor cars, guides, etc

HOTELS IN INDIA, BURMA, CEYLON AND MALAYA.

AGRA—Cecil, Laurie's Great Northern, Imperial
AHMEDABAD—Grand.
ALAHABAD—Grand
BANGALORE—Now Cubbion, West End, Lander's, Central
BARODA—The Guest House.
BEVARIES—Clark's de Paris
BHOPAL—Bhopal Hotel
BOMBAY—Grand, Majestic Taj Mahal, Regent
CALCUTTA—Continental, Grand, Great Eastern, Spence's
CANPORE—Civil and Military, Berkeley House
COONOR—Glenview
DARJEELING—Grand (Rockville), Mount Everest, Park
DELHI—Cecil, Clarke's, Maidens, Swiss
GWALIOR—Grand
GUJMARG (Kashmir)—Nedou's
JAIPUR—Jaipur, Kaiser-i-Hind, New.
JODHPUR—Jodhpur State Hotel
JUNBULPORE—Jackson's
KARACHI—Carlton, Bristol, Killarney, North Western
KHANDALLA—Khandalla
KODAIKANAL—Carlton, Wissahickon
KURSEONG—Clarendon
LAHORE—Faletti's, Nedou's.
LUCKNOW—Carlton, Burlington, Hilton, Royal
MADRAS—Connemara, Bosotto, Spencer
MAHABLESHWAR—Race View
MATHERAN—Rugby
MOUNT ABU—Rajputana.
MUSSOORIE—Cecil, Charleville, Hakman Grand
Mysore—Metropole, Carlton
NAINI TAL—Grand, Metropole, Royal.

OOTACAMUND—Savoy.
PATNA—Grand
PESHAWAR—Deans Hotel.
POONA—Majestic, Napier, Poona, Connaught House
PURI—B N Railway Hotel
QUETTA—Stanyon's
RAWALPINDI—Flashman's.
SECUNDERABAD—Montgomery's, Percy's.
SHILLONG—Pinewood
SINLA—Cecil, Grand, Clark's, Corstorphan's
SRINAGAR (Kashmir)—Nedou's.
SHIVAPURI—Shivapuri.
UDAIPUR—Udaipur.

Burma.

RANGOON—Allandale, Minto Mansions, Royal Strand.
MAYMYO—Lizette Lodge.
KALAW—Kalaw.

Ceylon.

ANURADHAPURA—Grand.
BANDARAWELA—Bandarawela, Grand.
COLOMBO—Bristol, Galle Face, Grand Oriental.
GALLE—New Oriental
HATTON—Adam's Peak
KANDY—Queen's, Suisse.
NUWARA ELIYA—Carlton, Grand, Marshall
St Andrew's
MOUNT Lavinia—Grand

Malaya.

IPOH—Station, Grand.
KUALA LUMPUR—Empire, Station
PENANG—Eastern and Oriental, Runnymede.
SINGAPORE—Adelphi, Europe, Raffles, Sea-View, Riviera.

PASSPORT REGULATIONS.

[Note—These instructions are intended for the information of residents in the Bombay Presidency proper only. Residents in Sind should apply for passports to the Colonial Officer in Sind. Persons residing outside the Bombay Presidency should apply for passports to their respective Governments or Administrations.]

A.—British Subjects.

1. British Indian passports are issued only to—(1) British subjects by birth, (2) wives and widows of such persons, (3) British subjects by naturalization and (4) British-protected persons.

Before a subject of an Indian State is granted a passport he should show that he has severed all connections with his state of origin and is permanently residing in British India or produce a certificate to show that the state has no objection to the grant of a passport.

2. The Indian Passport Regulations do not require persons to be in possession of a passport for leaving India, but as practically every other country requires travellers to be in possession of passports before they are allowed to land at the port of such country, travellers are advised to obtain passports before embarkation. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Royal Indian Navy travelling on duty and members of the families of such persons when travelling to the United Kingdom or on military entitled passages need not have passports.

3. Passports are not required for journeys by sea from Bombay to ports in India or to Burma, nor are passports required for permanent residents of Ceylon or India being British subjects to travel between India and Ceylon. Natives of India travelling to the Federated Malay States or the Straits Settlements do not require passports unless they propose to continue their journey onward.

4. In order to obtain a passport, an application form (showing, among other things, the reasons for the proposed journey) should be filled in by the applicant and the applicant's declaration certified by a Political Officer, Magistrate, Justice of the Peace, Police Officer not below the rank of Superintendent, or Notary Public resident in India. Copies of the form can be obtained from any District Magistrate from the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, by post from the Passport Officer to the Government of Bombay, by personal application at the Passport Office, or from any of the leading Banking and Shipping Agents in Bombay. Small duplicate unmounted copies of the photograph of the applicant and a fee of Rs. 6 in cash should be forwarded with the application form. Fees are not accepted in stamps or by cheque.

5. The application form when filled in should either be posted with the photographs and fee to the Passport Officer to the Government of Bombay, or should be presented at the Passport Office, Bombay. An applicant who forwards his application for a passport through the post may call at the Passport Office at Bombay to take delivery of it in person, but it is deemed that the passport should be sent to him through

the post. It will be sent to the holder of the form in a book the applicant receives who will hand over the passport to the applicant personally and take a receipt for it. Passports may, however, be made up for the use of a passport holder through a Special Suburban Agent or when the issuing authority is satisfied that the passport will be delivered to the holder.

6. The Passport Office in Bombay is situated in the Civil Secretariat. The office is open from 10 o'clock to 6 p.m. daily, except on Saturdays when it closes at 2 p.m. and on Sundays and public holidays.

7. A passport is valid for five years, there being no objection to anyone applying for a passport week or even month in advance of the date of expiry and much inconvenience will be avoided by early application. A notice of at least four days should be given for the preparation of a new passport and at least two days for an endorsement, renewal or visa. The Passport Officer cannot issue passports outside office hours and as the preparation of a passport takes time, applicants who postpone application to the last moment do so at their risk.

8. In certain circumstances, such as for instance, case of extreme urgency, the Passport Officer is authorized to issue a travel document called an "Emergency Certificate" on being satisfied as to the nationality and the bona fides of the applicant. An application for an Emergency Certificate will not on account be considered, unless it is accompanied by duplicate unmounted copies of the photograph of the applicant.

Iraq.

9. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Royal Indian Navy in uniform and *bona fide* Muhammadan pilgrims (Haj or Zair) holding individual pilgrim visas do not require passports for their journey to Iraq. All other travellers must be in possession of national passports and visas for Iraq. In the absence of Iraqi Consular Officers in India, visas for Iraq are granted by Passport Issuing Authorities in India on behalf of the Iraqi Government subject to the conditions stated below. The Iraq visas are of two kinds—Ordinary, valid for all entries into Iraq during a period of twelve months, and Transit, valid for a single journey only, allowing for stay of not more than fifteen days in Iraq. The fee for these visas is the same as for British visas—vide paragraph 20 below. Iraqi national passports are valid for return to that country without any further visa or endorsement.

Except in the case of *bona fide* tourists of ample and independent means, business representatives and employees of well-established firms and persons with definite guarantee

of employment in Iraq, visas for Iraq will not be granted without the previous permission of the Iraq Government. The Passport Officer will, on request, ask for this permission by post or, if the applicant is prepared to defray the cost by cable. Applicants must state clearly the nature of their business and give one or more references in Iraq to enable the local authorities to make inquiries regarding the purpose of their journey.

With the exception of tourists who may remain for three months in Iraq without registration, all persons are required to obtain a "permis de séjour" from the police within fifteen days of their arrival in Iraq. No endorsement of departure is required by foreigners leaving Iraq except the nationals of those states which require that Iraqis should obtain a departure visa viz Turkey, Persia and Afghanistan. All foreigners proceeding by the Imperial Airways require a visa for Iraq on their passport and the exception mentioned in the following paragraph is not applicable to them.

10 *Arab Principalities in the Persian Gulf*—Passenger, both British and Foreign, proceeding by Eastbound aeroplane on the regular service to India do not require any endorsements or visas on their passports for any of the Arab Principalities. Similarly, passengers by Westbound do not require endorsements or visas, for any of the Arab Principalities if they are booked to proceed to Basra and places beyond. When, however, they propose to discontinue their journey at Koweit, Bahrein, Sharjah or Gwadar or to break their journey at any of those places, they must comply with the ordinary passport requirements regarding endorsements and visas.

British subjects proceeding to any of the Arab Principalities require an endorsement and visa on their passports which are granted without prior reference to the authorities concerned. In the case of all foreigners the previous permission of the authorities concerned is absolutely necessary. The fee in India for British subjects for transit and non-transit visas for any of the Arab Principalities is Re 1.

Egypt

11 In the absence of Egyptian Consular Officers in India visas for Egypt are granted by Passport Issuing Authorities in India on behalf of the Egyptian Government. The fee for these visas is the same as for British visas—vide paragraph 20 below. All visas for Egypt placed on British passports are free of charge.

The Egyptian Government have prescribed rules which regulate the admission of foreigners into Egypt. Generally except in the case of British Government officials, *bona fide* tourists of ample and independent means and representatives of commercial houses of good standing, visas for Egypt cannot be granted whether for permanent residence or for a limited period without a reference to the Egyptian Government. In applying for visas for Egypt, a form of questionnaire laid down by the Egyptian Government which can be obtained from the Passport Office at Bombay, should be filled in. In addition an applicant for a visa should supply in writing,

full particulars as regard the nature of his business in Egypt, the reasons for the journey, the proposed duration of stay in Egypt and what means he possesses.

No transit visa for Egypt can be given unless Egypt is necessarily on the route which the traveller must follow to reach his country of destination, and provided there exists no direct route by which he can reach that country without the necessity of passing through Egyptian territory.

Holders of the new-form Egyptian passport do not require visas to return to Egypt.

Palestine

12 Under instructions recently received from the Foreign Office an applicant for an endorsement or visa for Palestine will be required either to deposit a sum of £60 to be refunded if claimed within four months of the grant of the endorsement or visa, or to furnish a guarantee from a reputable bank for the same amount. Passport Control Officers have however, been authorised to waive this requirement at their discretion if they are satisfied that an applicant is a genuine tourist or pilgrim or a person of independent means.

The possession of a British passport endorsed for Palestine does not in itself guarantee the holder's entry into Palestine. Admission to Palestine is governed by the Immigration Ordinance 1933. The Immigration authority may, under the Ordinance, require from travellers, a cash deposit of £60 in respect of each person arriving at a port of Palestine and seeking to enter therein as a condition of his admission into the country and as a guarantee that he will leave the country within a period of three months, or such extended period not exceeding one year, as may be authorised by the Immigration authority.

Tourists—Holders of British passports endorsed as available for travelling to Palestine are reminded that the endorsement has been granted on the condition that it is not their intention to remain indefinitely in the country or to seek to obtain work there. Any person who ignores this condition without permission from the Director of Immigration, is liable on conviction to not more than six months' imprisonment or to pay a fine of £100, or both penalties. He is also liable to deportation at his own expense.

A tourist may not remain in the country more than three months unless he applies for and receives during this period permission from the Director of Immigration to remain in the country as a tourist which may be granted for an additional period of not more than nine months or permission to settle in the country. If permission is refused, such person must leave the country immediately. If he does not do so he will be liable to the penalties mentioned above and also to deportation.

Immigrants—All persons visiting Palestine except as tourists or in transit for another destination require to obtain in advance a permit from the Department of Immigration at Jerusalem, particulars of which must be endorsed

on the passport. A fee of Rs. 1-5 is payable for an endorsement for validity on both British Indian passports.

Other Countries.

13 Restrictions exist on travel to various parts of the British Empire and to certain foreign countries. Among these may be mentioned Afghanistan, Australia, Canada, Fiji, Madagascar, Mexico, Mohammedan and Arabian, New Zealand, Northern and Southern Rhodesia, Union of South Africa, South-West Africa and the United States of America. The restrictions apply particularly to Indians. Detailed particulars with respect to each country will be supplied on application.

Foreign Countries.

14 Passports for journeys to or through foreign countries require, after issue, the visa of the Consul concerned. The addresses of the foreign consulates in Bombay will be found in the appendix below. Visas are, however, not necessary for Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Norway, Portugal, Sarro, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland provided the names of these countries are entered on the passport by a British Passport issuing authority. Pilgrims holding pilgrim passes for Iraq are warned that should they desire to proceed to Persia they should obtain a visa on their pass from a Permanent Consular Officer in India. All intending pilgrims holding pilgrim passes and proceeding to the Holy shrines in Iraq or Persia are warned that if they do not set out on their journey on or about the date specified on their passes they may be refused permission to land in Iraq or Persia.

Renewal.

15 A passport is valid for five years from the date of issue and is renewable for a further period of from one to five years from the date of expiry or its validity, at the option of the holder, but in no case can a passport be extended beyond ten years from the original date of issue. On expiration of this period, or, if at any time the space provided for visas is covered and the holder wishes to travel to countries for which fresh visas are required a new passport must be obtained. Application for renewal must be made in the prescribed form, copies of which may be had from any of the officers mentioned in paragraph 4 above. The fee for renewals is Rs. 1 for each year, or portion of a year, for which the passport is renewed.

Endorsements

16 A passport is valid only for the country or countries endorsed on it and fresh endorsements from a British Passport authority are not needed during the validity of the passport for subsequent journeys to these countries. Fresh endorsements may, however, be obtained on the passport for additional countries. Passports endorsed as valid for the British Empire are also available for travelling to territories under British protection or mandate, not how-

ever including Palestine, for which country the passport must be specifically endorsed. The fee for endorsing the name of foreign countries on British passport is Re. 1, but no fee is charged for this purpose on British Indian passports.

Marriage.

17 A lady on marriage or re-marriage requires a fresh passport.

18 In the case of a joint passport issued in favour of a husband and wife, the latter cannot travel alone on it, but should take out a fresh passport, endorsing the joint passport for cancellation of her name from it. The particular of a wife cannot be added to her husband's existing passport. The holder of the passport should either apply for a new joint passport or his wife should apply for a separate passport in her own name.

B—Foreigners.

19 Foreigners travelling direct to their own country, or to, or through, any other foreign country or countries do not require a British visa on their passport. The nationals of the following countries do not require a British visa for travelling to the United Kingdom. The concession also applies to certain nationals proceeding to certain British Dominions and Colonies and information on this point can be obtained from the Passport Office. The concession does not apply to India.

Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Norway, Portugal, Sarro, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland.

20 Foreigners who are subjects of the countries shown in the appendix below and who are travelling to British territories for which a British visa is necessary should first obtain passports endorsed for the British territory concerned from their consular representatives and should then present them to the Passport Officer for visa, together with a written statement of the reasons for the journey. British visas are of two kinds, viz. the Non-transit and Transit. The fees for these are Rs. 7-0-5 and Re. 1-0-0, respectively, except in the case of nationals of States which levy higher fees, when the retaliatory scale of fees will be applied.

21 Other foreigners should apply for Emergency certificates through the Commissioner of Police, Bombay or, where such foreigners reside in the mofussil, through the District Magistrate of the district in which they are residing. Small duplicate copies of the applicant's photograph must accompany the application. The fee for an Emergency Certificate is Rs. 1-5-0.

22 The holder of a foreign passport who has obtained a visa granted by a British Passport Authority outside India for a destination which involves landing in, or passing through, India does not need a further visa from the authorities in India.

ADDRESSES OF FOREIGN CONSULATES IN BOMBAY.

- Afghanistan* — Amir's Bungalow, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill
Austria — Closed down
Bahamas — 19, Cuffe Parade, Colaba
Brazil — Asian Building, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate
Burma — "Homelands," 1, Central Road, Colaba
Cuba — Jer Mahal, Dhobi Talao
Czechoslovakia — Khatau Mansion, 1st Floor, 17, Cooperage, Fort
Denmark — Vulcan House, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate
Finland — Alice Building, Hornby Road, Fort
France — 11, Cuffe Parade, Colaba
Germany — Narandas Building, Spiroff Road, Ballard Estate
Greece — C/o Ralli Brothers, 25, Waudby Road
Italy — 9, Cuffe Parade, Colaba
Japan — Patel House, 10, Church Gate Street, Fort
Latvia — Forbes Building, Home Street, Fort
Luxembourg — 19, Cuffe Parade, Colaba
Netherlands — 214, Hornby Road, Fort
Nicaragua — Alice Building, Hornby Road, Fort
Norway — Alice Building, Hornby Road, Fort
Panama — American Consul looks after Panamanian interests
Persia — Warden Bungalow, opp P O, Colaba
Poland — Whiteway Building, Hornby Road
Portugal — 17, Cuffe Parade, Colaba
Roumania — Sea Face, Chowpatty
Siam — C/o Wallace and Company, Wallace Street, Fort
Spain — 17, Cuffe Parade
Sweden — Vulcan House, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate
Switzerland — Volkart Building, Graham Road, Ballard Estate
Turkey — Afghan Consul looks after Turkish interests
United States of America — Jehangir Wadia Building, Esplanade Road, Fort
Uruguay — Sea Face, Chowpatty

States having Consulates in Calcutta but not in Bombay.

- Argentine Republic* — 5, Fairlie Place
Bolivia — 7, Old Court House Street
Columbia — C/o Messrs Henry Wilhams, India, 1931, Ltd, 2 Fairlie Place
Dominica — 16, New Park Street
Ecuador — 6, Lyons Range (C/o Messrs Turner Morrison & Co)
Hungary — Royal Insurance Buildings, 26, Dalhousie Square
Panama — 9, Esplanade Mansions
Peru — 8, Harrington Street
Turkey — C/o Mousell & Co, Mercantile Buildings, Lall Bazar
Venezuela — C/o Messrs Henry Wilham, India, 1931, Ltd., 7, Church Lane

N. B — There are at present no Consuls for Costa Rica, Liberia, Salvador and Mexico at Calcutta
 The Consulates for Guatemala and Chile have been abolished

Foreign Consular Officers.

Name.	Appointment.	Station.
Czechoslovak Republic.		
*Mr. Alexander Klaunder	Consul	Aden.
Dr. Peter Klemens	Do.	Bombay.
Mr. Josef Lusak	Do.	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do	Karachi
Mr. G. S. Mahomed	Consular Agent	Do.
Denmark		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. Stanley Nicholas Day	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. B. A. Thorstenson	Do.	Bombay.
*Mr. A. L. B. Tucker	Do.	Calcutta
*Mr. A. Hansen	Do.	Calcut
*Mr. W. M. Browning	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. C. A. K. de Castonier	Do	Rangoon
*Mr. A. N. Wardley	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do	Karachi.
Dominica.		
*Dr. P. C. Sen	Consul	Calcutta.
Ecuador.		
*Mr. J. C. Foster	Consul	Calcutta.
Finland.		
*Mr. C. H. A. B. Hardcastle (on leave)	Consul	Bombay.
*Captain F. E. Hardcastle (acting)	Do	Do
*Mr. Carr Joakim	Do	Rangoon.
*Mr. R. W. Plummer	Vice Consul	Calcutta
*Mr. C. G. Alexander	Do	Madras.
France.		
Monsieur P. Dubois (Consul in-charge of the Consulate-General)	Consul	Calcutta.
Monsieur E. P. F. Chaland	Do	Bombay.
Monsieur A. Vissiere	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
*Monsieur E. Chalze	Consular Agent	Aden.
Vacant	Do.	Akyab.
*Mr. J. A. Oliver	Do.	Chittagong
*Mr. T. C. Beaumont	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. J. A. Ruinat	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. R. B. Howison	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Tellicherry.
Germany.		
Baron Wernher Von Ow-Wachendorf	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Herr Karl Kapp	Consul	Bombay.
*Herr Edwin Oscar Bloech	Do	Rangoon.
Dr. H. Richter (Transferred to Calcutta for the time being)	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
Dr. E. Von Selzam	Do	Calcutta
Herr F. Hornemann (acting)	Consul	Ports S. Indian.
Greece.		
*Mr. M. Presvelos	Consul-General	Calcutta
*Mr. Philon N. Philon	Consul	Bombay.
*Mr. F. A. Archdale	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. H. Pantazopolo	Deputy Consul	Bombay.

* Honorary.

Name	Appointment.	Station.
Norway		
Monsieur G. Lochen	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr W. Meek	Consul	Aden.
*Mr Torleif Ahlsland	Do	Bombay.
*Mr. A. S. Todd	Do.	Madras
*Mr. J. B. Glass	Do.	Rangoon.
*Mr. R. W. Johnston	Vice-Consul	Akyab.
*Mr H. B. Marden-Ranger	Do.	Bassein
Vacant	Do.	Bombay.
*Mr. A. D. Finney	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. P. G. G. Salkeld	Do.	Moulmein.
Panama.		
U. S. A.	Consul-General in charge	Calcutta.
Persia.		
Mr Gholam Reza Khan Nourzad	Consul-General	Delhi
Mon Abdossamad Khan Ali Abadi (on leave)	Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Do.	Calcutta.
Mirza Ibrahim Khan Schayan	Do.	Karachi.
Vacant	Do.	Madras
Vacant	Do.	Rangoon
Vacant	Do.	Moulmein.
Peru.		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. J. C. Mognaschi (on leave)	Consul	Do.
Mr. Orlando de Lara (Acting)	Do	Do
Vacant	Do.	Rangoon.
Poland		
*Dr Eugene Banasinski	Consul	Bombay
Portugal.		
Senhor C. P. De Mesquita Ferreira	Consul-General	Bombay
*Sir Hormusjee Cowasjee Dinshaw, Kt., M.V.O., O.B.E. (on leave)	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. F. H. C. Dinshaw (acting)	Do	Do.
*Mr. G. O. Moses	Do.	Calcutta
*Rev. Avellino de Souza Vila-Verde	Do	Madras
*Senhor P. L. Ferrow	Do	Rangoon.
*Senhor A. P. J. Fernandes	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
*Dr. J. T. Alfonso	Do.	Karachi
Roumania		
*Capt S. A. Paymaster, I.M.S. (ret'd.)	Consul	Bombay.
Salvador.		
Vacant	Consul	Calcutta.
Siam.		
*Mr. S. D. Gladstone	Consul-General	Calcutta
*Mr. G. L. Winterbotham	Consul	Bombay.
*Mr. H. B. Prior	Do	Rangoon

Name	Appointment.	Station.
Spain.		
Senor Don Felix de Iturrigaray	Consul	Bombay.
*Monsieur E. Chalze	Vice-Consul	Aden.
Dr D. S. Fraser	Do.	Bombay.
*Dr D. D. Glover	Do.	Calcutta.
*Mr. W. Young	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. A. Rumbit	Do.	Mr. Is.
*Mr. F. W. D. Allau	Do.	Rangoon
Sweden		
Mr J. M. Kastengren	Consul General	Calcutta
*Mr. A. E. Adams	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. S. O. Sundgren	Do.	Bombay.
*Mr. E. W. Llimstedt	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. C. W. Wood	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. S. O. R. Hagglof	Do.	Rangoon
Vacant	Do.	Montevideo.
Switzerland		
*Dr H. A. Sonderegger (Acting)	Consul-General	Bombay.
*Monsieur M. M. Staub	Consul	Calcutta.
Turkey		
*Mr. L. C. Mousell	Consul	Calcutta
United States of America.		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr Henry S. Waterman	Consul	Bombay.
Mr Edward M. Groth (In charge of the Consulate-General)	Do.	Calcutta
Mr Rufus H. Lane, Jr	Do.	Do
Mr J. G. Groeninger	Do.	Karachi.
Mr Leroy Webber	Do.	Madras.
Mr. W. H. Scott	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr Charles M. Geary	Vice-Consul	Bombay
Paul C. Hutton (on leave)	Do.	Do
Mr. N. Lancaster	Do.	Do.
Mr. G. Keith (on leave)	Do.	Calcutta
Mr. F. B. Ingdahl	Do.	Do
Mr D. H. Robinson	Do.	Do.
Mr. J. W. Jones	Do.	Do
Mr F. W. Jandrey	Do.	Do
Mr. Lloyd E. Riggs	Do.	Karachi.
Mr Leland O. Altshoff	Do.	Madras.
Mr Lyle C. Himmel	Do.	Rangoon
Mr W. S. Farrell (In charge of Consulate)	Do.	Aden
Uruguay.		
*Captain S. A. Paymaster	Consul	Bombay.
*Mr. J. B. Turnbull	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Venezuela.		
*Mr. F. Aldridge	Consul	Calcutta.

Hill Stations.

In India especially during the months of April and May, and at Christmas time, everybody tries as much as possible to take a holiday in the hills. Being anything from 2,000 to 8,000 feet above the level of the sea and difficult of access for motor traffic, the hill stations are delightfully cool and peaceful. Here one can usually ride, walk, play tennis and golf, or simply laze in beautiful surroundings and forget all about the trials of work and prickly heat. These are the principal hill stations in alphabetical order —

Darjeeling (8,000 ft)—From Darjeeling the highest mountain peaks in the world can be seen. The temperature averages 2° above that of London all the year round, that is, it neither exceeds 80° in summer nor falls below 30° in winter. Darjeeling is the summer seat of the Government of Bengal. To reach it, the traveller must start from Calcutta by taking train to Siliguri, a journey of 10 hours. From Siliguri the journey is completed either by motor or hill railway in about 6 hours. The principal hotels in Darjeeling are the Mount Everest, the Grand (Rockville), and the Park.

Kangra Valley—The Kangra Valley is situated about 100 miles east-north-east of Lahore at the foot of the Dhauladhar Range of the Himalayas. There are magnificent landscapes and many historic temples and buildings. The visitor must take train from Lahore to Pathankot where he changes over the newly-opened narrow-gauge railway running between Pathankot and Jogindarnagar in Mandi State. Places to stay at are Dalhousie, Dharmasala and Kangra. The best hotels at Dalhousie are Stuffle's Grand View and the Arraunmoor, and at Dharmasala the Switzer's.

Kashmir—Perhaps the most famous beauty spot in the world can be reached by taking train (either G I P or B B & C I) from Bombay to Rawalpindi (about 48 hours) whence the remainder of the journey is accomplished by motor. The average height of the valley is about 6,000 feet, and it is entirely surrounded by the lofty, snowy outer ranges of the Karakoram and Himalaya. Visitors usually stay either at Srinagar or Gulmarg. At Srinagar one can live at Nedou's Hotel or in boarding houses, or one can hire a houseboat and live on the River Jhelum. At Gulmarg Nedou's is the only hotel. As at Srinagar visitors usually take up their quarters in wooden huts rented through the Srinagar agencies or in tents.

Kodakanal (7,000 ft)—Regarded by many as the most beautiful of South India's hill stations, is situated on the precipitous southern side of the Palni Hills overlooking the plains. Reached by metre-gauge from Madras to Kodakanal Road, and thence by a 4 hours' motor run. The Carlton is the principal hotel. There are also boarding houses.

Matheran (2,500 ft)—The nearest hill station to Bombay, ideal for walkers and anybody wanting rest and quiet. Reached by taking train from Victoria Terminus, Bombay, to Neral (about 1½ hours) whence Matheran may be reached by hill railway (2 hours) or by pony, rickshaw, or on foot by a good walker. Stay at the Rugby Hotel.

Mahabaleshwar (4,500 ft)—Until recently, when expenditure had to be cut down, the summer seat of the Government of Bombay. Those who do not motor the whole way from Bombay, a distance of about 180 miles, usually take train to Poona and then hire a car from Poona to Mahabaleshwar. Mahabaleshwar is noted for its delightful vegetation: orchids and lilies bloom in April and May. Hotels — Race View and Frederick.

Mount Abu (4,500 ft)—An ideal place for combining the pleasures of a mountaineering holiday with the interests of an archaeological excursion. Reached by B B & C I. trains to Ahmedabad, thence by metre-gauge to Abu Road, whence the journey is completed by car. The Rajputana Hotel is recommended. There is also a Dak Bungalow containing four furnished rooms, permission to use which must be obtained from the Assistant Engineer, P W D, Mount Abu.

Murree (7,000 ft)—The summer headquarters of the Northern Command. Magnificent views and walks. Visitors take train to Rawalpindi whence they complete the remaining 37 miles by car. The principal hotels are the Cecil and the Viewforth.

Mussoorie (7,500 ft)—Much frequented on account of its exceptionally fine climate. Reached from Bombay by G I P or B B & C I. trains to Dehra Dun, a journey of 35 hours, where it is necessary to change over to motor which reaches Mussoorie about two hours later. The leading hotels are the Cecil, Charleville, Hackman's Grand, and the Savoy.

Naini Tal (6,500 ft)—Is the summer residence of the Governor of the United Provinces. From Bombay there are two ways of getting there. The first is to take either G I P. or B B & C I train to Muttra, thence by metre-gauge to Kathgodam, and thence by motor (2 hours). The second route which takes about 5 hours longer is to take G I P train to Lucknow and then change over to the metre-gauge railway. The Grand, Metropole and Royal are the best hotels.

Ootacamund—Familiarly known as Ooty is situated on the famous Nilgiri Hills at an altitude of 7,500 feet. The mean average of temperature for the year from sunrise to sunset is 57.33 degrees. Ootacamund is the administrative centre of the District and the seat of the Madras Government for six months of the year from April to September. Reached either by

taking train to Mysore (10 hours from Bombay), and then changing to motor-car for five hours, or by taking train to Mettupalavam via Madras and thence by hill railway to Ootacamund. The principal hotels are the Spring and Cerril.

Pachmarhi (3,500 ft.)—Situated on a plateau in the Mahadeo Hills, is the summer quarters of the Government of the Central Provinces. A delightful hot-weather health resort. Reached by G. I. P. railway to Piparia via Jabalpur, and a two hours' motor journey. The best hotel on the Hill.

Simla (7,000 ft.)—The summer headquarters of the Government of India, is situated at the small spur of the lower Himalayas, towards the end of September, and in October and November Simla enjoys the best climate in the world. Reached from Peshawar by taking G. I. P. or B. I. & C. I. train to Faisalabad, thence either by hill railway or motor. There are many good hotels and a large number of beautiful hotels are the Cecil, Clarks, Chester, Grand, Grubb (at Mashobra) and Willingdon Hall (Mashobra).

CLIMBING IN THE HIMALAYAS.

Owing to their immensity and the time and cost involved in undertaking expeditions into the Himalayas a great deal of mountaineering and exploration remains to be done in the world's highest mountain range. There are over fifty summits of 25,000 ft. and of these only one, Kamet (25,447 ft.) has been scaled, whilst there are innumerable lesser summits of such formidable difficulty, owing to the comparatively recent geological formation of the range, that judged by modern mountaineering standards the majority are inaccessible. The highest peak is Mount Everest, which by latest measurements is 29,141 ft. Next come Kanchenjunga and K2, both about 28,150 ft., though which is the higher of the two is not certain.

Pioneer Climbers.—Mountaineering in the Himalayas began some eighty years ago when surveyors crossed high passes and scaled peaks in the course of their work. Among these pioneers must be mentioned the Schlegel brothers, who in 1855 reached a height of 22,329 ft. on the Eastern Ibi Gamin, one of the subsidiary peaks of Kamet, whilst I. S. Pocock of the Survey of India set up a plane table at 22,040 ft. in the same district. Another notable early explorer was the famous botanist Sir Joseph Hooker who, in 1849, explored the Sikkim valleys of Kanchenjunga and made attempts to climb Kangchenjau, 22,700 ft. and Pauhunri, 23,180 ft. Some remarkable explorations were also carried out by the Pandits of the Survey of India. Among these men was Babu Sarat Chandra Das who traversed the Jonsong La, 20,200 ft.

Later in the nineteenth century came Sir Martin (now Lord) Conway who, in 1892, made explorations in the Karakoram Himalayas, particularly in the region of the Baltoro Glacier, the greatest of Himalayan glaciers, and climbed a peak of 23,000 ft. Sir Francis Younghusband also made explorations in the Karakoram and accomplished the first crossing of the Karakoram Pass. The Duke of the Abruzzi also made a number of expeditions into this range and reached a height of 25,000 ft. on the Bride Peak. Mountaineering developed rapidly in the "nineties", and a bold attempt was made by A. F. Mummery, Professor N. Collie and Brigadier-General the Hon. G. G. Bruce to climb Nanga Parbat. In a final attempt on the

mountain Mummery and his two Garhwal porters, in 1895, Dr. W. F. Collett, Dr. H. H. Collett, and Dr. H. H. Collett, and explored the Nanga Parbat of the Karakoram.

A New Phase.—Meanwhile, thanks to Brigadier-General Bruce, Graham, and later to the British and Indian Governments, the Himalayan mountaineering entered on a new phase. Dr. and Mrs. H. H. Collett made a number of expeditions into the Karakoram and W. W. Graham made a number of remarkable ascents, with Swiss guides, including an ascent of Kaban, 24,000 ft., which has been the subject of much controversy. Kaban was later attempted by two Norwegians, Messrs. Rubenstein and Monrad Aas who got within a few feet of the top.

The present century opened with a number of remarkable ascents by Dr. A. M. Kellas, who died during the 1921 Everest expedition. He climbed several great peaks including Kangchenjau, Pauhunri and Chomolungma and made expeditions to the Central Himalayas where, with Colonel H. T. Morhead he reached in 1920 an altitude of 23,500 ft. on Kamet.

In 1907 Brigadier-General Bruce, Dr. T. G. Longstaff and A. L. Mummery explored the Garhwal Himalayas and reconnoitred Kamet. After this Longstaff, with the Swiss guides Alexis and Henri Brocherel, ascended Triulzi, 23,406 ft. which, until the Jomson Peak, 24,314 ft., was climbed in 1930 remained the highest summit reached. In 1911 and 1912 attempts were made to climb Kamet by G. F. Meade and his Swiss guides and a height of 23,500 ft. was gained. Captain Morris Slingsby also attempted Kamet at this time.

Attempts on Kanchenjunga.—The first attempt on Kanchenjunga was made in 1903 but ended in disaster, eight Porters and three porters being killed by an avalanche. The second attempt in 1920 was made by a solitary American, B. F. Farmer, who lost his life. In the same year a determined attempt was made by a party of Bavarian Mountaineers led by Paul Bauer. A height of over 25,000 ft. was reached on the north-east spur before bad weather forced the party to retreat.

In 1930 a fourth attempt was made by an International expedition led by Professor G. Dyhrenfurth. The party attempted the mountain from the Nepal side, but were repulsed by an ice avalanche which killed one of the porters. Subsequently, they ascended a number of peaks including the Ramthang Peak, 23,200 ft. and the Jonsong Peak 24,344 ft.

The fifth attempt in 1931 was made by Bauer and his party, but failed at a slightly greater elevation than was attained in 1929. One of the party H. Schaller and a porter were killed by a fall during the expedition.

In the summer of 1931 a party of young British climbers led by Mr. F. S. Smythe succeeded in reaching the summit of Mount Kamet (25,447 ft.) the highest mountain peak, though not the highest altitude ever reached by man.

Mount Everest—A description of the attempts to climb Mount Everest, the highest mountain in the world, may be divided under three headings: the reconnaissance expedition of 1921, the first attempt in 1922, and the second in 1924. A still further attempt is being made at the time of writing, in April, 1933.

The preliminary expedition for the reconnaissance of the approaches to Mt. Everest, carried out its work in the most complete manner under the leadership of Lt.-Col. O. K. Howard-Bury. The approaches to Mt. Everest on all its northern faces were thoroughly examined, and relations were established with all the local authorities. On the information and experience of the reconnaissance expedition the second expedition to Everest was organised and set off the following year under the leadership of Brig.-Gen. the Hon. C. G. Bruce. Capt. G. I. Finch and Capt. J. G. Bruce succeeded with the help of oxygen in reaching the height of 27,300 ft. During this expedition seven men were killed when an avalanche swept them over an ice cliff some 60 feet high.

The 1924 expedition was again commanded by Brig.-Gen. Bruce. But owing to his ill health Lt.-Colonel E. F. Norton took on the command. Lt.-Col. E. F. Norton and Dr. T. H. Somervell reached a height of 28,200 feet. Then a final attempt was made by G. L. Mallory and A. O. Irvine. They were assisted by a supporting party consisting of N. E. Odell and J. de V. Hazard. On June 6th they left the 25,000 foot camp with three porters who carried loads for them up to 28,800 ft. On June 8th they left camp for their attempt and were never seen again. On June 10th for the third time Odell climbed up to the 27,000 foot camp but could find no sign of Mallory and Irvine, and communicating with Norton evacuated the mountain.

The expedition of 1933 followed a successful effort by Lt.-Col. J. L. E. Weir, Political Officer in Sikkim, to obtain the permission of the Tibetan Government for a further attempt to climb the mountain. An Everest Committee was formed under the aegis of the Royal Geographical Society and the Alpine Club and Mr. Hugh Ruttledge, formerly of the I.C.S., accepted its invitation to take charge of an expedition. Included in it as members were Mr. F. S. Smythe, leader of the successful Kamet Expedition of

1931, and Capt. E. St. J. Birnie, E. B. Shipton and Dr. O. R. Greene climbed Kamet with Mr. Smythe in 1931. The Expedition reached Calcutta in February and forthwith proceeded to its main task.

The expedition established its base camp in the Rongbuk Valley on April 17th and on April 21st. Camp I was established. Thenceforward the expedition was dogged by exceptionally bad pre-monsoon weather which greatly hindered the establishment of camps and made the ascent to the North Col, 23,000 ft. prolonged and arduous work. Camp IV, 22,800 ft. was not established until the middle of May after a 40 feet ice wall on the North Col slopes had been climbed. The expedition was equipped with wireless which enabled weather reports to be received from the meteorological authorities at Alipore. One installation was at Darjeeling, one at the base camp and a third at Camp III, 21,000 ft. Camp III was linked to the North Col by field telephone so that messages could be received up to 23,000 ft. from the plains of India in a short space of time.

Owing to a series of blizzards and high winds Camp V was not established until May 22nd. But it was pitched at 25,500 ft. several hundred feet higher than previously. The party was then cut off for three days by a furious blizzard and eventually had to retreat to Camp IV. The Camp was re-established on May 28th and on May 29th. Wyn Harris, L. Wager and J. L. Longland continued the ascent and finally pitched Camp VI at 27,400 ft., 600 ft. higher than in 1924, after a magnificent effort on the part of the porters. Longland then brought the porters down but had a terrible time in a blizzard and only by exercising great mountaineering skill steered them down to Camp V. The following morning Wyn Harris and Wager made a reconnaissance of the route to the summit and failing to discover a route along the crest of the north-east ridge finally followed the same route as Norton in 1924. They were stopped by dangerous conditions at 28,100 ft. and returned to Camp VI where they met Shipton and Smythe who had come up from Camp V, after which they descended to Camp V. The following morning Shipton and Smythe were unable to leave Camp VI owing to a high wind but on June 1st they made their attempt on the summit.

An hour and a half after leaving the Camp Shipton had to return owing to some internal trouble. Smythe carried on alone and reached approximately the same point as Wyn Harris and Wager before he was forced to retreat owing to the deep powdery snow resting on the steep alabs. Shipton descended to Camp V the same day in very bad weather and Smythe spent a third night at Camp VI descending to Camp IV next day in a blizzard. Owing to frostbites, strained hearts, and high altitude deterioration the party had to retire to the base camp. A week later they returned to Camp III to make another attempt. Owing, however, to the breaking of the monsoon this had to be abandoned and the expedition returned to Darjeeling.

An extraordinary attempt to climb Everest was made in 1934 by Maurice Wilson, a young airman. Having penetrated Tibet in disguise

he marched to Everest and with a few porters succeeded in reaching 21,000 feet. He then went on alone and nothing more has since been heard of him. As he had no mountaineering experience, it is presumed he perished on the slopes of the North Col.

Aerial Expedition—An interesting aside to the exploration of Everest was an aerial expedition undertaken in 1933 for the purpose of photographing the mountain from the air. This venture was financed by Lady Houston. Major L. V. S. Blacker, formerly of the Guides, was its leader and in charge of its survey work. Lord Clydesdale chief pilot, Fit Lt A. McIntyre second pilot and Major P. T. Etherton, its London manager. Two specially equipped aeroplanes, adaptations of the well-known Wapiti, were provided. A special point in their equipment was the provision of compressed oxygen for supply through gas masks to the aviators at high altitudes. The expedition was not permitted to fly across the Tibetan frontier, so as to circle Mt. Everest, but both machines successfully flew over the peak and several good photographs were taken of it. By permission of the Nepal Government a line of flight from Purnea, the base of the expedition, across Nepal territory to Mt. Everest, was taken and along this good survey photographs as the somewhat poor visibility at the time of the flight, in April, permitted.

An interesting mountainflight of which details were published in 1933 was one from Risalpur to Gilgit and back, undertaken by the R. A. F. at Risalpur in the course of its routine duties in October, 1932. The expedition was commanded by F. Lt Isaac and was made by five of the machines ordinarily in use by the Force. The distance from Risalpur by way of the Indus Valley and past Nanga Parbat to Gilgit is 286 miles. It was covered in 2 hrs 20 mins on the outward flight and in 2 hrs 5 mins on the return journey. From Gilgit the machines further proceeded upon flights over the Hunza, Nagar and Bakiot areas. Brilliant photographs of Nanga Parbat and Rakaposhi, as well as of other places of importance or interest, were taken.

The year 1932 saw a well organised expedition to Mount Nanga Parbat. It was conducted by Dr. Merkl, of Munich, and included Lt R. N. Frier, of the Gilgit Scouts, who acted as transport officer, an American Mr. Rand Herron and Miss E. Knowlton, of Boston, U.S.A. Several determined attempts to reach the summit of the mountain in August were brought to an end by the break-up of the weather before they attained success.

The Disaster of 1934.—In 1934 Herr Merkl returned to the attack with an even stronger party, which included a number of well-known German and Austrian mountaineers and Captains Frier and Sangster of the Indian Army as trans-

port officers. Fatality early overtook the expedition, Herr Drexel dying of pneumonia. Owing to various delays, Camp IV was not established until the end of June. The party then proceeded to rush to the peak, leaving only skeleton camps behind. Finally, after a height of 25,000 feet had been reached, and Camp VIII established at 24,800 feet, a terrible blizzard broke. The party retreated, but owing to the storm and ill-equipped camps retreat became a rout during which no fewer than nine lives were lost, Herren Merkl, Welzenbach and Weland and six Darjeeling porters—men who had accompanied the 1933 Everest Expedition. Of the Europeans only the two Austrians Herren Schneider and Aschenbrenner escaped whilst of the surviving porters, all of whom were frostbitten one or two spent a week without food or shelter.

This is the worst Himalayan mountaineering disaster that has yet occurred.

Another expedition to the Karakoram took place in 1934 under the leadership of Dr. G. Dyhrenfurth. All four peaks of "Queen Mary" were climbed. The highest of these has been triangulated as 24,350 feet, but the party state it to be more than 1,000 feet higher.

In 1934 Messrs T. E. Shipton and H. W. Tilman, by a magnificent piece of exploration and mountaineering, succeeded in penetrating the hitherto impracticable Rishi Ganga to the glacier basin of Nanda Devi, thereby solving a problem that had exercised the minds of Himalayan mountaineers for many years and completing the work of pioneers such as Dr. T. G. Longstaff and Mr. Hugh Rutledge. Messrs Shipton and Tilman also crossed from Badrinath to Gangotri via the Satopanth Pass and explored the head of the Gangotri glacier.

Lt-Col C. F. Stoehr, R.E., and Lt D. M. Burn, R.E., lost their lives on 12th August 1932, while climbing on Panjtarni, near Pahlgam in Kashmir.

Several expeditions have lately been made into the Himalayas by members of the Himalayan Club, especially expeditions into Sikkim by members of its Eastern Section.

The Himalayan Club—Was founded on 17th February 1928, at New Delhi with the object of encouraging and assisting Himalayan travel and exploration, and extending knowledge of the Himalayas through science, art, literature and sport. The initiation of this Club was due to the Hon'ble Sir Geoffrey Corbett, Secretary, Commerce Department of the Government of India, and to Major Kenneth Mason, M.C., R.E., Assistant Surveyor-General. Its membership is over 350, including three lady members and its president is General Sir Kenneth Wigram. Major K. G. KeLean is Hon. Secretary.

The New Capital.

The transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi was announced at the Delhi Durbar on December 12, 1911. It had long been recognised as necessary, in the interests of the whole of India, to de-provincialise the Government of India, but this ideal was unattainable as long as the Government of India were located in one Province, and in the capital of that Province—the seat of the Bengal Government—for several months in every year. It was also desirable to free the Bengal Government from the close proximity of the Government of India which had been to the constant disadvantage of that Province. To achieve these two objects the removal of the capital from Calcutta was essential. Its disadvantages had been recognised as long ago as 1868, when Sir Henry Maine advocated the change. Various places had been discussed as possible capitals, but Delhi was by common consent the best of them all. Its central position and situation as a railway junction, added to its historical associations, told in its favour, and, as Lord Crewe said in his despatch on the subject, “to the races of India, for whom the legends and records of the past are charged with so intense a meaning, this resumption by the Paramount Power of the seat of venerable Empire should at once enforce the continuity and promise the permanency of British sovereign rule over the length and breadth of the country.”

The foundation stone of the new capital was laid by the King Emperor on December 15, 1911, the finally selected site being on the eastern slopes of the hills to the south of Delhi, on the fringe of the tract occupied by the Delhi of the past. The land chosen is free from liability to flood, has a natural drainage, and is not man-made. It is not cumbered with monuments and tombs needing reverent treatment, and the site is near the present centre of the town of Delhi. A Committee consisting of Surgn-General Sir C. P. Lucas, Mr H. T. Keeling, C.S.I., A.M.I.C.E., and Major J. C. Robertson, I.M.S., was appointed to consider the comparative healthiness of the site and of an alternative one to the North of the existing city. Their report, dated 4th March, 1913, states that “the Committee, after giving full consideration to the various points discussed in the above note, is bound to advise the Government of India that no doubt can exist as to the superior healthiness of the southern site, the medical and sanitary advantages of which are overwhelming when compared with those of the northern site.”

The Town Plan and Architecture.—A report by a Town-Planning Committee, with a plan of the lay-out, was dated 20th March, 1913. Work was begun in accordance with it and its main lines have been followed throughout. The central point of interest in the lay-out,

which gives the motif of the whole, is Government House, and two large blocks or Secretariats. This Government centre has been given a position at Raisina hill near the centre of the new city. Sir Edwin Lutyens is the architect for Government House and Sir Edward Baker for the Secretariats. The former building is estimated to cost approximately Rs. 140 lakhs and the latter group were originally estimated to some Rs. 124 lakhs. The provision made in the design of the Secretariats for extensions in case if used has already partly been utilised. The Secretariat personnel has largely increased in the past few years and numerous additional rooms had to be provided to make room for Army Headquarters, which moved into the new capital at the end of the Simla season, 1929. To the east of the forum, and below it, is a spacious forecourt defined by an ornamental wall and linked on to the great main avenue or parkway which leads to Indrapat. Across this main axis runs an avenue to the shopping centre. Other roads run in different directions from the entrance to the forum. The axis running north-east towards the Juma Masjid forms the principal approach to the new Legislature Chambers. They are officially described as the Council House and the road is named Parliament-street. The railway station for the new city finds its place about half way between the old and new cities off the road through Paharganj, which lies to the west of Old Delhi in the direction of The Ridge. The main roads or avenues range from 76 feet to 150 feet in width with the exception of the main avenue east of the Secretariat buildings where a parkway width of 1,175 feet has been allowed. The principal avenues in addition to the main avenues are those running at right angles to the main east to west axis.

For a temporary capital, for the use of the Government of India during the period of the building of the new capital an area was selected along the Alipur Road, between the existing civil station of Delhi and the Ridge. The architecture and method of construction were similar to those adopted in the exhibition buildings at Allahabad in 1910; but the buildings have outlasted the transitional period for which they are intended. Army Headquarters were still housed in them in the winter until the season 1929-30. They are now occupied for various purposes including the temporary accommodation of Delhi University.

In October, 1912, by proclamation, there was constituted an administrative enclave of Delhi under a Chief Commissioner. This enclave was entirely taken from the Delhi district of the Punjab and its total area is 573 square miles. On the basis of the Census of 1911, the population of the area originally included in the Province was 398,269 and of the new area 14,552, or a total of 412,821. The population of the Municipal town of Delhi

[illegible]

at New York at 10:15 P. M. on April 11. The Government is in the habit of covering up the evidence as to the general state of the epidemic in New York City for 7 months and early in 1922 dealt the community with the illness of the Government to stay in bed for half of each week, to wear masks, being introduced for the first time keeping the general public in New York City on April 11, 1922, down from a state of 100,000. The epidemic was not very successful as it was not reported till 1922-23 when the Government Committee had to stop the epidemic and the state of New York order to stay in bed for a longer period from the state of 100,000 and the epidemic but long, the general public being higher than those of 1922-23 in New York. It remains to be seen what the Government will reveal the situation of general epidemic keeping staff down in the state. An early decision from New York to New York was to close in the autumn of 1921 on account of a report by the Public Health Commission on the general unhealthiness of the Winter Capital in October.

Art Decorations—The Government of India in 1927 approved a scheme for the encouragement of Indian artists by providing facilities for the decoration of certain buildings in New Delhi. The outlines of the scheme are briefly as follows. A certain number of domes and ceilings in the New Secretariat Buildings at Delhi suitable for decoration were selected. The various schools of art in India, as well as individual artists, were invited through local Governments, to send in by the beginning of March 1928 small scale designs for approval by a Committee. After approval by the Committee both as regards the design and colour the pictures were to be drawn out and painted to full-size on canvas, and, if finally approved by the Committee, fixed according to the marouflage process *in situ*. Other techniques, such as fresco or tempera, were optional. Artists or schools of art, who sent in small scale drawings, had to bear the initial expense of preparing them. When these were approved by the Committee, the out-of-pocket expenses paid in addition to a suitable, honorarium Government undertook to pay for the finished

pictures done from approved sketches but give no guarantee that the finished paintings will permanently be preserved. Government intimated that historical or allegorical subjects would be given preference over religious ones, and English artists living in India were barred from competition, the work being strictly reserved to Indian artists. Numerous artists submitted designs, especially those of Western India, and with such satisfactory results that the specially appointed Expert Committee approved of nearly all. A great deal of painting has now been completed and the work is continually progressing. Government, meanwhile, instituted a scheme for sending selected artists to Europe for finishing studies to enable them the better to join in the work, and this is in operation.

Opinion of the Legislature—Considerable discussion regarding the new works took place in the Assembly in 1921. The following unofficial resolution was carried—“This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that in the interests of economy and of general convenience alike the execution of the programme of New Delhi works may be expedited and the necessary funds provided or raised so that the Secretariat and Legislative buildings and connected works including residences may be completed as early as practicable.”

A non-official Member in the Legislative Assembly on 28th September, 1921, at Simla, moved a recommendation to Government “to appoint a Committee to inquire into the possibility of establishing a permanent Capital of India in a place possessing salubrious and temperate climate throughout the year.” This proposal was ridiculed by several of his non-official colleagues and was eventually rejected without a division.

H R H. the Duke of Connaught, on 12th February, 1921, laid the foundation stone of a large group of parliamentary buildings on a site close to the south-east of the Secretariat. The building is an imposing pile circular in shape, consisting in the main of three horse shoe-shaped Chambers for the Chamber of Princes, Council of State and Legislative Assembly respectively and surmounted by a large dome over a Central Library connecting all three Chambers.

H E the Viceroy (Baron Irwin) proceeded in state to the new Legislative buildings henceforward to be known as the Council Buildings and formally declared them open on 18th February 1927. The India legislature began its sessions in them next day.

During 1928, official and public attention became focussed on the need to effect drastic improvements in some of the crowded areas of the old city and to provide for its expansion and for suburban developments. This led to the examination of the possibilities of the area lying between the old and new cities and of the desirability of driving connecting roads through the City walls in order to give access outwards in this direction. The old city is now rapidly expanding in a westerly direction, i.e., towards and up the Ridge, which runs behind both cities and the spaces between the two cities are being

developed and utilised. So far the plan for a direct thoroughfare from the midst of the new city through the old city wall to the middle of the old city has not been proceeded with and consequently the magnificent thoroughfare, name Parliament Street, which was constructed for the purpose in New Delhi remains in a truncated condition. The Delhi Municipal Committee late in 1933 declined to co-operate in a completion scheme, on the ground that it would result in changes in property values in the old city to the disadvantage of many owners. The Medical Officer of Health of the old city in his latest reports gravely stresses the ill effects of its overcrowded state and in this he is borne out by the Municipality in its reports.

H E the Viceroy on 10th January 1930 laid the foundation stone of a large European and Indian General Hospital to be built in the course of the next few years at a cost of Rs. 75 lakhs for the service of both old and new cities. This would provide 254 beds and the necessary laboratories and administrative and residential quarters. No progress has yet been made with the building work on which has for financial reasons been postponed.

All-India War Memorial—H R. H. the Duke of Connaught on 10th February, 1921, laid the foundation stone of an All-India War Memorial at the southern end of the Central Vista. The place chosen is a fine position in the centre of the circular Princes' Park and the construction of the building was for economy's sake proceeded with slowly. The memorial was formally inaugurated by Lord Irwin in February, 1931.

The Memorial takes the form of a triumphant arch spanning Kingsway, the avenue running down the centre of the Vista. It is generally similar to the Arc de Triomphe in Paris but is simpler. The monument reaches a height of 180 feet and the inner height of the arch is 87 feet 6 inches and its breadth 70 feet. Over the arch on both fronts appears in capital letters the single word INDIA and this is flanked on each side by the initials MOM (i.e., 1900) whilst immediately below them on the left hand are the initials XIV (i.e., 14) and on the opposite side the figures XIX (i.e., 19). Above the Arch is a circular stone bowl 11½ feet in diameter. A column of inoffensive chemical smoke ascends from this on ceremonial occasions and anniversaries and is illuminated by electric light reflections after dark. The memorial bears the names of British and Indian officers and N C O's and men according to an inscription carried upon it and running

Public Institutions.—It was proposed during 1914 that a higher college for Chiefs should be established at Delhi and in this connexion a conference of Chiefs and Political Officers was held at Delhi at which the Viceroy presided. The proposal is still “under consideration.” To implement it would require an estimated capital outlay of Rs. 12½ lakhs.

The Government of India further in the Spring session of their Legislature in 1922 introduced and carried Bill for the establishment of a unitary, teaching and residential

University of Delhi, the buildings for which would be erected in the new capital. The plan was to provide a local university on the model recommended for Dacca University by the Calcutta University Commission. The provision of funds for the complete realisation of the university must be a matter of time and it was, therefore, decided to commence work with the existing colleges in their present buildings and to permit them gradually to modify their organisation. The initial work of organisation was quickly effected by the Executive Council. Unfortunately the inability of the Government of India to allot considerable funds was a severe handicap. It was hoped that H. E. the Viceroy would be able to lay the foundationstone of the university buildings in November, 1922, but this proved impracticable. The general question of the finances of the University was in 1927 the subject of inquiry by a special Committee appointed by Government. For the time being the University was housed in the temporary buildings in old Delhi occupied by the Civil Secretariat until 1929 and in 1931 Old Viceregal Lodge was allocated to it for its future home.

The new city was the scene of notable inauguration ceremonies in February, 1931. The first of these was the unveiling of four "Dominion Columns" suitably placed about the great place between the two Secretariat blocks. The columns are of red stone, surmounted each by a gilded merchantman of the old style in full sail. The columns are designed to resemble the historic ones erected in various

parts of the land by Asoka and were presented by Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. The first two and fourth of these Dominions sent their own representatives to perform the ceremony of unveiling. New Zealand nominated a Member of the Government of India to act in her behalf for the same purpose. The second great ceremony was the inauguration of the War Memorial. This was performed in State by His Excellency the Viceroy in the presence of representatives of every unit of the army in India of the Royal Air Force and of a large concourse of official and other spectators. There was a large popular fete on the ground lying below the old Fort and between it and the river Jumna. Their Excellencies the Viceroy and Lady Irwin arranged a programme of festivities at The Viceroy's House. A New Delhi Municipal Committee with its own permanent official Chairman and Secretariat was established in 1932.

City Extension—The new city now, in the midst of its career, contains a population of approximately 70,000 the maximum number for which it was designed. Of the numerous Ruling Princes who more allotted sites for residence, very few have yet responded by building. Otherwise the available residential building space is almost covered and the time has come to consider and plan extensions of the city. The main direction for this is southward where for some three miles beyond the limits of present development, Government have land in their possession and have placed it at the disposal of the City administration.

Freemasonry in India.

In 1728 a dispensation was granted by the Grand Lodge of England to Geo. Pomfrett, Esq., authorising him to "open a new Lodge in Bengal." Of this personage nothing further is known but under Capt. Farwinter, who in the following year succeeded him as Provincial Grand Master of India, a Lodge was established in 1730, which in the Engraved Lists is distinguished by the arms of the East India Company, and is described as "No. 72 at Bengal in the East Indies." The next Provincial Grand Masters were James Dawson and Zech. Gee, who held office in 1740; after whom came the Hon. Roger Drake, appointed 10th April 1755. The last named was Governor of Calcutta at the time of the attack made on the settlement by Surajah Dowlah in 1756. Drake missed the horrors of the Black Hole by escaping and was accused of deserting his post, but, though present at the retaking of Calcutta by

Admiral Watson and Clive, it is improbable that he resumed the duties of his masonic office after the calamity that befell the settlement.

The minutes of the Grand Lodge inform us that William Mackett, Provincial Grand Master of Calcutta, was present at the meeting of the body, November 17th, 1760, and was empowered by the same authority that at the request of the Lodge in the East Indies, Mr. Cullin Smith was appointed P. G. M. in 1762. At this period it was the custom in Bengal "to elect the Provincial Grand Master annually by the majority of the votes of the members present, from amongst those who passed through the different offices of the (Prov.) Grand Lodge and who had served as Dep. Prov. Grand Master." This annual election was confirmed by the Grand Lodge of England

being thought an infringement of his prerogative. In accordance with this practice, Samuel Middleton was elected (P. G. M. circa) in 1767, but in passing it may be briefly observed that a few years previously a kind of roving commission was granted by Earl Ferrers in 1762-64 to John Bluvitt, Commander of the "Admiral Watson," Indianman "for East India where no other Provincial Lodge is to be found." Middleton's election was confirmed October 31st, 1768, and, as the dispensation forwarded by the Grand Secretary was looked upon as abrogating the practice of annual elections, he accordingly held the office of D. G. M. Unfortunately the records of the P. G. L. date back only to 1774, and thus much valuable information is lost to us. This Grand Lodge continued working until 1792 when it ceased to meet. It seems that the officers were selected from only two Lodges much to the dissatisfaction of the other Lodges, and resulted in most of the dissatisfied bodies seceding and attaching themselves to the Athol of Ancient Grand Lodge. In 1813 at the Union both the Ancients and Moderns in Calcutta combined and gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge of England and have since been working peaceably under the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which was revived in that year and in 1840 created a District Grand Lodge.

Madras—The earliest Lodge in Southern India (No. 222) was established in Madras in 1752. Three others were also established about 1766. In the same year Capt. Edmund Pascal was appointed P. G. M. for Madras and its Dependence and in the following year another Lodge was established at Fort St. George. In 1768 the Athol (or Ancients) invaded this District and in 1782 established a Provincial Grand Lodge and both these Provincial Grand Bodies continued working peaceably side by side until the Union. Indeed, though not generally known, these two Grand Bodies made an attempt at coalition long before any such movement was made by their parent bodies, the Grand Lodge of England, and the Ancient Grand Lodge, and Malden in his History of Freemasonry in Madras states that in a great measure they succeeded. At the Union in 1813 all the bodies in Madras gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge. One event worthy of note was the initiation in 1774 at Trichinopoly of the eldest son of the Nawab of Arcot, Umdat-ul-Umra, who in his reply to the congratulations of the Grand Lodge of England stated "he considered the title of English Mason as one of the most honourable that he possessed." This document is now stored in the archives of the United Grand Lodge.

Bombay—Two Lodges were established in this Presidency during the 18th century, Nos. 234 at Bombay in 1758 and 569 in Surat in 1768, both of which were carried on the lists until the Union when they disappeared. A Provincial Grand Master, James Todd, was appointed but there is no record that he exercised his functions and his name drops out of the Freemasons' Calendar in 1799. In 1801 an Athol Warrant was granted (No. 322) to the 78th foot which was engaged in the Maratha War under Sir Arthur Wellesley. In 1818 Lord Moria was asked to constitute a Lodge to be known by the name of St. Andrew by eight Masons residing

there and also to grant a dispensation for holding a Provincial Grand Lodge for the purpose of making the Hon. Mountstuart a Mason, he having expressed a wish to that effect. The Petitioners further requested "that his name might be inserted in the body of the warrant, authorising them to instal him after being duly passed and raised a Deputy Grand Master of the Deccan." Of the reply to this application no copy has been preserved. Lodge Benevolence was established in Bombay in 1822.

In 1823 a Military Lodge "Orion-in-the-West" was formed in the Bombay Artillery and installed at Poona as No. 15 of the Coast of Coromandel. It seems from Lane's records that in 1830 it was discovered that this Lodge was not on the records of the United Grand Lodge of England. A Warrant was subsequently issued bearing date 19th July 1833. According to the early proceedings of this Lodge, members were examined in the Third Degree and passed to the chair in the Fourth Degree for which a fee of three gold mohurs was charged. In the following year a second Lodge was established at Poona by the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which however left no trace of its existence. In 1825 the civilian element of "Orion" seceded and formed the "Lodge of Hope" also at Poona No. 802.

Here "Orion" unrecognized at home, aided in the secession of some of its members, who obtained a warrant, on the recommendation of the Parent Lodge, from the Grand Lodge of England. Two years later it was discovered that no notification of the existence of "Orion-in-the-West" had reached England, nor had any fees been received, although these including quarterages had been paid into the Provincial Grand Lodge, Coast of Coromandel. It was further ascertained that in granting a warrant for a Bombay Lodge the Provincial Grand Master of Coromandel had exceeded his powers. Ultimately a new warrant No. 598 was granted as already stated in 1833. Lodge "Perseverance" was started in Bombay No. 818 in 1828. Up to this time the jurisdiction of the Grand Lodge of England in India had not been invaded, but in 1838 Dr. James Burnes was appointed by the Grand Lodge of Scotland, P. G. M. of Western India and its Dependencies. No Provincial Grand Lodge however was formed until 1st January 1838. A second Scottish Province of Eastern India was started which on the retirement of the Marquis of Tweeddale was absorbed within the jurisdiction of Dr. Burnes, who in 1846 became Provincial Grand Master for all India (including Aden) but with the proviso, that this appointment was not to act in restraint of any future sub-division of the Presidencies. Burnes may be best described as being in 1836, in ecclesiastical phrase as a Provincial Grand Master "in partibus infidelium" for whatever Lodges then existed throughout the length and breadth of India were strangers to Scottish Masonry. But the times were propitious. There was no English Provincial Grand Lodge in Bombay and the Chevalier Burnes whom nature had endowed with all the qualities requisite for Masonic Administration, soon got to work and presented such attractions to Scottish Freemasonry that the strange sight was witnessed of English Masons deserting their mother Lodges, to such an extent that these fell into abeyance, in order to give support to Lodges

Burma.

- 7 Chapters, Most Ex Comp D. N. N.
Parekh, Grand Superintendent

Royal Arch Masonry under Scotland has a separate constitution to Craft Freemasonry. The District Grand Chapter of India is at present ruled by M. E. Camp A. M. Kajul under whom there are about 30 Chapters in India. The Grand Secretary of all Scottish Freemasonry in India is also District Grand Scribe E. of Scottish R. A. Masonry.

There is one Irish Chapter in Calcutta.

Mark Masonry.—Under England, Mark Masonry is worked under the Grand Mark Lodge of England and Wales, and divided into separate Districts; but in most cases the District Grand Master is also District Grand Mark Master.

Bengal.

- 24 Lodges Rt W. Bro. Eric Studd, P. G. M. O.,
District Grand Master.

Bombay

- 18 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro W A C Bromham,
P.G.D., District Grand Master.

Madras,

- 16 Lodges. Rt Wor. Bro. George Townsend
Roag, O.E., I.O.S., District Grand Master.

Punjab.

- 12 Lodges Rt W. Bro. Lt-Col. H. L. O.
Garrett, M.A., F.R.H.S., District Grand
Master.

Burma.

- 5 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro Nasarwanjee Nowrojee
Parakh, M D., District Grand Master.

The Mark degree is incorporated with the Royal arch degree in Irish Chapters Mark degree is worked in some S O. Lodges, but mostly in R. A. Chapters, in which the Excellent R.A.M. and other degrees can be obtained. S. O. Chapters insist upon candidates being Mark Master Masons before exaltation. Mark degree in Craft Lodges is conferred by the Rt. Wor. Master in S O. Craft does not recognise the ceremony of Rt. W. Mark Master. This is confined strictly to Chapters. Each Chapter has a Lodge of M. M. M. working under its charter. Separate charters for Mark Lodges are only issued by the G. Chapter of Scotland.

Other Degrees —There are many side degrees worked in India, of the Ancient and Accepted Rite, no degree higher than the 18° is worked in India under England, but under Scotland the 30° is worked. The Knight Templar Degree is also worked in several places under both English and Scottish jurisdiction. There are fourteen 18th Degree Chapters working in India.

Roman Eagle Conclave No 43, Bombay.

St. Mary's Commandery No. 43, Bombay.

R. A. Mariner, Nos 80, 203, 207, 220, 232, 233, 298, 468, 474, 497 and 642, Bengal Dist.

R. A. Mariner, 72, 514, 662, Bombay, and 483, Jubbulpore, Bombay Dist.

R. A. Mariner, 61, 81, 82 and 106, Madras Dist.

R. A. Mariner, 98, 193, 219, 279, Punjab Dist.

Secret Monitor, 14, 21, 34, 37, 40 and 42, Madras. 23, 46, 58, 60, 63, 65, 70, Bombay.

Benevolent Associations —Each District works its own benevolent arrangements which include the Relief of Distressed Masons, educational provision for the children of Masons and maintenance provision for widows in poor circumstances.

All information will be given to persons entitled by the District Grand Secretary in each District. The names and addresses of District Grand Secretaries are given below. —

D. G. S., Bengal.

H. W. Barker, P. D. G. W., (Madras), 19, Park Street, Calcutta.

D G. S., Bombay.

Khan Bahadur Palanji N. Davar, P.A.G.R., P.D.G.W., Freemasons' Hall, Ravelin Street, Fort, Bombay.

D. G. S., Burma.

H. Friedlander, D.G.S., E.O., Rangoon.

D. G. S., Madras.

S. T. Srinivasa Gopala Chari, P. A. G. Reg., Freemasons' Hall, Egmore, Madras.

D. G. S., Punjab.

G. Reeves Brown, R A G., D O., Freemasons' Hall, Lahore.

—Scottish Constitution —For information regarding the Benevolent Funds application should be made to Khan Bahadur Jehangir G. Mistree, J.P., 17, Anzban Road, Bombay.

This new series had been rendered necessary by the natural demand for more detailed information to be shown on maps, especially as regards the portrayal of hill features by contours, proper classification of communications and—more recently—air traffic requirements

It was intended that this 1905 survey should be completed in twenty-five years, and then revised periodically every thirty years. Owing however to the war and more recent retrenchments only two-thirds of the programme had been completed by 1932, in spite of a reduction of scale for the less important areas

Although new surveys covering from thirty to sixty thousand square miles—an area comparable to that of England—are carried out every year, the maps of a large part of the country are still over 50 years old, printed mostly in black only, and have hill features shown by roughly sketched form lines or hachures, such changes in town sites, canals and communications as have been embodied in them have not been surveyed on the ground but entered from outside information

Owing to the serious financial situation in 1931, the establishment of the department was severely cut down and its annual expenditure halved, in consequence of which the modern survey of India cannot now be completed before 1950

The obsolescence of the present series of modern maps of India is shown in the second index map at the end of this report

Large Scale Surveys—Surveys and records of international, state and provincial boundaries have always formed an important item of topographical work, and in recent years numerous Guide Maps have been published of important cities and military stations where the 1-inch to 1-mile scale is inadequate

Miscellaneous—While expending on topographical and geodetic work all funds allotted by Imperial Revenues, the department is prepared to undertake or aid local surveys, on payment by those concerned, such as

Forest and cantonment surveys,
Riverin, irrigation, railway and city surveys,
Surveys of tea gardens and mining areas,
with such control levelling as is necessary for these operations.

Administrative assistance is also given, and executive officers, lent in aid of the revenue surveys of various Provinces and States

The Printing Offices at Calcutta and Dehra Dun also carry out work for other Government departments, such as special maps, illustrations for Reports and all diagrams for patents

The Mathematical Instrument Office of this department assists all Government departments, as well as non-officials, by maintaining a high standard of Instrumental and optical equipment and by manufacturing and repairing instruments which would otherwise have to be imported from abroad

Military Requirements and Air Survey—The department is also responsible for all survey operations required by the army, and is in a position to meet the rapidly increasing complexity of modern military requirements, especially in air survey

In view of its high military importance, air survey work for civil purposes is receiving all possible encouragement and assistance, and the latest methods of mapping from photographs

taken from the ground are being studied experimentally

The flying and photography for air mapping done by this department are at present carried out by the Royal Air Force or the Indian Air Survey Company, a commercial firm with headquarters at Dum Dum

Administration is by the Surveyor General under the Education, Health and Lands Department of the Government of India

The Headquarters Office is at Calcutta under the Assistant Surveyor General, and there are four Directors, one for the Map Publication and other technical offices at Calcutta, and three for three of the five Survey of India Circles into which the country is divided, the other two Circle areas (covering Burma and South India) are administered personally by the Surveyor General

Of the three Circle Directors, one also administers the Geodetic Branch at Dehra Dun in addition to his topographical survey Circle

Any enquiries regarding surveys, maps or publications may be addressed either to the Headquarters Office or to the Survey Director or Independent Party concerned, whose addresses are Director, Map Publication, Calcutta, Director, Geodetic Branch, Dehra Dun, Director, Frontier Circle, Simla; Director, Eastern Circle, Shillong, Officer in charge, No 6 (South India) Party, Bangalore, and Officer-in-Charge, No 10 (Burma) Party, Maymyo

Indian Science Congress—The Indian Science Congress was founded largely owing to the efforts of Prof. P. S. Macmahon and Dr J. L. Simonson. These two gentlemen worked jointly as Honorary General Secretaries of the Congress, till 1921. The Asiatic Society of Bengal undertakes the management of the Congress finances and publishes annually the proceedings of the Congress. The objects are (1) to encourage research and to make the results generally known among science workers in India, (2) to give opportunities for personal intercourse and scientific companionship and thus to overcome to some extent one of the chief drawbacks in the life of workers in science in India, (3) to promote public interest in science; for this end the Congress is held at different centres annually, and evening lectures open to the public form an important part of the proceedings of each Congress

The Congress, which is progressive and vigorous, meets in January each year, the proceedings last for six days. The Head of the Local Government is Patron of the Congress, the Congress session is opened by a Presidential Address delivered by the President for the year. The President is chosen annually, the different sections being represented in turn. The sections are (1) Agriculture, (2) Physics and Mathematics, (3) Chemistry and Applied Botany, (4) Zoology and Ethnography, (5) Botany, (6) Geology, (7) Medical Research, when the sections meet separately each section is presided over by its own President also chosen annually. The mornings are devoted to the reading and discussion of the papers, the afternoons to social functions and visits to places of interests, in the evenings public lectures are delivered.

The Indian Research Fund Association—This Association, which is a much older body than the National Research Council in England, was constituted in 1911 with a sum of rupees

five lakhs (£33,000) set aside as an endowment for the prosecution and assistance of research, the propagation of knowledge and experimental measures generally in connection with the causation, mode of spread and prevention of communicable diseases. It can claim to be amongst the pioneers in organised medical research on a large scale and has been referred to by other countries in very complimentary language. Still better, it has been copied by several other nations.

During 1929 the constitution of the Governing Body was altered by the Government of India. It was considered that, in view of the largely increased activities of this Association, the Governing Body, which had hitherto most expeditiously and economically conducted the business of the Association should be now made more representative in character. It was accordingly enlarged by including two non-official members from the Legislative Assembly, one from the Council of State, two from the Medical Faculties of the Universities and one non-medical scientist. The creation of a Recruitment Board in India for selecting the personnel employed by the Association and of a Sanitative Recruitment Board in England also came under the consideration of Government. It was further decided that the Governing Body of the Indian Research Fund Association should be the co-ordinating agency for the research activities of the All-India Institute of Public Health which is being built at Calcutta and of the proposed Central Medical Research Institute.

The Conference of Medical Research Workers is drawn from all parts of India and consists of experts in their particular lines of research, discussed yearly the general policy of research work in India as well as the detailed schemes which are proposed to be undertaken by the Indian Research Fund Association in the following year. The results of these discussions are available to guide the members of the Scientific Advisory Board of the Indian Research Fund Association in making their recommendations for the programme of the following year. The Advisory Board also met in December and examined all the proposals for research work and recommended a scheme of research for the guidance of the Governing Body of the Indian Research Fund Association.

The official organ of the Association is the "Indian Journal of Medical Research," which has a wide international circulation. The Association also publishes "Indian Medical Research Memoirs," which are supplementary to the "Journal".

Since its inception a great number of inquiries have been carried out under the auspices of this Association and great expansion of its activities has taken place from small beginnings.

The principal inquiries are the Malaria Survey of India, which is a Central organisation, located at Kasauli and Karnal, plague research at the Haffkine Institute, Bombay, kala-azar by a commission in Assam, bacteriophage by Dr Asheshov at Patna, nutritional research by Colonel McCarrison at the Pasteur Institute, Coonoor, and indigenous drugs and drug addiction by Lt-Col. Chopra at Calcutta.

The Malaria Survey of India, which now enjoys international recognition, is constantly called upon to advise as to the best methods for malaria prevention in India. As part of the

activities of this organisation and in commemoration of Sir Ronald Ross' intimate association with India, an experimental malaria station was opened in Karnal in January 1927 and is known as The Ross Field Experimental Station for Malaria. Besides carrying out experiments in connection with the prevention of malaria, annual classes are held at which candidates from all over India are shown the latest methods for dealing with the malaria scourge and are instructed how these methods should be applied. In connection with the Malaria Survey of India and in order to assemble all facts relating to malaria, a new publication has been started known as the "Records of the Malaria Survey of India," of which up-to-date four numbers have been issued.

The programme for each year involves an expenditure of Rs. 10 lakhs or more and the institution of 40 or 50 investigations.

Geological Survey—The ultimate aim of the Geological Survey of India is the preparation of a geological map of India upon the accuracy of which the solution of most geological problems ultimately depends. Maps accompany the reports on the various areas in the publications of the Department and a large amount of information is made available to the public. Such maps represent pioneer work which enables prospectors and mining engineers to cut short their preliminary investigations and to start where the Geological Survey has left off. During the preparation of the geological map and the general survey of the country, mineral deposits of importance are sometimes discovered. Such discoveries are published without delay and every endeavour is made to induce private firms to take up the exploitation of the mineral discovered. Collections of minerals, rocks and fossils are accumulated and exhibited in the public galleries of the Indian Museum, situated in Calcutta. Some of the most interesting and scientifically valuable additions to the collections in recent years have been the remains of anthropoid apes of great age discovered at different places in the Siwalik Hills, a range which for hundreds of miles runs parallel to the Himalayas, at a short distance below the foot hills of the latter, and is largely composed of Himalayan detritus. The Geological Survey helps in the spread of geological education in India by the presentation of mineral, rock and fossil specimens to educational institutions. The knowledge gained concerning the geological structure of India and the composition of the rocks that compose the strata enables the department to help in the solution of engineering problems connected with the selection of sites for dams for reservoirs, the safety of hill slopes and the suitability of particular building stones for particular purposes. The Department is also often able to advise on problems concerned with the supply of water. As a result of the knowledge gained concerning the structure and disposition of the mineral deposits of India, the Department is also in a position to give advice concerning the conservation of the mineral resources of the country. The Geological Survey also undertakes the examination and identification, without fee, of any minerals, rocks and fossils sent in by private observers. The publications of the Survey include the Memoirs, Records and Palaeontologia Indica. The Survey headquarters are in Calcutta.

Posts and Telegraphs.

POST OFFICE.

The control of the Posts and Telegraphs of India is vested in an officer designated Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs whose office is attached to the Department of Industries and Labour of the Government of India. For the efficient working of the Department a representative of the Finance Deptt—the Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs—has been attached to the office of the D. G. P. & T. The Financial Adviser not only controls the finances of the Dept but also assists the D. G. generally in examining matters containing financial implications in which the former is assisted by the Deputy Director-General, Finance. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the postal side of one Senior Deputy Director-General, one Deputy Director-General (postal services), five (including one temporary) Asstt Deputy Director-General and one Personal Assistant to the Director-General.

For postal purposes, the Indian Empire is divided into nine circles namely, Bengal and Assam, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Burma, Central, Madras, Punjab and North-West Frontier, United Provinces and Smd and Baluchistan. Each of the first eight is in charge of a Postmaster-General and the Smd and Baluchistan Circle is controlled by a Director, Posts & Telegraphs. The Central Circle comprises roughly the Central Provinces and the Central India and Rajputana Agencies.

The Postmasters-General are responsible to the Director-General for the whole of the postal arrangements in their respective circles, including those connected with the conveyance of mails by railways and inland steamers. All the Postmasters-General are provided with Deputy and Assistant Postmasters-General. The nine Postal Circles are divided into Divisions, each in charge of a Superintendent of Post Offices or Railway Mail Service as the case may be and each Superintendent is assisted by a certain number of officials styled Inspectors.

Generally there is a head post office at the head-quarters of each revenue district and other post offices in the same district are usually subordinate to the head office for purposes of accounts. The Postmasters of the Calcutta,

Bombay, and Madras General Post Offices and of the larger of the other head post offices are directly under the Postmasters-General. The Presidency Postmasters have one or more Inspecting Postmasters subordinate to them. When the duties of the Postmaster or a head office become so onerous that he is unable to perform them fully himself a Deputy Postmaster is appointed to relieve him of some of them, and if still further relief is required, one or more Assistant Postmasters are employed. The more important of the offices subordinate to the head office are designated sub-offices and are usually established only in towns of some importance. Sub-offices transact all classes of postal business with the public, submit accounts to the head offices to which they are subordinate incorporating therein the accounts of their branch offices, and frequently have direct dealings with Government local sub-treasuries. The officer in charge of such an office works it either single-handed or with the assistance of one or more clerks according to the amount of business.

Branch offices are small offices with limited functions ordinarily intended for villages, and are placed in charge either of departmental officers on small pay or of extraneous agents, such as school-masters, shopkeepers, landholders or cultivators who perform their postal duties in return for a small remuneration.

The audit work of the Post Office is entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, who is an officer of the Finance Department of the Government of India and is not subordinate to the Director-General. The Accountant-General is assisted by Deputy Accountants-General, all of whom, with the necessary staff of clerks, perform at separate head-quarters the actual audit work of a certain number of postal circles.

In accordance with an arrangement which has been in force since 1883, a large number of sub-post offices and a few head offices perform telegraph work in addition to their postal work and are known by the name of combined offices. The policy is to increase telegraph facilities everywhere and especially in towns by opening a number of cheap telegraph offices working under the control of the Post Office.

The Inland Tariff (which is applicable to Ceylon and Portuguese India except as indicated below) is as follows —

	When the postage is prepaid.	When the postage is wholly unpaid.	When the postage is insufficiently prepaid.
Letters.	Anna. Pies.		
Not exceeding half a tola	1 0	Double the prepaid rate (chargeable on delivery).	Double the deficiency (chargeable on delivery).
Exceeding half a tola but not exceeding two and a half tolas	1 3		
Every two and a half tolas or fraction thereof exceeding two and a half tolas	1 3		
Book and pattern packets			
For the first five tolas or fraction thereof	0 0		
For every additional five tolas, or fraction thereof, in excess of five tolas	0 0		

Post cards.

Single 9 pies
Reply 1 anna 6 pies

(The postage on cards of private manufacture must be prepaid in full.)

Parcels (prepayment compulsory).

Parcels not exceeding 800 tolas in weight:—

	Rs. a.
Not exceeding 20 tolas	0 2
Exceeding 20 tolas but not exceeding 40 tolas	0 4
For every additional 40 tolas or part of that weight	0 4

Registration is compulsory in the case of parcels weighing over 440 tolas.

These rates are not applicable to parcels for Portuguese India.

In the case of parcels for Ceylon a registration fee of 3 annas is chargeable on each parcel in addition to the rates shown above.

Registration fee. Rs. a.

For each letter, postcard, book or pattern packet, or parcel to be registered 0 3

Ordinary Money Order fees.

On any sum not exceeding Rs. 10 ..	0 2
On any sum exceeding Rs. 10 but not exceeding Rs. 25	0 4
On any sum exceeding Rs. 25 upto Rs. 600	0 4

for each complete sum of Rs. 25, and 4 annas for the remainder; provided that, if the remainder does not exceed Rs. 10, the charge for it shall be only 2 annas.

In the case of money orders for Ceylon and Portuguese India, the rates prescribed for foreign rupee money orders are applicable.

Telegraphic money order fees.—The same as the fees for ordinary money orders plus a telegraph charge calculated at the rates for inland telegrams for the actual number of words used in the telegram advising the remittance, according as the telegram is to be sent as an "Express" or as an "Ordinary"

message. In addition to the above a supplementary fee of two annas is levied on each inland telegraphic money order.

In the case of Ceylon the telegraph charge is calculated at the rates shown below:—

Express.—Rs. 2 for the first 12 words and annas for each additional word.

Ordinary.—Rs. 1 for the first 12 words and 2 annas for each additional word. Telegraph money orders cannot be sent to Portuguese India.

Value-payable fees.—These are calculated at the amount specified for remittance to the sender and are the same as the fees for ordinary money orders.

Insurance fees.

Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 100	0
Where the value insured exceeds Rs. 100 but does not exceed Rs. 150 ..	0
Where the value insured exceeds Rs. 150 but does not exceed Rs. 200	0
For every additional Rs. 100 or fraction thereof over Rs. 200 and upto Rs. 1,000	0
For every additional Rs. 100 or fraction thereof over Rs. 1,000	0

As regards Portuguese India see Foreign Tariff.

Acknowledgment fee.—For each registered article 1 anna.

The Foreign Tariff (which is not applicable to Ceylon or to Portuguese India except indicated below), is as follows —

Letters.

To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Egypt (including the Sudan) and all British Colonies, Dominions and possessions except Palestine and Transjordan	2½ annas for the first ounce and 2 annas for each additional ounce or part of that weight.
To other countries, colonies or places except to Ceylon and Portuguese India to which Indian inland rates apply.	3½ annas for the first ounce and 2 annas for every additional ounce or part of that weight.

Sanitation.

For every story of the sanitary departments in that weight for about sixty years. During Sample — 1 — at improvements have been anna per 2 ounces sanitary condition of the towns, names to be done; but the pro-

sanitation which involves the Parcel pos the great bulk of the population has as shown, and incommensurate with the thought in the labour bestowed on the subject. "The relation lies in the apathy of the people and the tenacity with which they cling to domestic customs injurious to health. While the inhabitants of the plains of India are on the whole distinguished for personal cleanliness, the sense of public cleanliness has ever been wanting. Great improvements have been effected in many places; but the village house is still often ill-ventilated and over-populated: the village site dirty, crowded with cattle, choked with rank vegetation, and poisoned by stagnant pools, and the village tanks polluted, and used indiscriminately for bathing, cooking and drinking. That the way to improvement lies through the education of the people has always been recognised."

Of recent years the pace has been speeded up as education progressed, education developed, and funds were available. In a resolution issued in May 23rd, 1914, the Government of India summarised the position at that time, and laid down the general lines of advance. This resolution (*Gazette of India*, May 25th, 1914) should be studied by all who wish to understand the attitude of the Government of India towards sanitation prior to the passing of the Reform Act of 1919. It will be found summarised in the Indian Year Book of 1922 (page 475 *et seq*) and earlier editions. One of the greatest changes effected by the Reform Act of 1919 was the transfer of sanitation to the provinces making it a subject directly responsible to local control through Ministers. It is yet too early to indicate the effects of this change.

The Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India in a general review of health organisation in British India which he laid in January, 1928, before the Interchange Study Tour organised for Medical Officers of Health from the Far Eastern Countries by the Health Organisation of the League of Nations, concluded "that the State effort in regard to Health Organisation in British India is one of no mean importance, that it has evolved over a couple of centuries during which many mistakes in policy must be admitted, that it has provided the Officers and the stimulus necessary for laying the foundations of medical education, that it has tried to uphold the ethical standards of western medicine and that in which ever way it is regarded it is an effort of which no Government need be ashamed." He quoted, the remark of the Government of India in their Resolution of 1914 that "in the land of the ox cart one must not expect the pace of the motor car."

The Public Health Commissioner in his annual report for the year 1925 noted the introduction of the political element into health matters as a result of the Reforms and said that the improvements being introduced before the Reforms were in some provinces now in a fair way to maturing but that in other provinces "with less appreciation of the actual needs so far from adding to the organisation as they have found it have shown a desire to scrap even some of what they originally possessed." But, he says, "though the picture is neither bright nor the future rosy, it is becoming increasingly evident that a considerable section of the Indian community is thinking seriously on these public health problems amid much futile and destructive criticisms of State and municipal efforts here and there valuable and suggestive criticism can be met with which goes to prove my contention."

India's birth rate in 1925 was nearly twice that of England and Wales, her death rate was twice that of England and Wales and nearly three times that of New Zealand and her infantile mortality rate was nearly 2½ times that of England and Wales and nearly 4½ times that of New Zealand. "The information furnished for the great group of infectious diseases of world import, i.e., plague, cholera, small-pox, yellow fever, typhus, malaria, and dysentery shows (says the Public Health Report already cited) that if we except typhus and yellow fever, India is one of the world's reservoirs of infection for the others" and the main reservoir of infection for plague and cholera. "The significance of these facts must, adds the Commissioner, be obvious to all who think. Briefly their implication is that India's house, from the public health point of view, is sadly out of order and that this disorder requires to be attended to. It is not for India to say that so far as she is concerned prevention is impossible. If we think of the effect of sunlight on tubercle ridden children, of the effect of feeding on rickets, scurvy and beri-beri, of the way in which malaria, cholera, yellow fever, dengue, ankylostomiasis and filariasis can be and have been overcome we need have no fear in regard to India provided the necessary measures are put into operation."

The Public Health Commissioner in an address before the annual congress of the Far Eastern Association of Tropical Medicine, held in Calcutta in December, 1927, urged the importance of instituting a Central Ministry of Health which should be charged with the functions of co-ordinating the policies and activities of the departments concerned in the several provinces and with keeping them abreast of scientific progress. There is at present no public Health Act for the whole of India, nor under existing administrative arrangements is one immediately possible, but the desirability of the Central Ministry of Health and of such an Act is likely to be urged in the course of the revision of the Constitutional Reforms now in progress.

The Commissioner in his annual report to Government for 1927 gave at the outset the following text for thought: "Whether the institution of a Ministry of Health, which many of us think is long overdue for the Indian Empire, would accelerate progress is a matter of opinion, but there can be little doubt that such progress must depend not on a haphazard programme or on the fulfilment of an annual routine of measures sanctified by tradition but rather on the acceptance of such cardinal principles as have been laid down by the Chief Medical Officer of the British Ministry of Health in his 1927 report and by a genuine attempt to work to these. Sir George Newman points out that 'Nothing is more certain than the fact that the physical advancement and health of mankind is dependant not upon a doctor's stint here or a sanitary institution there but upon the whole social evolution of the people. Now, these desired ends are not reached merely by announcing them, still less by leaving things to chance, drift or fate. They can in any case only be partly reached at all without foresight, organisation and expenditure.' He proceeds to inculcate four basic principles which it is necessary for any modern state to work to and which are as follows:—

- (a) ascertainment and accurate registration of the data obtainable;
- (b) the establishment of a definite standard to work to, which should be based on health and physiology and not on illness or its absence;
- (c) the study of the character and incidence of all cases, its causes and predisposing conditions, its mode of spread, the social factors which increase or reduce it and the means of its treatment and prevention;
- (d) the establishment of a national organisation by the state of public health, and on an administrative basis of the agencies and co-ordination of the people.

It is for consideration how far we in India are now working to these basic principles, or are likely to in the future and whether our existing public health organisation is fit to enable us to do this."

The following table of vital statistics is taken from the Public Health Commissioner's latest annual report.—

Province.	Birth Rates (per mille)		Death Rates (per mille)	
	1931	Previous 5 years	1931.	Previous 5 years
Delhi	42.2	46.5	21.7	35.3
Bengal	27.8	26.2	22.3	22.7
Bihar and Orissa	37.0	37.0	26.6	26.5
Assam	28.1	31.3	18.7	21.2
United Provinces	35.6	33.2	27.0	24.7
Punjab	42.7	38.1	26.0	25.7
N. W. Frontier Province	30.7	26.9	20.2	19.7
Central Provinces and Berar	44.3	46.0	35.5	34.2
Madras	35.5	37.5	23.7	25.3
Coorg	24.5	21.1	23.8	20.1
Bombay	36.1	37.5	23.8	28.3
Burma	26.5	26.8	17.1	20.0
Ajmer-Merwara	34.0	28.8	30.1	25.0
British India	34.3	35.7	21.9	26.0

Chief Causes of Mortality—There are three main classes of fatal diseases: specific fevers diseases affecting the abdominal organs, and lung diseases, intestinal and skin parasites, ulcers and other indications of scurvy widely prevail. The table below shows the number of deaths from each of the principal diseases and from all other causes in British India and death rates per 1,000 during 1932 —

Mortality during 1932.

		D—Deaths				R—Ratio per mille		
Province		Cholera	Small-pox	Plague	Fevers.	Dysentery and Diarrhoea	Respiratory Diseases	All other causes.
Delhi	{ D	4	183	.	7,305	499	4,015	3,731
	{ R	0 0	0 3	.	11.2	0 8	6 2	5.8
Bengal	{ D	33,910	7,91	1	691,513	30,562	62,249	187,074
	{ R	0 7	0 2	0 0	13 8	0 8	1.2	3 6
Bihar and Orissa	{ D	9,348	16,466	3,374	564,666	15,727	5,582	160,782
	{ R	0 2	0 4	0 1	14 8	0 4	0 1	4 2
Assam	{ D	4,971	631	.	98,211	8,241	5,358	32,909
	{ R	0 6	0 1	..	12 2	1 3	0 7	4 1
U Provinces	{ D	9,734	2,779	21,407	853,256	12,836	33,730	142,393
	{ R	0 2	0 0	0 4	17 5	0 3	0 7	2 9
Punjab	{ D	614	5,184	2,003	388,427	13,287	60,251	109,616
	{ R	0 0	0 2	0 1	16 2	0 6	2 5	4 6
N W F P	{ D	70	513	.	38,582	529	3,094	4,388
	{ R	0 0	0 2	..	16 1	0 2	1 3	1 8
C P & Berar	{ D	854	574	2,058	237,743	23,493	30,411	121,844
	{ R	0 0	0 0	0 1	15 1	1 5	2 0	7 8
Madras	{ D	5,278	5,363	1,561	291,416	80,410	94,312	513,684
	{ R	0 1	0 1	0 0	6 3	1 7	2 0	11 2
Coorg	{ D	.	1	8	2,944	110	254	490
	{ R	.	0 0	0 0	18 0	0 7	1 6	3 0
Bombay	{ D	1,353	2,699	14,446	195,250	22,610	93,524	172,592
	{ R	0 0	0 1	0 7	8 8	1 0	4 2	7 8
Burma	{ D	1,082	2,484	1,556	73,897	5,191	11,830	111,380
	{ R	0 1	0 2	0 1	6 2	0 4	1 0	9 1
Ajmer Merwara	{ D	1	138	.	10,934	309	1,304	1,262
	{ R	0 0	0 2	.	19 4	0 5	2.3	2 2

Statistical health reports for all India are always inevitably submitted are belated owing to the number of provinces from which returns have to be collated.

Dr Ruth Young, Director of the Maternal and Child Welfare Bureau of the Indian Red Cross Society, in some notes contributed to the Public Health Commissioner's report on this subject, says that "Various attempts recently made to ascertain more accurately the exact cause of maternal deaths have shown that mortality in connection with childbirth is very high and that the problem of deaths is even greater than had been supposed. The lower rate reported for rural areas is probably due to faulty registration because the facilities for skilled attendance must obviously be lower in the average village even although the general standard of health may be higher. As in the case of infant mortality the general causes of this high rate are known, although further investigations in particular localities are required, e.g. into the prevalence of anaemia of pregnancy and its influence on maternal mortality and the occurrence of diseases such as malarial fever and eclampsia which complicate labour in certain parts of India. Apart from such definite entities which might be susceptible of rapid improvement the main causes of maternal mortality lie in social customs which cannot be quickly influenced. Any reform which has as its *modus operandi* in educational process is bound to operate only gradually. It can undoubtedly be hastened and in particular

"With a staff of 100,000, the central board is now established as a full-fledged administrative body. And the great health problems which the central board will have to face are such as will demand large staffs. It is difficult to understand how the present central board organization could undertake the additional work which the problems require. More than one view has appeared before the Public Health Select Committee stated that a Ministry of Health was an essential feature of the future Government of India but this proposal, while it has received warm support from more than one experienced authority, still remains a mere hope for the future. Apart from central direction of policy, which a well organized Ministry of Health could be capable of planning, one of the most important requirements of this country is an All-India Public Health Act which will lay down the broad principles on which all public health developments should be based. Unfortunately the financial position has never forbidden the creation of the Central Board of Health which was suggested by the Simon Commission and which had been planned by the present Member in charge of Public Health as a first stage in effecting closer co-ordination between individual provinces in matters of public health. These and other developments must, it seems, wait till happier and more prosperous days."

THE HEALTH OF THE ARMY

General Health statistics of the British Army in India
during the year 1932

1929	Average Strength	Admissions		Deaths		Invalids sent Home		Invalids Discharged in India		Invalids finally discharged in United Kingdom		Average Constantly sick	
		No	Ratio per 1,000	No.	Ratio per 1,000	No	Ratio per 1,000	No	Ratio per 1,000	No	Ratio per 1,000	No	Ratio per 1,000
Officers	2,295	1,063	463.2	15	6.54	63	27.43		38 75	16 88
British Other Ranks	55,336	32,177	581.2	164	2.96	400	7.39	.	.			1,458 31	26 35
British Other Ranks' wives	4,317	1,262	292.3	18	4.17	57	13.20	.	.			41 62	9 64
British Other Ranks' wives—parturition	..	863			33 21	.
British Other Ranks' children	6,684	1,999	299.1	85	12.72	14	2.09		65 61	9 82
Others	..	2,345	.	440	..	38			86 14	..

Among officers of the British Army in India 463.2 per thousand of strength were admitted to hospital during the year compared with 420.4 in 1931. There were 15 deaths, giving a ratio of 6.54 per thousand, compared with 18 and 7.76 in 1931. The average constantly sick in hospital was 38.75 or 16.88 per thousand of strength as compared with 15.11 in the preceding year. The total constantly sick, in hospital or out of hospital, on account of disease and injury was 27.94 per thousand.

Of British soldiers 32,177, or 581.5 per thousand were admitted to hospital compared with 647 per thousand in 1931 and 580.5 per thousand in 1931. There were 1,646 soldier deaths or 2.96 per thousand of the strength compared with 2.76 per thousand in 1931. The most important causes of mortality among soldiers were—

Local injuries	27
Pneumonia	27
Enteric group of fevers	14
Heat stroke	12
Appendicitis	11
Heat exhaustion	6

The number, sent home as invalids was 409 or 7.39 per thousand of the strength, compared with 544 or 9.74 per thousand in 1931.

Among women and children (British Other Ranks) 1,262 women or 292.3 per thousand of the strength were admitted to hospital compared with 1,395 or 334.4 per thousand in 1931. Of the children, 1,999 or 299.1 per thousand of the strength were admitted to hospital, compared with 1,896 or 286.4 in 1931.

The principal cause of sickness among British troops was malaria of which there were, 4,654 cases, a decrease of 1,628 compared with 1931. The year's report by the medical authorities remarks, "In 1932, in India, the British troops lost about 32,568 days spent in hospital on account of malaria alone—a matter of serious economic importance to the State. The hard fact is that we know well how to deal with the malaria problem, but we have not the funds with which to put our knowledge to adequate practical use."

HEALTH OF THE INDIAN ARMY FOR THE YEAR 1932.

	Average strength	Admissions.		Deaths		Invalids sent to U K		Invalids discharged in India		Average constantly sick	
		No.	Ratio per 1,000	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000	No.	Ratio per 1,000	No.	Ratio per 1,000.
Officers ..	2,175	700	321.8	150	69.0	26	11.05	.	.	24	30.11-20
Indian Banks	121,013	52,017	429.8	305	252			783	6.47	1,902	33.15-72
Followers ..	28,248	7,525	266.4	100	38.6	206	35.9-43
Others *	.	2,094		23	.			73

* Includes Reservists, Indian Territorial Force, Royal Indian Marine, Indian State Forces R. A. F., Civilians and Pensioners

The admission rate of officers sick in hospital for 1932 was 321.8 per thousand of strength as compared with 367.4 in 1931. Among soldiers 52,017 or 429.8 per thousand of strength were admitted to hospital, compared with 451.3 per thousand in 1931. There was thus a decrease of 21.5 per thousand on the 1931 figures. The death rate among Indian soldiers during 1932 was 2.52 per thousand as against 2.96 per thousand in 1931.

LEPROSY IN INDIA.

It is exceedingly difficult to give anything approaching an accurate estimate of the total number of lepers in the Indian Empire to-day. In 1921, when a Census was made, leprosy was regarded as an *infirmitas* like blindness, insanity and deaf-mutism and the supposed number of lepers was tabulated along with these. The number counted was 102,513 as against 109,094 in 1911. But it was recognised doubtful if this figure represented anything more than the more advanced cases and that possibly a majority of this number were the begging and pauper lepers who are seen all over the country. Dr. E. Muir, M.D., F.R.C.S., the Leprosy Research Worker at the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine, said that "recent figures obtained from a carefully conducted but limited survey, tend to confirm the computation that there are roughly from a half to one million people in India suffering from leprosy."

Early in the year 1924, the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association was constituted in England with H. R. H. The Prince of Wales as Patron, the Viscount Chalmersford as Chairman of the General Committee and H. E. the Viceroy of India as one of the Vice-Presidents. Following its formation and in view of the good results being obtained from the newest treatment of leprosy, H. E. the Viceroy felt that the time was auspicious for the inauguration and carrying on of an earnest campaign with the object of ultimately stamping out leprosy from India.

His Excellency invited certain gentlemen representing various interests to form an Indian Council of the Association, which he formally inaugurated at a public meeting in Delhi on the 27th January 1925.

A general appeal for funds in aid of the Association was issued by His Excellency the Viceroy on the date of the inauguration of the Indian Council which was closed after a year with realizations amounting to over Rs 20,00,000 which was invested in the end of 1928. The investments amounted to Rs 20,63,065 yielding an annual revenue of over Rs 1,32,000.

In the scheme of anti-leprosy campaign which the Association put into operation, the respective parts to be played by the Central and Provincial Committees in carrying forward the aims and objects of the Association are definitely apportioned. The Central Committee is vested with the task of promoting research, of preparing and publishing propaganda material, arranging for the training of doctors in the diagnosis and treatment of leprosy according to the latest methods and of conducting an expert survey of selected areas for the ascertainment of the facts regarding the incidence and endemicity of leprosy. Measures for the accommodation and treatment of leprosy patients and other schemes of purely local interest are to be the concern of provincial committees as agents of the Indian Council in the Provinces.

The policy and principles of the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association, Indian Council, with regard to provincial committees are expressed in its "Memorandum on the method of conducting the anti-leprosy campaign in India" which was published in 1926. This document sought to bring out the following main points which according to the latest scientific researches should be the basis upon which all efforts ultimately to eradicate leprosy must rest —

(1) Pauper lepers form only a small fraction of the leper population, and the disease is common among all classes of the community

(2) Segregation is not the most appropriate method of dealing with lepers, for

(a) financially it would be impossible, , ,

(b) any attempt to impose forcible segregation would drive patients, particularly those who are suffering from the earlier stages of the disease, to conceal their misfortune, and, as has been the case where such means have been adopted, only the more advanced and obvious lepers would be segregated.

(3) The majority of the advanced cases are not highly infectious and are less amenable to treatment, while the early cases in which the disease has made but little outward manifestation, can be controlled by treatment

(4) The strongest hope of stamping out the disease lies in providing facilities for the treatment of early cases.

The Indian Council, therefore, while it did not desire to minimise the usefulness of homes and asylums for the care of lepers, strongly recommended that the efforts of the Provincial Com-

mittees should, for the present at least, be concentrated upon the establishment of dispensaries to serve the following objects —

(a) to induce patients to come forward at an early stage in the hope of recovery instead of hiding their malady till it becomes more advanced, more infectious and less remediable; and so

(b) to shut off the sources of infection as the number of infectious cases will continually tend to diminish and the opportunities for infecting the next generation will become fewer.

The Governing Body of the Indian Council in their report for the year 1933, show that the Association's main work during the completed nine years of its life has been organisation and planning and the outlining of a programme of work varied by the selection of the most fruitful soils for experimentation in methods of work. One valuable product during that period is the fact that "the leper is becoming less prone to hide his disease and there is an increase of general interest in the subject"

There are now seventeen provincial branches, including one in Mysore State and each of them has established treatment centres for leprosy patients. In Assam, for instance, the number of clinics rose from 81 in 1932 to 145 at the end of 1933. Many clinics in different parts of India report absolute cures of the disease

His Excellency the Viceroy is the President of the Indian Council, Maj Gen C A Sprawson, CIE, KRP, IMS, Director General of the I M S the Chairman of the Governing Body, Sardar Bahadur Balwant Singh Puri, the Honorary Secretary and Sir Ernest Burdon, Kt, CBE, CIE, the Honorary Treasurer.

BLINDNESS IN INDIA

All over the East, and in fact in most tropical and sub-tropical countries, blindness is very prevalent, and only of recent years have people begun to realise that much of this blindness can be relieved, and still more of it, if not most of it, could, with proper measures taken, be prevented. In Egypt, renowned for its sufferings from blindness, it was a gift of some £43,000 made by Sir Ernest Cassel at the beginning of this century that was the initiation of that fine ophthalmic service, which began under the guidance of Mr MacCallen, has now spread all over the country and gives medical treatment to three or four hundred thousand patients a year. Northern Africa, Turkey, Persia, India and China are all countries where there is a very high incidence of blindness and suffering from eye disease, and where western medicine has not yet penetrated sufficiently deeply to make much impression on the mainly rural and illiterate populations. There is a great "trachoma belt" extending from China into Eastern Europe stopped only from spreading all over the West by the higher standard of living, sanitation and cleanliness which the European nations have attained

India is in this great Blindness Belt. According to the last census returns there are 480,000 totally blind persons in this population of more

than 300 millions. That is an incidence of 1½ totally blind to every thousand of the population. But the census figures are notoriously defective, and in several districts a special count has been made of the totally blind, and wherever this has been done, the census figures have been found to be much too low. Thus in the Nasik district an incidence of at least 4.38 per thousand was found as against the census figure of 1.74. In Ratnagiri an incidence of 1.5 was found as against the census figure of 0.7, in Bijapur 2.6 as against 0.7, in the United Provinces a Deputy Commissioner had a count made and found no less than 9 per thousand. In Palampur 7 per thousand was found. If, as is not unlikely, this sort of error of under-estimation in the census report is general, then it is not unreasonable to suppose that the real number of totally blind persons in India is more like 1½ millions than the half million shown in the census returns.

These are the figures for total blindness and they by no means give the full picture, for they include only totally blind of both eyes and say nothing of the much greater number who, from neglected eye diseases, are partially or even nearly blind, and whose happiness and efficiency are thus greatly impaired. The term "blindness" has a different interpreta-

tion in every country. In a report on the Prevention of Blindness, published by the League of Red Cross Societies these different interpretations are shown. In the United States blindness is defined as "insubility to see well enough to read even with the aid of glasses, or for illiterates, inability to distinguish forms and objects with sufficient distinctness"; and in Egypt a person is accounted blind who cannot see fingers at a distance of one metre. If such persons were counted in our statistics of total blindness in India, there is little doubt that the figure would be very much larger than those indicated above. Recently the All-India Blind Relief Association has made an analysis of a very large number of patients attending its camps and dispensaries, and has found that among these patients for every totally blind person there are three with more or less damaged vision, the result of eye disease. It appears not unlikely that the true ophthalmic condition of India would be represented by figures showing one and a half million totally blind persons, and in addition to these four and a half million with more or less impaired eyesight.

"No one," says Col R. H. Elliot, late of the Madras Ophthalmic Hospital, writing in the British Journal of Ophthalmology of May 1919, "who has not worked in India can form any conception of the enormous amount of preventable and curable blindness which is laying its shadow over the health, happiness and usefulness of this great portion of our Empire", and the same writer in another place has said — "It is difficult for anyone who has not had first hand experience of medical practice in the East to realise the state of things out there granular ophthalmia claims its victims by the ten thousand, whereas it is really a disease which, when properly treated at an early stage, should not cause the loss of a single eye. The neglect of patients suffering from small-pox and other febrile conditions leads to a vast amount of blindness, while the treatment of mild ocular affections by irritant drugs is probably one of the most evil factors that spread blindness broadcast throughout the land. Large numbers of men and women suffering from glaucoma, from cataract and from other curable diseases, are allowed to hide in their villages like wounded animals, waiting only their release by death. This is not an overdrawn picture. It is a statement of cold, hard, cruel facts, well known to everyone who has practised or is practising medicine in the East."

In an editorial on the Ophthalmic work in Egypt and the possibilities of similar work in India, the *Indian Medical Gazette* (March 1923) remarks — "It would seem worth while for the Government of India to examine the working of this splendid organisation, for, in spite of the fact that workers in India have always been in the front in advances in ophthalmology, there has been little organised work in ophthalmic research except in Madras, even there the work has been done by men who have already a large amount of routine work to perform. India as a whole owes its position in the ophthalmic world entirely to the energies of individual enthusiasts, whose names are so well known that it is not necessary to mention them. What has been possible in Egypt should also be possible

in India and it would appear that the first step should be the establishment of Schools of Ophthalmology, in places like Madras and Calcutta where ample facilities exist. At these schools advanced teaching and research in ophthalmology would be carried out, and the next step would be to organise a system of ophthalmic relief at selected centres all over India" (There are now schools of ophthalmology at Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, and Lahore).

Again in an editorial from the same journal (Sept 1929) the following statements are made — "What is wanted is some large organisation covering the whole of this sub-continent and aiming chiefly at Prevention rather than treatment. In brief what the position now calls for is an all-India movement. Obviously the main question is one of general public health. Public health is a transferred department, but if the Health Department of the Government of India interests itself in the matter in co-operation with missionary and voluntary movements, we do not despair of seeing an all-India organisation created and built up."

Associations known as "Blind Relief" Associations have been working for several years in Western India, in conjunction with Government hospitals, to alleviate this affliction of blindness. The number of eye doctors in India is notoriously small and those there are stay mostly in the large towns. The Associations work by means of travelling hospitals, which bring relief to the villages in the rural areas. They also work by means of trained village workers, whose duty it is to find out the "hidden blind" and get them to the medical centre for relief, to find out cases of small-pox (a constant source of blindness in children), to inspect new born children for the detection of ophthalmia neonatorum, to keep registers of all blind and partly blind persons and persons suffering from eye disease; and to treat in the villages simple cases of conjunctivitis or sore eyes. Since their inception the Associations have been the means of restoring sight to thousands of blind people and of preventing blindness in many thousands more. The work is capable of indefinite extension and the need for some such organisation has been shown. In 1917 Colonel Elliot wrote as follows, "To me it seems that the duty and privilege of undertaking this work lie with the State, and that no sum spent on such a task could be too large. Unfortunately this is not the view that has been taken by those in authority and consequently we see the spectacle of private enterprise endeavouring to under take this colossal task. It is at least permissible to voice an admiration for the stand taken by Mr Henderson [Founder of the Blind Relief Association movement, who began the work in 1913]. The best that one can hope for his endeavour is that he will succeed in arousing the conscience of educated Indians to the needs of their less fortunate countrymen, and that this little cloud, no bigger than a man's hand, will end in a monsoon of active effort". As the above was written in 1917, it is not altogether applicable to the criticism of Government of to-day, as it has already been shown that there are now several schools of ophthalm

mology in India, and the Government eye hospitals are doing tremendous work, but these hospitals are situated in the large towns and cannot possibly by any stretch of imagination, give relief to the millions living in the rural areas

The All-India Blind Relief Association.—(The Green Star Society) exists to co-ordinate and centralise the various Associations in the mofussil and to extend their work. It is under the patronage of the Governor of Bombay, and has for its life President, Mr O G Henderson (late I C S) who founded and managed for many years all the branch Associations working in Western India. It is affiliated to the International Association for the Prevention of Blindness, which has its headquarters in Paris and was formed on September 14th, 1929, under the auspices of the League of Red Cross

Societies and the American Society for the Prevention of Blindness. The Organising Secretary is R Crawford Hutchinson, The Town Hall, Bombay

A beginning has been made, but it is only a beginning, and it is but the fringe of this vast problem that has been touched. The schools of ophthalmology in India are turning out ophthalmic surgeons who are crowding their profession in the cities and large towns. A scheme for taking these men and placing them in selected centres has been worked out, all that is required is monetary help. The cost is minimal and here is an opportunity for the generous and public spirited to emulate Sir Ernest Cassel, and give to India an eye service of which India and the whole world could be proud, and to the peoples of India that which to them is probably their most precious possession—their sight

THE MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE MOVEMENT.

Amongst the most pressing problems of India's health is that presented by the appalling maternal and infant mortality. The figures for maternal mortality are not accurately known, but they are certainly not less than 10 per thousand live births, often more. It has been calculated that every year no fewer than 2 million Indian babies die, while many others survive only to grow weak and feeble from unhygienic surroundings during infancy. A noteworthy feature has been the further progress of the infant welfare movement, which owes much to the All-India Maternity and Child Welfare League initiated by Lady Chelmsford and also to the Indian Red Cross Society, which aims at gradually establishing a network of child welfare centres in most of the larger towns in India. The amalgamation of these two Bodies which has taken place, forming the Maternity and Child Welfare Bureau, will undoubtedly increase and develop the work. In all the great centres of population, work is now being done for the training of midwives, for the instruction of mothers and for the care of babies. Training centres for Indian and Anglo-Indian women have been opened in order to spread the elements of infant hygiene to other parts of India. Most hopeful sign of all, Indian ladies are beginning to interest themselves in this work in large numbers. But such is the magnitude of the field, that a consistent widespread effort on a scale hitherto impossible must be undertaken, if any appreciable reduction is to be made in the appalling mortality of young children

Centres of Activity are organised on a provincial basis, though the various provinces differ considerably in the nature of the work undertaken and the amount of organisation displayed. It is noteworthy that the work is most co-ordinated and most energetically carried on where there are persons appointed under the Directors of Public Health whose special duty it is to foster Child Welfare activities.

The care needed by the wives and children of sepoys in the Indian Army is being

increasingly realised, and nowhere more than in the units themselves. The result has been, in the last few years, the opening of much work in this direction. Much of it is purely medical work, which, in the absence of families hospitals for the Indian soldiers, is a necessity. But genuine child welfare activities are also present in some centres many of them assisted by the M & C W Bureau Indian Red Cross Society which has undertaken the organising work in place of the Lady Birdwood Army Child Welfare Committee. A remarkable feature of this movement is the keenness of the men themselves to aid it, realising as they do the benefit to their own women and children. There are now very few cantonments where some work of this kind is not going on

So far all the schemes have devoted their attention to educating women in the elements of mothercraft and attempting to preserve infant lives and improve child health. In a land of so many languages and superstitions progress will necessarily be slow and India has yet to decide whether she will work intensively and try to rear a few well developed children as far as adolescence or extensively attempt to bring a large number of infants through the first critical months, only to have them perish at a later stage from the many ills that childhood is heir to in a land of great poverty, under-nourishment, epidemics and famine. In Western lands the Child Welfare Movement has no more marked characteristic than its inability to stop expanding. Its ramifications know no bounds. Its inevitable corollaries are endless, and like the banyan tree it will no doubt in India also develop innumerable fresh roots, medical supervision, dental clinics, better housing, open air playgrounds, etc. etc. But these are not yet its preliminary task is to educate the mothers of India to the enormity of allowing two million babies to perish every year and to convince them of the equally important fact that a high death rate always spells also a high damage rate of sickly, under-developed, incompetent citizens

ST. JOHN AMBULANCE ASSOCIATION

(Indian Council.)

The St John Ambulance Association was founded in 1877, by the Order of the Hospital of St John of Jerusalem in England, and has for its objects —

(a) The instruction of persons in rendering First Aid in cases of accident or sudden illness and in the transport of the sick and injured,

(b) The instruction of persons in the elementary principles and practice of nursing, and also of hygiene and sanitation, especially of a sick room,

(c) The manufacture, and distribution by sale or presentation, of ambulance material, and the formation of ambulance depots in mines, factories, and other centres of industry and traffic,

(d) The Organisation of Ambulance Corps, Invalid Transport Corps, and Nursing Corps,

(e) And generally the promotion of instruction and carrying out of works for the relief of suffering of the sick and injured in peace and war independently of class, nationality, or denomination

An Indian Council of the Association was constituted on a regular basis in 1910. It has since issued over 200,000 certificates of proficiency in First Aid, Home Nursing, Home Hygiene and Sanitation and over 10,000 tokens such as Vouchers, Medallions, Labels and Pendants for special proficiency in those subjects. The object of the Association is not to rival, but to aid, the medical man, and the subject-matter of instruction given at the classes qualifies the pupil to adopt such measures as may be advantageous pending the doctor's arrival, or during the intervals between his visits.

During the year 1933 22,853 persons attended 1,583 courses of instruction in First Aid, Nursing Home, Home Hygiene and Sanitation and of these 13,957 qualified for the Association's

certificates i.e., 12,869 in First Aid, 584 in Home Nursing, 451 in Hygiene and 53 in Sanitation. A new course, Domestic Hygiene and Mothercraft, introduced in 1932 has not made much headway. To popularise Home Nursing, and Domestic Hygiene and Mothercraft courses among young girls and women special propaganda was stated. Steps were taken during 1933 to arrange first aid courses for the personnel of flying clubs, but the response was poor.

The Association has five grades of members, namely, Patrons, Honorary Councillors, Life Members, Annual Members and Annual Associates. Their respective subscriptions are Rs 1,000, Rs. 500, Rs 100, Rs 5, and Rs 2.

The income of the Indian Council at headquarters consists primarily of interest on securities, a fixed annual grant from Government, fees for certificates and membership subscriptions. The total income for 1933 was Rs 17,897, a more or less normal figure. Management expenses amounted to Rs 22,413. After adjusting assets and liabilities outstanding the revenue account for 1933 showed a loss of Rs 6,305. The Council was able to carry on by taking a loan of Rs 7,000 from the Indian Red Cross Society and by buying much less stores than it sold, the balance of stores stock thus being reduced by Rs 11,000. The Council realise that the financial position and its maintenance by temporary expedients is unsatisfactory.

Their Excellencies the Viceroy and the Countess of Willingdon and His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief as President, Lady President and Chairman, respectively, with 17 members form the Indian Council. The general business of the Indian Council is conducted by an Executive Committee of which the Hon'ble Sir David Petrie, Kt, CIE, OVO, CBE, is the Chairman, Miss Norah Hill, ARRC, the General Secretary, and Sir Ernest Burdon, Kt, CSI, OIE, IOS, the Honorary Treasurer.

INSANITY AND MENTAL HOSPITALS IN INDIA.

The accommodation for the treatment in British India of persons who suffer from mental disorders is still very inadequate. In the Indian States, the condition of affairs is even worse, for, with the sole exception of Mysore State which has a small and highly archaic "mental hospital" at Bangalore, there are no mental hospitals in existence so that persons suffering from all forms of mental disease are confined in the jails where, of course, no provision exists for any kind of treatment. According to the last Census (1931) out of a total popula-

tion of 352,837,778 (India and Burma) there are 120,304 persons insane, making a proportion of insane to sane of 3 per every 10,000. In the United Kingdom the proportion of insane to sane is roughly 40 per 10,000, while in New Zealand it is as much as 45 per 10,000. In reviewing these figures it must be borne in mind that those of the United Kingdom and New Zealand include the "feeble-minded" an item that is not included in the figures for British India;

INDIA,

Provinces, States and Agencies.	General population.			Insane population.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Total.
British India	139,931,556	131,595,377	271,526,933	} 120,304
Indian States	41,897,367	39,413,478	81,310,845	
Total for all India .	181,828,923	171,008,855	352,837,778	120,304

For the care of the 120,304 insanes of India and Burma there exists accommodation in mental hospitals for 9,244 hence only one person in eight out of the total insane population can obtain accommodation in institutions which exist

especially for their care and treatment.

The following table gives the number of mental hospitals in each province during 1927, the total population of each institution and the number discharged cured and died —

Provinces	No of Mental Hospitals	Admitted and readmitted during the year	Total Population of Mental Hospitals			Discharged cured.	Died.	Daily average.		Criminal Lunatics.
			Males.	Females.	Total.			Strength.	Sick.	
Assam	1	66	410	95	505	21	47	438·47	59·35	246
Bihar and Orissa .	2	364	1,535	398	1,933	206	53	1,604·49	74·68	614
United Provinces ..	3	779	1,561	412	1,973	174	106	1,274·83	155·03	425
Punjab	1	397	982	262	1,244	132	102	889·88	73·63	207
Central Provinces ..	1	87	389	95	484	33	19	410·96	20·37	135
Bombay	5	608	2,109	237	171	1,534·20	93·7	226
Madras	3	469	1,153	357	1,512	143	80	1,105·29	135·89	194
Burma	2	276	1,111	169	1,280	88	58	1,052·55	44·06	564
Total	18	3,046	11,040	..	636	8,305·67	656·71	2,601

It will be observed that there is now no mental hospital in Bengal. Insanes from this province are treated in one or other of the two mental hospitals at Ranchi. All Mental hospitals are under the direct control of the Provincial administrative medical officers except the European Mental Hospital at Ranchi which is controlled by a Board of Trustees presided over by the Commissioner of Chota-Nagpur. The so-called "Central" Mental Hospitals, that is to say, the Mental Hospital at Madras, North Yeravda (Bombay), Lahore (Punjab), Agra (United Provinces of Agra and Oudh) and Rangoon (Burma), as well as the two Mental Hospitals at Ranchi (one for Europeans and Americans and one for Asiatics and Africans) are administered by whole-time medical officers who are usually trained alienists. The Administration of the remaining Mental Hospitals in British India and Burma lies with the Civil

Surgeon of the locality in which they happen to be situated. It is probably true to state that only one Mental Hospital in the whole of India can claim any pretension to be up-to-date as regards organisation, staffing and equipment and that is the Mental Hospital for Europeans at Ranchi. All the others are for the most part over-crowded and under-staffed, thus rendering anything approaching treatment on modern lines out of the question. The only province in India which has so far displayed some appreciation of the importance of bringing the prevention and treatment of mental disorders into line with conditions in civilised countries is Madras. The local Government of this province has achieved a notable advance in its attitude towards mental disorders by providing, in the construction of the new General Hospital at Madras, accommodation for the treatment of early cases of mental diseases.

As regards the incidence of insanity among the various races of India as well as the incidence of insanity in relation to occupation, no reliable information is available in view of the comparative paucity of cases in proportion to the general

population that come under observation. On the other hand the incidence by age is shown fairly well in the Census Report of 1921 which is as follows —

INDIA.

AGE.	Insane.		Distribution of the insane by age per 10,000 of each sex.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
YEARS				
0-5	651	484	121	142
5-10	2,905	1,882	539	558
10-15	4,098	2,753	761	803
15-20	4,366	3,076	810	904
20-25	5,518	3,379	1,024	993
25-30	6,861	3,582	1,273	1,053
30-35	7,231	3,849	1,342	1,131
35-40	5,651	2,949	1,049	867
40-45	5,316	3,486	987	1,025
45-50	3,332	2,157	616	634
50-55	3,132	2,492	581	733
55-60	1,465	1,036	272	305
60-65	1,683	1,471
65-70	602	439
70 and over	1,070	1,006
Unspecified	270	133
Total for all India .. .	54,151	34,154	623	857

A further result of the widespread ignorance and apathy both official and non-official, towards psychiatry and its cognate interests, is the lack of any provision for the care and treatment of mentally defective children. In 1925, the Hon'ble Haroon Jaffer moved the Council of State to recommend to the Governor-General in Council that the Provincial Governments be asked to investigate the best means of dealing quickly and adequately with cases of mental defectives. A discussion followed which was remarkable only for the ignorance of the subject displayed by all who took part in it. The motion was eventually withdrawn. Finally there is still a lamentable failure everywhere to appreciate the intimate associa-

tion of crime with mental disorder and the extreme paucity of medical men throughout the whole of India with any real knowledge of mental diseases leave the decision of questions involving what the law terms "responsibility" in crime in the hands of medical men who are in no sort of sense "experts". In other words the current ideas both as regards the theory and practice of dealing with insanity and crime in India can only be described as archaic.

(See also "Insanity in India" by Colonel G. F. W. Ewens, I.M.S., and "Lunacy in India" by Colonel A. W. Overbeck-Wright, M.D., D.P.E., I.M.S. and Colonel H. P. Jago Shaw's book.)

National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the Women of India.

The National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the women of India was founded by the Countess of Dufferin in 1857, the object being to open women's hospitals and women's wards in existing hospitals, to train women doctors, nurses and midwives in India, and to bring these out when necessary from Europe. An endowment fund of about £100,000 was obtained by public subscription. In addition, Branches were formed in each Province, each Branch having its own funds and each having a number of Local Committees and Zenana Hospitals affiliated to it.

The Central Fund gives grants-in-aid to several Provincial Branches, it gives scholarships to a number of women students at the Medical schools of Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi. It has in the past brought from England a certain number of European medical women.

It has also by grant-in-aid the building of a number of zenana hospitals in different parts of India. It has affiliated to it 13 Provincial Branches and a number of Local Committees.

The Government of India subsidize the Countess of Dufferin's Fund to the extent of Rs. 41,000 per annum for a Women's Medical Service for India—this service consists of 11 officers, 110 training reserve of 8 doctors and a Junior reserve of 6 assistant surgeons. Medical women with a British or Indian hospital registration and high qualifications are eligible for the service.

The President is H. F. The Countess of Willingdon, C.I., G.P.S. The Hon. Secretary is the Surgeon to H. M. The Viceroy, and the Secretary Dr. L. V. Webb, C.M.O., F.R.S., Red Cross Building, New Delhi and Vice-regal Secretariat, Simla.

THE WOMEN'S MEDICAL SERVICE FOR INDIA.

This Service is included in the National Association for supplying medical aid by women to the women of India, generally known as the Countess of Dufferin's Fund and is administered by the Executive Committee and Council of that Fund. The Government of India has so far allotted the sum of £25,000 per annum towards its maintenance. The present sanctioned cadre is forty-four first class medical women, with a training reserve of 8 women graduates in medicine of Indian Universities. Recruitment of the service is made (a) in India by a medical sub-committee of the Council which includes the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Honorary Secretary to the Council and the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service, (b) in England, by a sub-committee, including a medical man and two medical women conversant with conditions in India. These sub-committees perform the duties of a medical board examining candidates for physical fitness, and for return to duty after invaliding.

The Council determines what proportions of the members of the Service is to be recruited in England and in India respectively. In the original constitution of the Service, duly qualified medical women who are in the service of, or who have rendered approved service to, the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, are to have the first claim to appointment, and thereafter special consideration is to be paid to the claims of candidates who have qualified in local institutions and of those who are natives of India.

Qualifications—The qualifications are that the candidate must be (a) a British subject resident in the United Kingdom or in a British Colony or in British India, or a person resident in any territory of any Native Prince

or Chief under the suzerainty of His Majesty exercised through the Governor-General of India or through any Governor or other officer subordinate to the Governor-General of India. (b) Must be between the ages of twenty-four and thirty at entry. (c) She must be a first-class medical woman, i.e., she must possess a medical qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under the Medical Act, or an Indian or Colonial qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under that Act but this condition does not apply at the original constitution of the Service to medical women in charge of hospitals who, in the opinion of the Council, are of proved experience and ability. (d) The candidate must produce a certificate of health and character. But the Council reserves the power to promote to the service ladies not possessing the above qualifications, but who have shown marked capacity. Members of the Service are required to engage for duty anywhere in India. After one year of probation has been satisfactorily passed their appointments are confirmed. The services of officers may be lent to Local or Municipal bodies, or to special institutions, which may be responsible for whole or part of the pay.

Pay—The rates of pay are as follows:—

1st to 3rd year	Rs. 450 per month.
4th to 6th	500 "
7th to 9th	550 "
10th to 12th	600 "
13th to 15th	650 "
16th to 18th	700 "
19th to 21st	750 "
22nd to 24th	800 "
24th and after	850 "

also an overseas allowance of Rs. 100 per month to those below 12 years' service and Rs. 150 per month to those of 12 years' service and over. Every officer of the Service shall pass an examination in such vernacular as the Executive Committee shall appoint within the first three years of her service, and shall receive no increment after that period until such examination has been passed. In addition furnished quarters are provided free of rent or a house rent allowance to be determined by the Provincial Committee may be granted in lieu of it.

Officers of the Service are permitted to engage in private practice provided it does not interfere with their official duties, and the Provincial Committee has the power to determine whether such duties are thus interfered with. Except in very special cases retirement is compulsory at the age of fifty-five. An officer recruited in England, whose appointment is not confirmed, or who is dismissed, is granted an allowance sufficient to pay her passage to England.

Leave Rules—(a) Casual Leave, which is occasional leave on full pay for a few days, and is not supposed to interrupt duty. (b) Leave on average pay is granted up to 2-11 of an officer's period on duty, according to Fundamental Rules. More than eight months' leave on average pay is not granted at one time. (c) Study leave may also be granted up to twelve months during the whole service. An allowance of 12 sh per day is granted in addition to $\frac{1}{2}$ average pay during study leave. (d) Extraordinary leave at any time at the discretion of the Executive Committee. (e) Leave not due may be granted subject to the following conditions—(i) on medical certificate, without limit of amount, and (ii) otherwise than on medical certificate, for not more than three months at any one time and six months in all, reckoned in terms of leave on average pay. (f) The maximum period of continuous absence from duty on leave granted otherwise than on medical certificate is 18 months. (g) When an officer returns from leave which was not due and which was debited against her leave account, no leave will become due to her until the expiration of a fresh period spent on duty, sufficient to earn a credit of leave equal to the period of leave which she took before it was due. There are no allowances during extraordinary leave. A doctor appointed in England receives a sum of £100 to cover her passage and incidental

expenses. There are also allowances to cover the cost of journeys by rail and road.

There is also a Provident Fund, each member contributing monthly thereto ten per cent of her salary, the Association contributing an equal amount, and each subscriber's account being granted interest on the amount standing to credit at the rate of 4 per cent per annum "or at such rate as the Council can invest without risk to the funds of the Association."

An officer loses the contributions made to her account by the Association with the interest thereon if she resigns (except on account of ill-health) before completing five years' service or in the event of dismissal. On retirement after approved service the sum which has accumulated to the credit of the subscriber is handed over to her.

Free Passages—Officers of the Women's Medical Service are granted free return passages corresponding to those granted under the Lee Concessions to officers of all-India services. The maximum number of return passages granted during an officer's entire term of service must not exceed four, the first falling due after 4 years' service.

The Training Reserve of the Women's Medical Service—This Service has a sanctioned cadre of eight, and is open to women graduates in medicine of the Indian Universities. Salaries range from Rs 200 to Rs 300 per month, with furnished quarters or the equivalent in money, to those employed in India.

2 Two of the eight members of the reserve, but not more at any one time, may be deputed to Europe by the Executive Committee for post-graduate training, and shall receive a stipend at the rate of £ 200 a year each paid quarterly and return passage. Any member not so deputed shall be employed in India.

3 Ordinarily four years shall be spent in the reserve before a member is considered for appointment to the Women's Medical Service, but the Executive Committee shall have power to shorten this period in special cases. Service in the reserve shall be considered by the Executive Committee when appointments are being made to the Women's Medical Service, but shall not of itself constitute a claim to appointment.

VICTORIA MEMORIAL SCHOLARSHIPS.

The Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund was organised by Lady Curzon in 1903, in order to secure a certain amount of improvement in the practising class of India. A sum of about 6½ lakhs was obtained by public subscription, and centres were organised in each Province to carry out the objects of the Fund. Over 2,000 midwives have been trained in addition to large numbers who

have been partially trained. Of late years the Fund has done much to pave the way for the registration and supervision of indigenous dais. It has also done much propaganda work. The fund is now administered by the Maternity and Child Welfare Bureau of the Indian Red Cross Society.

fully trained nurses, both to meet their own demands and those of outside institutions and private agencies. In this way the supply of trained nurses, English, Anglo-Indian and Indian, is being steadily increased. In Bombay the organisation has gone a step farther, through the establishment of the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, c/o St George's Hospital, Bombay. This is composed of representatives of the various Nursing Associations in charge of individual hospitals, and works under the Government. The principle on which the relations of this Association with the Local Associations is governed is that there shall be central examination and control combined with complete individual autonomy in administration.

State Registration of Nurses for all India much required. A meeting was held in Bombay in 1923 when Nurses from the Presidency met to discuss the question. It is desired that India should have its own State Register as in the United Kingdom, South Africa, New Zealand, Australia, Canada and Burma, and that the curricula and examinations should be brought into line with these countries. Government has proposed to establish a Provincial Register preparatory to an All-India Register.

Nursing Bodies—The Secretary of the Calcutta Hospital Nurses' Institution is Mr. A. R. Nicholson, Allahabad Bank Buildings, Calcutta. The names and addresses of the other Nursing bodies in Calcutta are Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association (Bengal Branch), 4, Hungerford Street, Lady Rogers' Hostel for Indian Nurses, 144, Russa Road, South, Nurses' Academy, 6, Suburban Hospital Road; and Nurses' Bureau, 37, McLeod Street. In Madras there is the General Hospital, with a staff of 62 nurses, the Government Maternity Hospital, the Caste and Gosha Hospital at Kilpauk, the Royapetta Hospital and the Ophthalmic Hospital, also the Lady Amphill Nurses' Institute and the South Indian Nursing Association (now amalgamated). President, Her Excellency Lady Goschen. The Association has under its management—*The Lady Amphill Nurses' Institute*, Western Castle, Mount Road, Madras. Fully trained and experienced nurses for all cases of illness both among Europeans and Indians, always available. *The Lady Willingdon Nursing Home*, Western Castle, Mount Road, Madras, and *Nilgiri Nursing and Convalescent Home*, Ootacamund, for Medical, Surgical and Maternity cases. The Nilgiri Nursing Home affords admirable facilities for convalescents.

Bombay Presidency.—The Bombay Presidency was amongst the first in India to realise the value of nursing in connection with hospital work. The first steps were taken on the initiative of Mr. L. R. W. Forrest at St George's Hospital, Bombay, where a regular nursing cadre for the hospital was established together with a small staff of nurses for private cases. This was followed by a similar movement at the J. J. and Allied Hospitals and afterwards spread to other hospitals in the Presidency. Ultimately the Government laid down a definite principle with regard to the financial aid which they would give to such institutions, agreeing to contribute a sum equal to that

raised from private sources. Afterwards, as the work grew, it was decided by Government that each nursing association attached to a hospital should have a definite constitution and consequently these bodies have all been registered as Associations under Act 21 of 1860. By degrees substantial endowments have been built up, although the Associations are still largely dependent upon annual subscriptions towards the maintenance of their works. This Association was incorporated under the Societies' Registration Act of 1860, in the year 1911, with the primary object of establishing a nursing service from which the Nursing staff at Government aided hospitals under management of Nursing Association might be recruited. This function, however, was never carried out by the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, and under the present circumstances it appeared to the Committee improbable that it could be carried out, but up to now the auxiliary function of the examining and granting certificates to nurses and midwives, and maintaining a register of qualified nurses and midwives and also maintaining a Provident Fund for the employees of the affiliated associations have been successfully carried out from 1911 to 1933. Memorandum, Rules and By-laws of the Association were however revised brought into line with the actual working of the Association. Towards the end of 1927, the Committee decided that some steps must be taken to do so and accordingly appointed a sub-committee to consider the revision and amendment of the Memorandum, Rules and By-laws. The Sub-Committee reported that it appeared to be impossible to amend and revise the present rules piecemeal and that the only way to put things in order would be to draft an entirely fresh constitution and rules.

After fully considering the Sub-Committee's report the Committee agreed that the Association be incorporated by an Act on the line of the Registration Act in the United Kingdom. Pending the passing of the Act the new Memorandum of Association having received the approval of Government was brought into operation from 1st April 1929.

The following are affiliated Associations as well as Training Institutions —

St George's Hospital Nursing Association, Bombay, (for Nurses only), Hon Secretary R. W. Douglass, Esq.

Jamshetji Jibbhoy Hospital Nursing Association, Bombay, (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon Secretary Dr M. V. Mehta, O.B.E., F.R.C.P.

Cama & Aibless Hospitals Nursing Association, Bombay (for Nurses and Midwives) Nil. This is now purely Govt institution.

Sassoon Hospital Nursing Association, Poona (for Nurses and Midwives) Nil. This is now purely Govt institution.

Karachi Civil Hospital Nursing Association (for Nurses only), Hon Secretary: F. T. M. Day.

Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Nasik
(for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary
Civil Surgeon, Nasik

Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Ahmedabad (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary. Civil Surgeon, Ahmedabad.

Victory Nursing Association, Sholapur (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary
Civil Surgeon, Sholapur

Infant Welfare Society's (Bombay); Wadi Bunder Maternity Home, Worli Maternity Home and DeLisle Road Maternity Home (For Midwives only)

Hindu Nirashrit Fund Maternity Home, Surat (For Midwives only)

Brahman Sabha Mhasakar Maternity Hospital, Bombay. (For Midwives only).

Sheth Vadfilal Sarabhai General Hospital and Chunai Maternity Home, Ahmedabad (For Nurses and Midwives)

Dhanrajgiri Hospital, Sholapur. (For Nurses and Midwives)

Nawanagar State Hospitals Irwin Hospital, Victoria Hospital and Ba Shri Sajuba Female Hospital (For Midwives and Nurses)

Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital, Parel, Bombay (For Junior Examination only)

The following are only affiliated Associations but not Training Institutions —

First Khandesh District Nursing Association, Hony Secretary Civil Surgeon, Jalgaon

Goculdas Tejpal Hospital Nursing Association, Hony Secretary, R W Bullock

Bijapur Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Bijapur

Byramji Jijibhoy Nursing Association, Matheran

Dharwar Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Hony. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Dharwar

Kanara Nursing Association, Karwar, Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Karwar.

Panch Mahals Nursing Association, Godhra, Hony Secretary Civil Surgeon, Godhra

Prince of Wales Nursing Association, Aden, Hony Secretary I Taylor, Esq.

Louise Lawrence Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Sukkur, Sind

The following are recognised Training Institutions —

V J Hospital, Ahmedabad (for Midwives)
State General Hospital, Baroda (for Nurses and Midwives)

Civil Hospital, Belgaum (for Nurses and Midwives)

King Edward VII Memorial Hospital, Parel, Bombay (for Nurses only).

Bai Yamunabai L Nair Charitable Hospital, Lamington Road, Bombay (for Nurses only)

Bomanji Dinsshaw Petit Parsi General Hospital, Cumballa Hill, Bombay (for Nurses only)

Lady Dufferin and Louise Lawrence Institute, Karachi (for Nurses and Midwives)

Norabhai Vrajabhikandas Hospital, Surat (for Midwives)

American Presbyterian Mission Hospital, Miraj (for Nurses only)

St Luke's Hospital, Vengurla (for Nurses and Midwives)

Parsi Lying-in Hospital, Bombay (for Midwives only)

St. Margaret's Hospital, Poona (for Nurses and Midwives only)

King Edward Memorial Hospital, Poona (for Midwives only)

Nowrosji Wadia Maternity Hospital, Parel, Bombay (for Midwives only)

Zenana Mission Hospital, Broach (for Midwives only)

Lady Dufferin Hospital, Sholapur (for Midwives only)

Canada Hospital, Nasik (for Nurses and Midwives)

Municipal Maternity Homes, Bombay — Bellasis Road (Byculla).

Imamwada (Mazgaon).

Cadell Road (Worli)

Victoria Cross Road (Byculla).

Khetwadi (Gurgaon).

Provision for retiring allowances is made for all members on the basis of a Provident Fund.

Address — The Registrar, Bombay Nursing Council, Old Custom House, Fort, Bombay

Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association — In 1906 this Association was inaugurated, replacing the Punjab and Up-country Nursing Association for Europeans in India, which society, established in 1892, had accomplished much useful work in this country. Owing, however, to lack of funds it was found impossible to continue its administration and to carry out

the expansion of the work so urgently called for. The name of the helpers identified with the premier Association to whom the public must ever be indebted are the Hon. Lady Lytton, Lady Helen Munro Ferguson and Mrs. Cottrill, while Mrs. Shepherd, by her indefatigable efforts, is truly entitled to be regarded as the pioneer of a trained nursing system throughout the greater part of India. The late Lady Curzon worked energetically to provide an enlarged Nursing organisation, but mainly owing to financial reasons, she was unable before she left India to bring the scheme to fruition. The Home Committee of the existing Association, recognising the need for expansion, consented to take over the present Association and approached Lady Minto before she left England in 1905 for co-operation towards this project, and after much consideration and discussion with the Government of India, Lieut.-Governors and Commissioners of Provinces, the present Association was established. An appeal by Lady Minto addressed to the public both in England and India, was responded to most generously, and sufficient funds were collected to form an endowment fund, which has in spite of fluctuations increased a little with time. The assistance of a Government grant is much valued, as it enables Homes for the Sisters to be kept up in six Provinces in India and in Burma. At the request of the Home Committee the enlarged Association was renamed the "Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association."

The duties of the Home Committee are, as before, largely concerned in dispatching—as required—suitably trained and carefully selected Nurses for service on the staff of the Association in India. Thus, Europeans who are members of this Association are enabled to obtain skilled nursing at moderate charges on a sliding scale of fees determined by the income of each patient. The boon of obtaining good nursing at moderate terms is much appreciated, the rates of subscriptions being really an insurance against illness.

Her Majesty the Queen is a Patron of the Association. Her Excellency The Countess of Willingdon is President of the Central Committee in India.

Hon. Secretary Malov F. J. Collins, R A M C
Chief Lady Superintendent. Miss G. Beckett. Address—Central Committee, L M I N A, Viceregal Lodge, Simla, and Red Cross Building, New Delhi.

Secretary, Home Committee Miss M. E. Ray, R R C, 10, Witherly Mansions, Earls Court Sq.

Nurses' Organizations—The Association of Nursing Superintendents of India is now amalgamated with the Trained Nurses' Association of India, and has the one set of officers. The Trained Nurses' Association of India and the Association of Nursing Superintendents of India are not Associations to

employ or to supply nurses, but are organizations with a membership wholly of nurses with the avowed objects of improving and unifying nursing education, promoting *esprit de corps* among nurses, and upholding the dignity and honour of the nursing profession. The Associations have a membership of 472, including nurses trained in ten or more different countries, Europeans, Americans, New Zealanders, Australians and Indians. The Association of Superintendents was started in 1905 as the Association of Nursing Superintendents of the United Provinces and the Punjab, but by the next year its membership had spread over the country to such an extent that the name was changed to include the whole of India. The Trained Nurses' Association was started in 1908, and a monthly Journal of Nursing began to be published by the two Associations in February, 1910. The Associations are affiliated with the International Council of Nurses.

The Trained Nurses' Association of India—was founded and incorporated with the Association of Nursing Superintendents in 1908. Its objects are (a) to uphold in every way the dignity and honour of the Nursing profession, (b) to promote a sense of *esprit de corps* among all nurses, (c) to enable members to take counsel together on matters affecting their profession, (d) to elevate nursing education by obtaining a better class of candidates, (e) to raise the standard of training, (f) to strive to bring about a more uniform system of education, examination and certification for trained nurses, both Indian and European, and (g) to arrange reciprocity between different provinces, States and other countries. Nurses eligible for membership are those holding a certificate of not less than three years' general training in a recognised training school. The Trained Nurses' Association of India is affiliated with the International Council of Nurses and its affiliated Associations are the Health Visitors' League and the Midwives' Union. The official organ of the Association is called "The Nursing Journal of India." The Association has 800 members and 304 student nurses.

Patrons H. E. The Countess of Willingdon, Simla, H. E. Lady Brabourne, Bombay and H. E. Lady Marjorie Bishnie, Madras.

President Miss M. E. Abram, S R N
Matron-Superintendent, Presidency General Hospital, Calcutta.

Vice-Presidents Miss D. Chadwick, S R N, S C M, Matron-Superintendent, Government Hospital for Women and Children, Egmore, Madras, Miss A. Wilkinson, S R N, S C M, Matron, St. Stephen's Hospital, Delli.

Secretary Miss Diana Hartley, S R N, S C M, 1, Madhavakham Tank Road, Kilpauk, Madras.

THE WOMAN SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT.

Hon. Secretary and Treasurer Miss Gadsden,
General Hospital, Madras.

Within the abnormally short period of eleven years the Woman Suffrage movement has risen in India, swept through the country sympathetically and achieved the political enfranchisement of women in all the nine British Provinces and in four Indian States.

Three fundamental causes have led to this remarkable success. First, the deep veneration that is given by the Hindu and Muhammadan religions to the feminine aspect of life equally with the masculine as shown by the importance of goddesses, by the necessity for the presence of the wife at all ceremonies performed by a Brahman, by the idea of the sacred mystery of womanhood implied by the purdah, and by the general veneration of motherhood. Secondly, the time was psychological, for a new era was beginning for the Indian people by the introduction of a Scheme of Reforms in Indian government which was planned to give a basis of representative government on a much extended scale. The door was being opened to complete Self-government but only men were being invited to enter through it, although women compose half the people of the country and it had been by the joint efforts of men and women that the agitation for reform in the government had been made. The men and women of India were too awakened and too just to allow this injustice to remain unredressed.

Thirdly, the long and strenuous agitation for the vote by women in Britain and America and their recent victories had brought vividly to the consciousness of all educated Indian men and women the whole question of the inclusion of women in public life, and it was also a national and international necessity that Indian women should be given as high a status as women in other parts of the Empire.

Though the Municipal franchise had been granted to the women of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies over fifteen years ago it was so limited in numbers that it did not make a large impact on women's consciousness and indeed no protest was made when it was suddenly withdrawn from Madras women some years later. Over 1,700 women are qualified to vote for the Bombay Corporation and a fair percentage of these have polled at each election, and similarly in other Municipalities in that Presidency women have exercised their vote responsibly and intelligently. Since 1922 over 100 women have become Municipal Councillors and members of Local Government Boards. Their appointment has chiefly been by nomination but there have been notable seats won by election in open contest with men, such as the election of all the four women who first entered the contest for seat in Bombay Corporation, also the instance in which the single woman contestant in the Municipal elections in Lucknow secured the largest poll of any of the candidates. Many important local reforms have been secured by this large band of women Councillors, and every year sees a greater number of women serving on these local Councils and Boards.

It was owing to the rise of the political agitation for Home Rule between 1914 and 1917 that women began to wake up to their position of exclusion by British law from any share in representative government. The intervention of one of their own sex, Dr. Besant, stimulated political activity and political self-consciousness amongst women to a very great extent. The moment for the ripe public expression of their feelings came when the Secretary of State for India came to India to investigate and study Indian affairs at first hand in 1917.

During the Hon E. S. Montagu's visit only one Women's Deputation waited on him but it was representative of womanhood in all parts of India, and it brought to his notice the various reforms which women were specially desirous of recommending the Government to carry out.

The first claim for women suffrage for Indian women was made in the address presented to Mr. Montagu at this historic All-India Women's Deputation which waited upon him in Madras on the 18th December 1917. The section referring to enfranchisement merits full quotation:

"Our interests, as one half of the people, are directly affected by the demand in the united (Hindu-Muslim Reform) scheme (1. 3) that 'the Members of the Council should be elected directly by the people on as broad a franchise as possible,' and in the Memorandum (3) that 'the franchise should be broadened and extended directly to the people.' We pray that, when such a franchise is being drawn up, women may be recognized as 'people,' and that it may be worded in such terms as will not disqualify our sex, but allow our women the same opportunities of representation as our men. In agreeing with the demand of the abovementioned Memorandum that 'a full measure of Local Self-Government should be immediately granted, we request that it shall include the representation of our women, a policy that has been admittedly successful for the past twenty years in Local Self-Government elsewhere in the British Empire. The precedent for including women in modern Indian political life has been a marked feature of the Indian National Congress, in which since its inception women have voted and been delegates and speakers, and which this year finds its climax in the election of a woman as its President. Thus the voice of India approves of its women being considered responsible and acknowledged citizens, and we urgently claim that, in the drawing up of all provisions regarding representation, our sex shall not be made a disqualification for the exercise of the franchise or for service in public life."

The year 1918 was devoted to converting the Government forces to the justice and expediency of Indian Woman Suffrage, but this proved a more difficult matter. It was a disappointment first that though the Secretary of State had given a sympathetic reply to the All-India Women's Deputation, yet when the Scheme of Reforms, drawn up by him and Lord Chelmsford as the outcome of his visit to India was published no mention of women was made

though the widening of the electorate was one of the reforms suggested. When the Southborough Franchise Committee was formed to investigate the suggestions regarding the franchise in this Scheme, the women suffragists took every means to bring to the notice of the Committee all the evidence which showed the need for, and the country's support of the inclusion of women in the new franchise.

After the introduction of the Government of India Bill into Parliament in July 1919, a number of Indian deputations proceeded to London to give evidence before the Joint Select Committee of Members of both Houses of Parliament which had been appointed to place the Reforms on a workable basis. Mrs Annie Besant, Mrs Sarojini Naidu and Mrs. and Miss Herabai Tata were the women who were heard by the Committee in support of the extension of the franchise to women in India.

The House of Commons decided that the question was one for Indians to answer for themselves and while retaining the sex disqualification in the Reform Bill they framed the Electoral Rules in such terms that if any Provincial Legislative Council should approve by a resolution in favour of women's franchise, women should be put on the electoral register of that Province. This was the only provision regarding franchise matters which might be changed before a 10 years' time limit. Until after that period women were ineligible for election as Legislative Councillors.

Travancore, a very progressive Indian State, was the first to grant the Legislative vote to women at the close of 1920, and it was promptly followed by the Indian State of Jhalawar. In the first session of the Legislative Councils in 1921 it is gratifying to record that a motion was tabled by Dewan Bahadur Krishnan Nair of Malabar that he would bring forward a Resolution in the Madras Legislative Council to remove the disqualification of sex existing in regard to the Legislative Council franchise. During the month that must legally intervene between the tabling of a Woman Suffrage motion and its introduction for Debate the Madras women under the leadership of the Women's Indian Association carried on all forms of public propaganda and canvassed the important members of the Council. The Debate took place on April 1st and after a short discussion, in which it was evident that opposition came only from the Muhammadan members, the debate itself became one an accumulation of appreciation of womanhood and an expression of faith in its future. When the division was taken, it resulted in the resolution being carried by a majority of 84. Madras has thus the honour of being the first Province in British India to enfranchise its women, and it has done this ungrudgingly and unhesitatingly in the broad spirit of the equality of the sexes, as it grants the vote to women on the same terms as it has been granted to men. Dr (Mrs) Minthulakshmi Reddi, the first woman member of the British Indian Legislature, has been able to introduce legislation to do away with the Devadasi service in the Hindu temples and the immoral traffic in women and children. She has also devoted her attention to the development of the education of girls and to the promotion of the health of mothers and children.

Mr Trivedi brought forward a Woman Suffrage Resolution in the Bombay Legislative Council during the same session, but some irregularity in its wording caused it to be pronounced out of order. In June that subject was tabled again and championed by Rao Sahel, Harilal Desai and Desai of Ahmedabad, Deputy President of the Council. As in Madras, the intervening month was filled with suffrage activity by the women of the Presidency and was remarkable for a large joint meeting of Bombay city women at which 19 Women's Societies took part, and for a suffrage meeting of Marathi and Gujarati women in Poona when over 800 women showed the greatest enthusiasm for the movement.

The Bombay Council Debate on Woman Suffrage took three days and the subject was very fully discussed by over 40 members. The result was satisfactory to the suffragists, the voting being 52 in favour, 25 against and 12 neutral. Thus Madras and Bombay Presidencies gave the lead to the other Provinces. In September, 1922, Mr S M Bose, in the Bengal Council, moved a Woman Suffrage Resolution, which was debated for three days but finally defeated by 56 to 37 votes, a bloc of 40 Muhammadan members voting solidly against it. In September 1925 the Bengal Council passed the Suffrage Resolution by a vote of 54 to 38.

Mr Devaki Prasad Sinha's similar Resolution in the Behar and Orissa Legislative Council was defeated by only a 10 votes' majority.

These Debates proved so educational to their respective Provinces that the Bengal and Behar Provinces have since granted qualified women the Municipal Vote.

In February, 1923, a world suffrage record was made by the unanimous vote of the United Provinces Legislative Council in favour of Woman Suffrage.

In 1926 the Punjab granted woman suffrage without a division, and in 1926 the Central Provinces.

The new Reform Bill for Burma has included the grant of woman suffrage to the qualified Burmese women, and further made provision for their election as Councillors if the Council passes a Resolution desiring their admission and if that Resolution is approved of by the Governor.

In April, 1922, the Mysore Legislative Council unanimously passed the Woman Suffrage Resolution. The vote for the Representative Assembly of Mysore was granted to women in October, 1922. The vote for Mysore Legislative Franchise was granted to the Mysore women by H H The Maharaja and His Privy Council in June 1923. In October, 1924, Assam Provincial Council granted Woman Suffrage for its Province by 26 to 8. It also has been the first Province to pass a Resolution in favour of allowing women to enter the Council as members.

In 1929 soon after the All-India Women's Educational Reform was held in Patna, the Legislative Council of Behar and Orissa gave women the right of voting, election and nomination to the Council on the same terms as men. Thus the whole of British India has now

given to women equal political rights with men. The result has already demonstrated itself in the remarkable advancement of all the interests of women along the lines of education, health, housing, morality and social customs.

The Indian Native States of Travancore, Cochin and Rajkot are the only places in India where the set disqualification has been completely removed from the statute book. These have allowed women the right to stand for election for the Legislative Council as well as the right to vote for it, and two women have been elected to the newly formed Representative Council of Rajkot. The year 1925 has been noteworthy for the appointment of the first woman Minister to Government. Mrs. Poomen Lakhose became a member of the Travancore Legislative Council on taking the position of State Darbar Physician. She acted as Minister for Health to the State for three years. Cochin State nominated Mrs. Madhavi Amma as a member of its first Legislative Council.

In British India by the terms of the Reform Bill the Councils had no power to alter the disqualification of sex which remains against the right to stand as candidates for election to the Councils. This could only be changed by the vote of the British Parliament, and the gaining of this right remained as a further objective of the women suffragists. Many large, influential meetings were held claiming the right of women to entry of the Legislatures. A deputation of women about this subject waited on the Madras Governor and their claims were supported by him and by his Government. The Imperial Legislative Assembly and the Council of State had been accorded the power to grant women the franchise for their assemblies also by resolution, but only for those provinces which had already granted women the Legislative franchise. The Legislative Assembly has passed by a large majority a Resolution granting the Assembly franchise to the women of such Provinces. Accordingly in November 1923, women in India voted for the first time for the elections of both Provincial Legislative Councils and members of the Legislative Assembly. The number of women who voted in the large cities was surprisingly large in Bombay and Madras Presidencies and comprised women of all castes and communities.

In April, 1926, as a result of a favourable recommendation of the Muddiman Committee on Franchise Reforms, the Rule was changed in the Reform Bill which disqualified women from entering the Legislatures. Power was granted to the Councils and the Assembly to pass Resolutions allowing qualified women to be elected or nominated as members of these bodies. Arun Madras Council, on the 17th July, was the first to pass a Resolution admitting women to its membership. Bombay and the Punjab followed it lead in August and October respectively. This enabled women to become members of the Councils which have been functioning since then. But the permission

came too late for women to stand for election with any great chance of success, so the Women's Indian Association asked that women be nominated by Government for the new Councils in those Provinces which had voted to admit them, and that women also be nominated to the Assembly and the Council of State. Thus the year 1926 marked another milestone, passed on the road to the complete political emancipation of Indian womanhood.

In 1926 the Central Provinces, the Punjab and Bengal, all granted the franchise to women. The year 1927 was notable for the nomination of the first woman member to a Legislative Council in British India, the recipient of the honour being Dr. MUTHULAKSHMI AMMAL, and she was further honoured by being elected unanimously by her colleagues in the Madras Legislative Council, to the Office of DEPUTY PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL. Since then Mrs. Kale has been nominated to the Legislative Council of the Central Provinces, and Mrs. Ahmed Shaw to that of the United Provinces. A Deputation from the All-India Women's Conference in Delhi in 1928 waited on the Viceroy requesting him to nominate two women to the Legislative Assembly. That has still remained ungranted.

The number of women enfranchised by the grant of the vote throughout India will not be more than a million under the present qualifications. Property and not literacy is the basis of the franchise, though the grant of the vote to every graduate of seven years' standing ensures that the best educated women of the country as well as those who have to shoulder the largest property responsibilities will be those who rightly will be the legislating influence on behalf of womanhood. As regards the custom of purdah prevailing in parts of India special provisions have been made in Municipal voting for purdah recording stations for purdah women in which a woman is returning officer and this has been found quite satisfactory and has been adopted also where desired in connection with Legislative Council elections.

Though the Women's Indian Association was the only Indian women's society which had woman suffrage as one of its specific objects, almost all other women's organisations have combined in special efforts for the gaining of municipal and legislative rights and the following ladies have identified themselves specially with the movement: Lady D. Tata, Lady A. Bose, Lady T. Sadashivkar, the Begum of Cambay, Mrs. Ramabai Kanade, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Mrs. Jaiji Jehangir Petit, Mrs. Tata, Mrs. Wadia, Mrs. Jinanajadasa, Dr. A. Besant, Mrs. M. E. Cousins, Mrs. Srirangamma, Mrs. Chandrasekhara Iyer, Miss S. Sorabji, Mrs. Khedkar, Dr. Mistry, Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammal, Mrs. Palmer, Mrs. Saraladevi Choudhuri, Mrs. Kumudini Basu, Mrs. K. N. Roy, Lady Shafi, Mrs. Hassan Imam, Miss S. B. Das, Mrs. P. K. Sen, Mrs. Rustomi Faridooni, Mrs. B. Rama Rao, Mrs. Deep Narain Singh, Mrs. Raschid, Mrs. van Gildemeester, etc.

The School of Oriental Studies.

This School was established by Royal Charter in June 1916. The purposes of the School (as set out in the Charter) are to be a School of Oriental Studies in the University of London to give instruction in the Languages of Eastern and African peoples, Ancient and Modern, and in the Literature, History, Religion, Law, Customs and Art of those peoples, especially with a view to the needs of persons about to proceed to the East or to Africa for the pursuit of study and research, commerce or a profession, and to do all or any of such other things as the Governing Body of the School consider conducive or incidental thereto, having regard to the provision for those purposes which already exists elsewhere and in particular to the co-ordination of the work of the School with that of similar institutions both in Great Britain and in its Eastern and African Dominions and with the work of the University of London and its other Schools.

The School possesses noble and interesting buildings, in Finsbury Circus, provided by the British Government under the London Institution (Transfer) Act of 1912. The sum of £25,000 required for the alteration and extension of the buildings of the London Institution for the purposes of the School was voted by Parliament. The School buildings are quiet, although they are in the heart of the City. The School

provides teaching in more than seventy subjects. In a considerable proportion of the spoken languages instruction is given by teachers belonging to the countries where the languages are spoken, as it is the aim of the School to provide as far as possible both European and Oriental Lecturers in the principal languages included in the curriculum.

Courses on the History, Religions, and Customs of Oriental and African countries form a special feature in the teaching of the School. There is a whole time Professor in Phonetics, the classes for which are numerically larger than in any other subject. It is intended to record fully in phonetic symbols all the languages taught at the School.

Owing to the generosity of the Rockefeller Foundation a new sub-department under Professor Lloyd James has been opened for the teaching of and research into African Linguistics.

Courses are also provided in Indian Law and the History of India, and arrangements are made from time to time for special courses of lectures to be given by distinguished orientalists not on the staff.

Patron, H. M. the King, Chairman of the Governing Body, Sir Harcourt Butler, GCSI, Director, Professor Sir E. Denison Ross, CIP, D Litt Ph D. Secretary, G W Rossetti, M A.

Teaching Staff.

<i>Name.</i>	<i>Subjects.</i>	<i>Status.</i>
Ethel O Ashton	Swahili	Lecturer.
3. H. W. Bailey, D Phil M A .. .	Iranian Studies	"
2. T. Grahame Bailey, M A, B D, D Litt.	Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi) ..	Reader.
G. P. Bargery	Hausa	Lecturer.
3. L. D. Barnett, M A, D. Litt	Indian History and Sanskrit ..	"
2. C. O. Blagden, M A, D. Litt	Malay	Reader.
R. T. Bntlin, B.A.	Phonetics	Lectnrer.
K. de B. Codrington, M A. .. .	Indian Arts and Crafts	Hon. Lecturer.
3. G. H. Darab Khan, M A. .. .	Persian	Lecturer.
3. C. G. Davies, Ph.D.	Indian History	Lecturer.
5. H. H. Dodwell, M A	History	Professor.
2. E. Dora Edwards, M A., D. Litt ..	Chinese	Reader.
3. D. E. Evans, B A	Hindustani	Lecturer.
3. J. R. Firth, M A.	Linguistics	"
3. S. G. Vesey FitzGerald, M A. ..	Indian Law	"
1. H. A. R. Gibb, M A.	Arabic	Professor.
Shaykh M. M. Gomas, B A .. .	Arabic	Lecturer.
Bertrice Honikman, M A	African Phonetics & Linguistics	Assistant Lectur. r
Commander N. E. Isemonger, R N. (retired)	Japanese	Lecturer.
9. A. Lloyd James, M A.	Phonetics	Professor.
4. Sir Reginald Johnston, K C V G, C B E, M A, LL D	Chinese	"
S. G. Kanhere	Marathi and Gujarati	Lecturer.
G. E. Leeson	Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi) ..	"
H. J. Melzian, Ph D	African Phonetics and Linguistics	"

TEACHING STAFF—(contd.)

Name.	Subjects.	Status.
2. V. Minorsky	Persian Literature & History	Reader.
2. W. Sutton Page, O.B.E., B.A., B.D. .	Bengali	"
C. S. K. Pathy, M.A., D-es-L.	Tamil and Telugu ..	Lecturer.
M. D. Ratnasuriya, Ph.D. .	Sinhalese	"
3. F. J. Richards, M.A. .. .	Indian Archaeology .	Hon. Lecturer
Ali Riza Bey	Turkish	Lecturer.
7. Sir E. Denison Ross, C.I.E., D. Litt., Ph.D. .	Persian	Professor.
3. C. A. Rylands, B.A.	Sanskrit	Lecturer.
3. W. Stede, Ph.D. .. .	Pali and Sanskrit ..	"
J. A. Stewart, M.C., C.I.E., D.Litt., M.A., F.C.S. .	Burmese	"
S. Topalian	Armenian and Turkish ..	"
2. A. S. Tritton, D. Litt. .. .	Arabic	Reader.
A. N. Tucker, M.A., Ph.D. .	African Phonetics and Linguistics	Lecturer.
8. R. L. Turner, M.C., M.A., D. Litt. ..	Sanskrit	Professor
3. Ida C. Ward, D. Litt.	African Phonetics and Linguistics	Lecturer.
6. I. Wartski, B.A.	Modern Hebrew	"
S. Yoshitake	Japanese and Mongolian ..	"
Kadry Zafir, M.A.	Arabic	"

1. University Professor of Arabic and Appointed Teacher
2. University Reader and Appointed Teacher.
3. Recognised Teacher in the University of London
4. University Professor of Chinese and Appointed Teacher
5. University Professor of the History and Culture of British Dominions in Asia, with special reference to India and Appointed Teacher.
6. Ahad Ha'am Lectureship in Modern Hebrew
7. University Professor of Persian and Appointed Teacher (Director).
8. University Professor of Sanskrit and Appointed Teacher.
9. University Professor of Phonetics and Appointed Teacher.

PROVING OF WILLS.

In British India if a person has been appointed executor of the will of a deceased person, it is always advisable to prove the will as early as possible. If the will is in a vernacular it has to be officially translated into English. A petition is then prepared praying for the grant of probate of the will. All the property left by the deceased has to be disclosed in a schedule to be annexed to the petition. The values of immovable properties are usually assessed at 16½ years purchase on the nett Municipal assessment. For estate under Rs 1,000 no probate duty is payable; up to Rs 9,000 in excess of first Rs. 1,000 the duty is at 2%, between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 50,000 the duty payable is at 3% and between Rs. 50,000 and 1,00,000 the duty payable is at 4% and over Rs 1,00,000 the duty payable is @ 5%. In determining the amount of the value of the estate for the purposes of probate duty the following items are allowed to be deducted.

1. Debts left by the deceased including mortgage encumbrances.

2. The amount of funeral expenses

3. Property held by the deceased in trust and not beneficially or with general power to confer a beneficial interest.

The particulars of all these items have to be stated in a separate schedule. It is the practice of the High Court to send a copy of these schedules to the Revenue authorities and if the properties particularly immovable properties have not been properly valued, the Revenue department require the petition to be amended accordingly. In certain cases the Court then requires citations to be published and served on such persons as the Court thinks are interested in the question of the grant of probate. If no objection is lodged by any person so interested within 14 days after the publication or service of citation and if the will is shown to have been properly executed and the petitioner entitled to probate, probate is ordered to be granted.

The Fisheries of India.

The fisheries of India, potentially rich, as yet yield a mere fraction of what they could were they exploited in a fashion comparable with those of Europe, North America or Japan. The fishing industry, particularly the marine section, has certainly expanded considerably within the last 50 years concurrently with improvement in the methods of transport and increase in demand for fish, cured as well as fresh, from the growing population of the great cities within reach of the seaboard. The caste system, however, exerts a blighting influence on progress. Fishing and fish trade are universally relegated to low caste men who alike from their want of education, the isolation caused by their work and caste and their extreme conservatism, are among the most ignorant, suspicious and prejudiced of the population, extremely averse to amending the methods of their forefathers and almost universally without the financial resources requisite to the adoption of new methods, even when convinced of their value. Higher caste capitalists have hitherto fought shy of associating with the low caste fishermen, and except in large operations on new lines, these capitalists cannot be counted upon to assist in the development of Indian fisheries. As in Japan, it

appears that the general conditions of the industry are such that the initiative must necessarily be taken by Government in the uplift and education of the fishing community and in the introduction and testing of new and improved apparatus and methods.

The first local Government to lead the way was that of Madras, which in 1903 initiated an investigation of the industry, both marine and fresh-water, appointing Sir F. A. Nicholson to supervise operations. Bengal followed suit in 1906, and from these beginnings have sprung the local Fisheries Departments of Madras, Bengal, and Bihar and Orissa. Bombay, the remaining seaboard province, has comparatively small fresh-water interests compared with Madras and Bengal and as it happens that her marine fisheries are favoured with good harbours and the most enterprising race of fishermen in India, there was less urgent need for State help in the industry. Fisheries there were a subject of Government solicitude for five years after the war but they finally ceased to receive any attention after the abolition in 1924 of the short lived Department of Industries to which this subject was allotted.

Madras.

The Madras coast line of 1,750 miles is margined by a shallow-water area within the 100 fathom line of 40,000 square miles outside of the mere fringe inshore, this vast expanse of fishable water lies idle and unproductive. The surf-swept East coast is singularly deficient in harbours whereon fishing fleets can be based, and so from Ganjam to Negapatam, the unsinkable catamaran, composed of logs tied side by side is the only possible easy-going fishing craft. Its limitations circumscribe the fishing power of its owners and consequently these men are poor and the produce of their best efforts meagre compared with what it would be if better and larger boats were available and possible. The West coast is more favoured. From September till April weather conditions are good enough to permit even dugout canoes to fish daily. No difficulty is found in beaching canoes and boats throughout this season. The fishing population is a large one. In the census taken by the Department of Fisheries in 1927-28, the fisher-population on the West coast totalled 114,502. The esteemed table fish of the coast consist of the Seer (*Cybus* or *Scomberomorus*), Pomfret (*Apolectus* and *Stromateus*) several large species of Horse Mackerel (*Caranx*) Jew fish (*Sciaenidae*), Whiting (*Sillago*) Thread-fins (*Polynemus*), Sardines (*Clupea*) and Mackerel (*Scomber*). In economic importance, however, shoring fish and fish of inferior quality such as Sardine (*Clupea*) Mackerel (*Scomber*), Cat fish (*Arius*), Ribbon

fish (*Trichurus*), Goggles (*Caranx crumenophthalmus*) and Silver bellies (*Equula* and *Cazza*) take precedence of the former. Sardine and Mackerel over-shadow all others. So greatly in excess of food requirements are the catches of sardines, that every year large quantities are turned into oil and manure. Fishing outside the 5 fathom line is little in evidence save by Bombay boats (Ratnagiri) which are engaged in drift netting for bonito, seer and other medium-sized fishes. These strangers are enterprising fishers and bring large catches into Malpe and Mangalore and other convenient centres. The material is largely cured for export.

The Madras Department of Fisheries.—As Government attention has been given in Madras over a longer period to the improvement of fisheries, and a larger staff concentrated upon the problems involved than elsewhere this Presidency has now the proud position of knowing that her fisheries and collateral industries are better organised and more progressive than those in other provinces. The credit for the wonderful success which has been achieved and the still greater promise of the future, is due in large measure to the wise and cautious plans of Sir F. A. Nicholson, who from 1905 to 1918 had the guidance of affairs entrusted to him. In 1905 he was appointed on special duty to investigate existing conditions and future potentialities. In 1907, a permanent status was given by the creation of a fisheries bureau

and this in turn has developed into a separate Department of Government which till August 1923 was being administered by Mr James Hornell, F.L.S., as Director and, is now controlled by his successor Dr B Sundara Raj, M.A., Ph.D. The activities of the Department have greatly expanded since its inception. A Committee constituted by Government to enquire into the working of the Department and make recommendations for its future development have just published their report in two volumes. The Evidence collected by the Committee is an octavo volume of 431 pages and the Report of the Committee is another similar volume of 264 pages. The Report is a remarkable production which summarises the aims and achievements of the Department during the last quarter of a century and contains detailed proposals for the expansion of the Department activities in different directions. The whole work of the Department has received a great impetus as a result of the report of this Committee. The Committee have emphasised the true purpose and aim of a technical Department of Fisheries to be essentially the material amelioration of the lot of the sea-going fishermen. The activities of the past 25 years were largely concerned with curing and canning, manufacture of oil and guano and life-guarding of Government revenue. Remarkably successful as they were under the guidance of Sir Frederick Nicholson, they seemed somewhat to obscure what should be the primary object and policy of the Department. Technological improvements in curing and canning and allied industries should follow ultimately in the wake of improved catches. Socio-economic and humanitarian endeavours however necessary and important, in view of the caste system of India, could not directly add one fish to the actual catch of the fisherman. The Committee have therefore urged that efforts to improve the professional knowledge of the sea-going fishermen and the catching powers of his craft and tackle which were inaugurated with the inauguration of the trawler in 1920 must now occupy the first place of the departmental programme. The higher staff now consists of five Assistant Directors and an Assistant Biologist. These are respectively in charge of (1) the shrimp and beeche-de-mer fisheries; (2) the co-operative and educational work and the West coast fish curing yards; (3) inland pisciculture; (4) deep sea fishing; (5) propaganda for rural pisciculture, and (6) biological investigations and fishery research. Certain other officers have charge respectively of sections dealing with technological research, trout fisheries and the fisheries of the Northern Circars. A special staff of officers trained in co-operation have been appointed for intensive work among fishermen. The miscellaneous sections controlled by the Department consist of a small demonstration cannery, a research station for curing, canning and allied industries and a Fisheries Training Institute at Chittur for imparting special training to fishermen selected to teach in schools for fishermen of which there were 43 with a total of 1,007 pupils in 1924. All the public fish curing yards were under the control of the Salt and Alkali Department till 1924 have passed into the charge of the Fisheries Department.

It is now possible to introduce the better methods of cure and improved hygiene which the Department has been striving to popularise, in all the yards. Due to the transfer of the yards, the Fisheries Department has a large ramified staff of yard officers (Salt Sub-Inspectors, Petty Yard Officers and Peons) in almost every large fishing village on the coast. Besides the direct work of issuing salt for curing, the Department sets itself to train these officers into expert advisers in curing methods and marketing fish, social workers for the inculcation of thrift, co-operative and progressive ideas and new industries and lastly as trained observers for recording and reporting on various biological questions connected with fish and fisheries and collecting statistics regarding the value and quantity of sea fish caught and landed. Statistics have been published since 1925-26 regularly every year in the bulletins.

The activities of the Department are so varied and far-reaching that it is difficult even to enumerate them in the space available, much less to give details. So far its most notable industrial successes have been the reform of manufacturing processes in the fish-oil trade, the creation of a fish guano industry and the opening of an oyster farm conducted under hygienic conditions. Twenty-four volumes have been issued to date and the twenty-fifth volume in Press. All this work has been carried on under serious handicap for want of adequate staff and equipment.

The educational work of the Department is becoming one of its most important branches whether it be specially training teachers for schools in fishing villages or training men in the technology of curing, canning and oil manufacture, in co-operative propaganda and in the supply of zoological specimens for the use of college classes and museums. The last named has filled a long-felt want and is contributing materially to the advancement of the study of Zoology throughout India. There is now no need to obtain specimens from Europe as they can be had from the Research Assistant, Fisheries Station, Ennur, Madras, at moderate prices.

Fish Curing.—Fish curing is practised extensively everywhere on the Madras coasts. Its present success is due primarily to Dr Francis Day who after an investigation during 1869-71 of the fisheries of the whole of India, pressed for the grant to fishermen of duty-free salt for curing purposes within fenced enclosures. He advocated much else, but the time was not ripe and the salt concession was the sole tangible result of his long and honourable efforts. His salt suggestions were accepted by the Madras Government, and from 1882 a gradually increasing number of yards or bonded enclosures were opened at which salt is issued free of duty and often at rates below the local cost of the salt to Government. At present about 115 of such yards are scattered along the coast and over 55,000 tons of wet fish are annually cured therein. The total receipts on the administration of these yards for the year 1920-31 was Rs 1,97,777-0-4 and expenditure Rs 2,85,013-12-4.

Pearl and Chank Fisheries—In the absence of the pearl fishery during the year, the chank fisheries prospered. An unprecedented number of 467,628 chanks were fished yielding a gross revenue of Rs. 17,860-8-8.

The Inland Fisheries.—The Inland Fisheries of Madras compare unfavourably with those of Bengal. Many of the rivers dry up in the hot season and few of the many thousands of irrigation tanks throughout the province hold water for more than 6 to 9 months. As a consequence, inland fisheries are badly organised and few men devote themselves to fishing as their sole or even main occupation. The custom is to neglect or ignore the fishery value of these streams and tanks so long as they are full of water, only when the streams shrink to pools and the tanks to puddles do the owners or lessees of the fishing rights turn out to catch fish. The result is a dearth of fish throughout the greater part of the year, a glut for a few days, and often much waste in consequence. The chief fresh water fishes of economic importance are the Murrel, notable for its virtue of living for a considerable period out of water, and various carps including Labeo, Catla and the well-known favourite of sportsman in India the "Mahseer," Cat-fishes and Hilsa. In the Nilgiris, the Rainbow Trout has been acclimatised and thrives well. The Government working in conjunction with the Nilgiri Game Association maintain a hatchery at Avalanche, where quantities of fry are hatched and reared for the replenishment of the streams of the plateau. Fishing rights in the large irrigation tanks were transferred from Government to local authorities many years ago, these tanks are now being reacquired by Government in order that they may be stocked periodically by the Department, the results so far have shown a profit on the operations. To breed the necessary fry, 7 fish farms are in operation. In these the chief fish bred are the Gourami, obtained from Java, and *Etroplus suratensis* which has the excellent attribute of thriving and breeding as well in brackish as in fresh water, both protect their eggs while developing, a useful habit. Both the Gourami and *Etroplus* are largely vegetarian in diet. A further activity is represented by the breeding of small fishes especially adducted to feed upon the aquatic larvae of mosquitoes. These are supplied in thousands to municipalities and other local authorities at a nominal price, for introduction into mosquito-haunted sheets of water, these anti-malarial operations have proved successful in the places where the local authorities have given proper attention to the direction given.

Marine Aquarium—Perhaps a word is necessary about this institution at Madras. The building was constructed under the auspices of the Superintendent, Government Museum, Madras, and was thrown open to the public on 21st October 1909. The Superintendent, Government Museum, had charge of the Aquarium for ten years till 1919 when it was transferred to the Department of Fisheries. Ever since its opening, being the first institution of its kind in Asia, it has been immensely popular with the public.

A turtle tank of rough semi-circular shape with 21 feet as diameter was added during the course of the year.

Deep Sea Fishing and Research—The fisherman has a fairly exhaustive knowledge of the fisheries along the coast up to 7 fathoms. If the catches of fish are to be improved it is necessary to ascertain—

- (1) what kinds and quantities of fish are available beyond 7 fathoms, and,
- (2) how to exploit these deep sea fisheries economically.

The department's trawler "Lady Goschen" has been exploring the off shore belt of the sea up to 100 fathoms from Point Calimere to Madras on the East Coast and Calicut to Pigeon Islands on the West Coast, with a view to ascertain the kinds and quantities of fish available there. The Assistant Biologist and staff worked on board the trawler. One remarkable discovery made by this systematic survey is that fish of better quality and in larger quantity are available in deeper waters on the East coast from Point Calimere to Madras than on the West coast from Calicut to Pigeon Islands, during the months of the survey. Whether it is the case throughout the year is yet to be ascertained. However it has helped to revise the general belief that fish are much more abundant on the West coast than on the East coast, and opens up possibilities for large fishery developments on the East Coast which will ultimately increase the supply of fish food and fish manure.

Rural Pisciculture—As a result of the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Agriculture that all practical measures should be adopted to add fish to the diet of the cultivator thereby improving his nutrition, a scheme of rural propaganda was inaugurated in 1930. An Assistant Director with necessary staff was appointed to advise ryots in the stocking of village ponds which number over 106,050 in the Presidency. The work though begun in July 1930, has already completed a survey of ponds in 98 villages, 2,172 wells and 264 ponds in these villages were examined and out of this number 175 wells and 85 ponds were selected as suitable for piscicultural operations and 45 wells and 1 pond were stocked.

Welfare Work—A remarkable feature in the work of the Madras Fisheries Department is the energy which it devotes to the improvement of the condition of the fisherfolk. On Sir Frederick Nicholson's initiative, the Department has always recognised the duty of spreading among them education and the habits of thrift, temperance and co-operation. The work has been specially successful on the West Coast. The number of fishermen's co-operative societies in 1930-31 was 73.

The need for special efforts to promote co-operation among fisherfolk and to renew and stimulate co-operative societies to more efficient work has been recognised by Government for some years. The Committee on Fisheries recommended that all co-operative work among fishermen both on the West and East Coasts in the Presi-

deney should be done by the Fisheries Department and that, on the analogy of the system in vogue in the Labour Department, the staff of Inspectors of Co-operative Societies should work under the Fisheries Department, the Co-operative supplying trained Inspectors and auditing the books of the societies. The Government partially accepted the recommendations and sanctioned the deputation of 3 Inspectors of Co-operative Societies for exclusive work among fishermen under the department.

Two industrial societies were started one at Blamed and the other at Palapatty on the West Coast in 1927 with the object of weaning the fishermen gradually from the influence of middlemen capitalists. The Government sanctioned a loan of Rs. 1,500 each to the two societies

for purchasing boats, nets and other accessories for fishing purposes. They are working since 1927 with varying degrees of success.

To promote the education of fishermen a training institution was opened in the middle of 1918 at Calcutta to train teachers to work in elementary schools for the fisherfolk. The pupil teachers under training are familiarised with the work carried on in the fishery stations at Tanur and Chaliyam. They are given practical instructions in fishing, a boat having been purchased for the purpose. In some places the villagers themselves started the schools and then handed over to the Departments. In other places schools were opened by the Department at the request of the fishermen. Local men are appointed as honorary manager of schools.

Bengal & Bihar & Orissa.

The fishing value of this extensive deltaic region lies primarily in the enormous area occupied by inland waters—rivers, creeks, shoals, and swamps,—to say nothing of paddy fields and tanks. These swarms with fish and, as the Hindu population are free to a large extent from the aversion to a fish-diet which is widely prevalent among the better castes in the south, demand for fish is enormous. Rice and fish are indeed the principal mainstays of the population and not less than 80 per cent. of the people consume fish as a regular item of diet. It is calculated that 16 per cent. of the population is engaged in fishing and its connected trades, a percentage that rises to 20 in the Presidency, Rajshahi, and Dacca Divisions. 1,000 persons in Bengal subsist by fishing and 2,21,000 maintained by the sale of fish. This is in spite of the fact that fishing is not considered an honourable profession. As a fisherman in Bengal is most inured to his traps and other devices exceedingly clever and effective—in many cases too effective—his risk for immediate profit, however small it may be. The greatest inland fish is that of the hilsa (*Clupea ulsha*) which migrates from the sea in innumerable shoals to the spawning grounds far up the banks of the Ganges and the other great rivers. Other valued and abundant fishes are the rohu (*Labeo rohita*) and the Lata (*Catla catla*), the *Carriuan nalgata*, prawns and many others everywhere. Of important fish in the lower reaches of the great network of creeks spread over the Sunderbans, the belki (*Lateolabrax*) and the mullets are the most important. From these estuarine fish the most valuable are the mangrove prawns. The sea-fisheries are not so well exploited, the fishermen of the coast being of any local craft save the few boats and construction.

The fishing industry began in 1906 by Sir F. C. B. in the organization of the steam fishing boats of the East India Company, the *Frankie Golden*

Crown being employed for the purpose. The results showed that there are extensive areas suitable for trawling and capable of yielding large quantities of high class fish. Much attention was devoted during these trawl cruises to the acquisition of increased knowledge of the marine fauna, the results being published in the Records and Memoirs of the Indian Museum. For various reasons, the chief perhaps being the hostility of vested interests, the lack of cold storage facilities and the loss of time involved by the trawler having to bring her catches to Calcutta instead of sending them by a swift tender, the experiment was financially a failure and was dropped. With ever-increasing demand for fish in Calcutta and the concurrent rise in prices, the prospects of remunerative steam-trawling are now much more, steam-trawling companies being floated in the immediate future. The trade is a difficult one to organize and without a rare combination of technical fishery knowledge and far-sighted and comprehensive organization the danger run by the investing public will be considerable. Originally one Fisheries Department served the needs of the two provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. Separation was effected in after which fisheries in Bengal were administered by the Director of Agriculture. The Bengal Fishery Department was abolished under retrenchment in 1923. There is no immediate prospect of reconstitution of the Department. In Bihar and Orissa, Fisheries form a section of the Department of Industries.

Bengal Fisheries Department has of necessity a more limited scope for its activities than in the case of Madras. Practically no coastal minor industries exist, neither do the natural conditions lead us to suppose that any can be created without extreme difficulty, and in the absence of a great trawl industry which alone might be able to call into existence factories devoted to the uplift of the general utilization of fish by-products. Apart from this, much can be done by its officers for the uplift of the general fishing population with a view to free them from the tyranny of the mahajans (fish contractors and

The Forests

Even in the earliest days of the British occupation the destruction of the forests in many parts of India indicated the necessity for a strong forest policy, but whether or not our earlier administrators realized the importance of the forests to the physical and economic welfare of the country, the fact remains that little or nothing was done. The year 1855 marked the commencement of a new era in the history of forestry in India, for it was then that Lord Dalhousie laid down a definite and far-sighted forest policy. Further progress was delayed for a time by the Mutiny, but from 1860 onwards forest organization was rapidly extended to the other provinces. The earlier years of forest administration were beset with difficulties, which is not surprising considering that the Department was charged with the unpopular duty of protecting the heritage of Nature from the rapacity of mankind—a duty which naturally roused the antagonism of the agricultural population of India. Exploration, demarcation and settlement, followed by efforts to introduce protection and some form of regular management, were the first duties of the Forest Department. Work on these lines, which is not yet completed in the more backward parts of the country, has been pursued steadily from the commencement, and in consequence large tracts of forest have been saved from ruin and are gradually being brought under efficient management. Whatever may have been the opinions held in some quarters half a century ago as to the need for a policy such as that expressed in Lord Dalhousie's memorable enunciation of 1855, there is no longer any doubt that results have amply justified the steps taken, and that in her forests India now possesses a property of constantly increasing value, the future importance of which it is hardly possible to over-estimate.

Types of Forest—More than one-fifth of the total area of British India (including the Shan States) is under the control of the Forest Department. These areas are classified as reserved, protected or unclassified State forests. In the reserved forests rights of user in favour of individuals and the public are carefully recorded and limited at settlement while the boundaries are defined and demarcated; in the protected forests the record of rights is not so complete, the accrual of rights after settlement not being prohibited, and the boundaries are not always demarcated; while in the unclassified forests no systematic management is attempted, and as a rule the control amounts to nothing more than the collection of revenue until the areas are taken up for cultivation or are converted into reserved or protected forests. The total forest area of British India (including the Shan States) on 31st March 1930 was 249,710 square miles or 22.6 of the

total area. This was classed as follows: Reserved 107,758, Protected 6,263, Unclassed State 135,694.

Throughout this vast forest area, scattered over the length and breadth of India from the Himalayan snows to Cape Comorin and from the arid jumper tracts of Baluchistan to the eastern limits of the Shan States, there is, as may be imagined, an infinite variety in the types of forest vegetation, depending on variations of climate and soil and on other local factors. Broadly speaking, the following main types of forest may be distinguished:—

(1) **Arid-country forests**, extending over Sind, a considerable portion of Rajputana, part of Baluchistan and the south of the Punjab, in dry tracts where the rainfall is less than 20 inches. The number of species is few, the most important tree being the babul or Kikar (*Acacia arabica*), which however in the driest regions exists only by the aid of river inundations.

(2) **Deciduous forests**, in which most of the trees are leafless for a portion of the year. These forests, which extend over large areas in the sub-Himalayan tract, the Peninsula of India and Burma, are among the most important, comprising as they do the greater part of the teak and sal forests.

(3) **Evergreen forests**—These occur in regions of very heavy rainfall, such as the west coast of the Peninsula, the eastern sub-Himalayan tract, and the moisture parts of Burma and are characterized by the great variety and luxuriance of their vegetation.

(4) **Hill forests**—In these the vegetation varies considerably according to elevation and rainfall. In the Eastern Himalaya, Assam and Burma, the hill forests are characterized by various oaks, magnolias and laurels, while in Assam and Burma the Khasia pine (*Pinus khasya*) grows gregariously at elevations of 3,000 to 7,000 feet. In the North-Western Himalaya the chief timber tree is the deodar (*Cedrus deodara*), which occurs most commonly at elevations of 6,000 to 8,000 feet, and in association with oaks or blue pine (*Pinus excelsa*), towards its upper limit the deodar merges into very large areas of spruce and silver fir, while below it are found extensive forests of the long-needed pine (*Pinus longifolia*) which is tapped for resin.

(5) **Littoral forests**—These occur on the sea coast and along tidal creeks. The most characteristic trees belong to the mangrove family (*Rhizophoraceae*). Behind the mangrove belt is an important type of forest occasionally inundated by high tides, in which the most valuable species is the "sundri" (*Heritiera jones*).

Forest Policy.—The general policy of the Government of India in relation to forests was definitely laid down in 1884 by the classification of the areas under the control of the Department into four broad classes, namely—

(a) Forests the preservation of which is essential on climatic or physical grounds. These are usually situated in hilly country where the retention of forest growth is of vital importance on account of its influence on the storage of the rainfall and on the prevention of erosion and sudden floods.

(b) Forests which afford a supply of valuable timbers for commercial purposes, such, for example, as the teak forests of Burma, the sal forests of Northern, Central, and North-Eastern India, and the deodar and pine forests of the North-Western Himalaya.

(c) Minor forests, containing somewhat inferior kinds of timber, and managed for the production of wood, fodder, grazing and other produce for local consumption, these forests are of great importance in agricultural districts.

(d) Pasture lands—These are not "forests" in the generally understood sense of the term but grazing grounds managed by the Forest Department merely as a matter of convenience.

These four classes of forest are not always sharply divided from each other, and one and the same tract may to a certain extent be managed with more than one object.

Administration.—The forest business of the Government of India is carried out in the Department of Education, Health and Lands. The Inspector-General of Forests is also President of the Forest Research Institute at Delhi. Dun and is the technical adviser to the Government of India in forest matters. Under the Constitution of 1919 Forests were made a transferred subject in Bombay and Burma, where they had long been administered by the Provincial Governments, and in 1924 the Reforms Inquiry Committee presided over by the late Sir Alexander Muddiman, Home Member of the Government of India, recommended that they be transferred in other provinces now unless any local Government on examination of the position can make out a convincing case against the transfer in its own province.

Territorial charges.—The various provinces are divided into one or more Forest Circles; each in charge of a Conservator of Forests, provinces containing three or more circles also have a Chief Conservator who is the head of the Department for his province. Circles are divided into a number of Forest Divisions, in charge of members of the Imperial or Provincial Forest Service, these Divisions in most cases correspond to civil districts. Each Division contains a number of Ranges in charge of junior members of the Provincial Service or of Forest Rangers or Deputy Rangers; heavy Divisions are also sometimes divided into Subdivisions. The Ranges are further subdivided into a number of beats or protective charges held by Forest Guards or in some cases by Foresters.

Non-territorial changes.—Apart from territorial changes there are various important posts of a non-territorial nature connected with Forest Research and Education, the preparation of Forest Working Plans, and other special duties.

The Forest Service.—The Forest Service comprises three branches—

(1) The Indian (Imperial) Forest Service with a sanctioned total personnel of 370 officers consisting of the Inspector-General of Forests, Chief Conservators, Conservators, Deputy and Assistant Conservators. Of these 201 have been recruited direct to the service. The officers of this service are recruited as probationers subject to the following methods prescribed in the Indian Forest Service (Recruitment) Rules, 1924:—

(a) by nomination in England in accordance with such supplementary regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of State in Council.

(b) by competitive examination in India in accordance with such supplementary regulations as may be prescribed by the Governor-General in Council.

(c) by direct appointment of persons selected in India otherwise than by competitive examination;

(d) by the promotion on the recommendation of local Governments of members of the Provincial Forest Services;

(e) by the transfer of promotion of an officer belonging to a branch of Government Service in India other than Provincial Forest Service.

Further recruitment to the Indian Forest Service, whether by promotion or direct appointment, has been suspended until a decision is reached on the recommendation of the Services Sub-Committee of the Indian Round Table Conference in regard to the provincialisation of the Indian Forest Service.

In Bombay and Burma, where Forest is a transferred subject new services called the Bombay and Burma Forest Services Class I, have been created to take the place of the Indian Forest Service.

(2) The Indian Forest Engineering Service.—This service was created in 1910 but since 1922 no further recruitment has been made. Some of the Forest Engineers have been transferred to the Indian Forest Service or the Indian Service of Engineers and some have resigned or have retired. The future strength is not expected to remain at more than three (one each in Bombay, Madras and Punjab).

(d) The Provincial Service.—Formerly it consisted of Extra Deputy and Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests. All Extra Deputy Conservators who were considered to be fully qualified to hold a major charge were transferred to the Indian Forest Service in 1920. The class of Extra Deputy Conservators has been abolished and the service now consists of Extra Assistant Conservators only. The fixation of the strength of the personnel of the service rests with the local Governments.

Officers of this service are eligible for promotion upto 25 per cent of the posts in the Indian Forest Service in provinces other than Bombay and Burma, such promotion being made by the Secretary of State for India. These officers are recruited and trained in India, their

recruitment being a matter for the local Government. A certain number of posts in the service are filled by the promotion of specially promising Rangers. Owing to the establishment of a course for the training of probationers for the Indian Forests Service at Dehra Dun since 1926, the Provincial Service course ceased to exist from 1928. The I F S College has also closed down at the end of Oct 1932 as a result of the stoppage of recruitment to the Indian Forest Service and as a measure of economy.

(4) The Subordinate Service consists of Forest Rangers (about 840), Deputy Rangers (about 900), Foresters (about 2,000) and Forest Guards (about 11,500). The Rangers are at present trained at three different centres—the Forest College at Dehra Dun (for provinces other than Burma, the Central Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay and Madras), the Burma Forest School at Pymnau (for Burma), and the Madras Forest College at Coimbatore (for Madras, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay and the Central Provinces). These three institutions were established in 1878, 1898 and 1912, respectively. The training of subordinates below the rank of Ranger is carried out in various local forest schools and training classes.

Research.—For the first fifty years of the existence of the Forest Department in India no attempt was made to organize the conduct of forest research, and thus to co-ordinate and elaborate the scientific knowledge and to successful economic working. A commencement in organized forest research was last made in 1906 by the establishment, at the instance of Sir Sainthill Barclay-Wilmot, then Inspector-General of Forests, of a Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. The Forest Research Institute, is under the administrative control of the Inspector-General of Forests who is also the President. There are five main branches of research, namely Silviculture, Forest Botany, Forest Economic Products, Entomology and Chemistry, each branch being in charge of a research officer. The Timber Testing expert is engaged temporarily on short term contract. Indian Assistants have been appointed to receive the necessary technical training and experience with the object of eventually taking the place of experts if and when properly qualified. The Wood Technology, Paper Pulp Wood Preservation and Seasoning Sections are in charge of Indian experts who have received special training in their various subjects in Europe and America.

As a result of Mr. R S Pearson's long and able administration of the Forest Economic Branch, the Government of India now have at Dehra Dun a series of forest workshops and experimental laboratories without parallel anywhere else in the world and official reports show that the value of the experimental work done in the stream of inquiries received from persons doing business in timber and other forest products, not only in India but elsewhere in the world. The officers in charge of this branch received their training mostly in Europe and America and their efficiency is of a very high order.

Since 1906 research work has been prosecuted energetically so much so that in 1920 a new

scheme was sanctioned for the expansion of the staff and site of the Institute. Since then new land has been acquired, on which new buildings have been built for accommodating the various expanded branches and the new machinery obtained from the United Kingdom. As a result of this, steady progress has been made in the investigations which should ultimately lead to the fuller and better utilization of the raw products produced by Indian forests. Unfortunately the need for retrenchment in all Government activities has stopped or curtailed many promising lines of investigation.

Forest Products.—Forest produce is divided into two main heads—(1) Major produce, that is timber and firewood, and (2) Minor produce, comprising all other products such as bamboos, leaves, fruits, grass, gums, resins, barks, animal and mineral product etc. The average annual outturn of timber and fuel from all sources during the quinquennium ended 31st March 1931, the latest date for which statistics are available, was 858,863,000 cubic feet against an average of 861,172,000 cubic feet per annum attained in the preceding quinquennium. The annual outturn of timber and fuel from all sources during the quinquennium 1928-29 averaged 362,217,000 cubic feet against an average of 340,000,000 cubic feet during the preceding quinquennium. The trade in bamboos was almost stationary, with expectations of great development under commercial exploitation for paper pulp manufacture in the near future. The five years witnessed the inflation and schemes, especially in Madras, which had indifferent success. It was hoped in Madras to utilize very large quantities of valuable timbers, but the final result proved that this extensive exploitation was justified neither by the stand of timber in the forests nor by the possibilities of satisfying markets. The provincial Government after this experience adopted a more cautious policy.

An important measure for the development of forests in the Andamans was sanctioned by the Government of India. Hitherto, elephants had been employed for extraction of timber, with the result that only the fringe of the forests could be touched. The new plan is for the employment of American methods. American logging machinery was purchased and an American expert engaged to take charge of the work. Owing, however, to the wide-spread depression in the timber trade the employment of mechanical methods for the extraction of timber have been suspended for the present. Elsewhere in India a great part of the trade in timber lies in the hands of contractors who are regarded as on the whole trustworthy if sufficient control over their operations is maintained.

Forest Industries.—The important rôle which the forests of a country play in its general commercial welfare and in providing employment for its population is not always fully recognized. Fifteen years ago it was estimated that in Germany work in the forests provided employment for 1,000,000 persons while 3,000,000 persons, earning £30,000,000 a year, were employed in working up the raw

EXPORTS.
(Annual £000).

	1901-11	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
TIMBER							
Teak	474	1,137	1,119	916	478	374	493
(£ per ton) ..	(10)	(21)	(21)	(21)	(15)	(17)	(17)
Deal and Pine ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
(£ per ton) ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other Timbers ..	30	43	72	37	21	25	21
Railway Sleepers ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	484	1,180	1,207	973	479	369	519
British Empire ..	66%	67%	69%	65%	67%	73%	?
By land .. .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
MANUFACTURES							
Tea Chests	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wood Pulp	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Matches	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other Manufactures (g) ..	25	15	8	11	12	13	15
	25	15	8	11	12	13	15

IMPORTS.
(Annual £000)

	1904-14	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
TIMBER.							
Teak	302	135	124	113	109	54	83
(£ per ton) ..	(6)	(11)	(11)	(10)	(9)	(8)	(7)
Deal and Pine ..	118(a)	65	80	48	34	32	—
(£ per ton) ..	(5)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(6)	(5)	?
Other Timbers (c) ..	178	222	360	359	210	159	201(b)
Railway Sleepers ..	299	8	—	—	—	—	—
	897	430	564	520	353	245	284
British Empire ..	30%(c)	17%	12%	7%	11%	12%	?
By land .. .	408	d	d	d	d	d	d

a—1912-14

b—Including deal and pine, the figures for deal and pine and other timbers not being available separately for this year.

c—Excluding sleepers.

d—Not available after 1924-25 (£350 000).

EXPORTS—*contd.*

(Annual £000)

	1904-14	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
MANUFACTURES							
Tea Chests ..	270(e)	497	596	455	356	356	356(f)
Wood Pulp	113(a)	311	337	315	270	166	203
Matches . . .	507	129	82	31	8	4	7
Other Manufactures (g)	41	91	137	77	32	94	94
	931	1,028	1,141	878	666	620	660

a—1912-14.

c—1909-14

f—Approximate

g—Excluding furniture, cabinetware, re-exports.

EXPORTS

(Annual £000)

	1904-14	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Lac .. .	1,843	6,483	5,226	2,361	1,380	932	1,848
(\$ per ton)	(100)	(174)	(156)	(86)	(59)	(45)	(51)
Rubber .	157	1,490	1,342	973	334	66	234
Myrobalans ..	364	659(a)	611(a)	593(a)	499(a)	434(a)	444(a)
Sandalwood .	82	323(b)	208(b)	185(b)	233(b)	105(b)	163(b)
Cardamoms	26	134	197	169	93	109	159
Cutch	76	70	66	68	31	23	28
Rosin . .	—	32	44	12	14	20	8

a—Includes extract.

b—Includes oil

IMPORTS.

(Annual £000)

	1904-14	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Rosin	41	28	37	25	21	12	25
Turpentine and Substitute	29	19	22	12	9	6	9

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY AND TELEPHONY.

Beam Stations—The year 1927 saw the commencement of Beam wireless services on the Marconi system between India and the United Kingdom. Powerful transmitting and receiving stations erected at Poona and Dhond respectively by the Indian Radio Telegraph Company are connected by land lines with the Central Telegraph Office in Bombay, whilst stations at Skegness and Grimsby are similarly connected with the General Post Office in London, and the circuits are so arranged that messages are exchanged between Bombay and London without intermediate handling at the Beam stations at either end. The huge aerial systems at Poona and Dhond, each supported on five steel towers 287 feet in height, are landmarks over a distance of many miles. The service was inaugurated by His Excellency the Viceroy on 28th July 1927 at the Central Telegraph Office, Bombay, when His Excellency transmitted a message to the King and His Majesty's reply was received a few minutes later.

It is noteworthy that the opening of the Beam wireless service coincided with a reduction in rates by the cable companies. The Eastern Telegraph Co., which operates the cable from Europe to India, has become merged in the New Imperial and International Communications Ltd.

For reasons of economy, most of the inland wireless stations in India were practically closed down and placed in charge of "Care and Maintenance" parties which carry out tests twice a month, the exceptions being Peshawar Radio, which always maintained official communication with Kabul in Afghanistan and Kashgar in China, and Jotogh Radio, which receives British Official Wireless sent out from Oxford and Rugby and passes the messages to Reuter's Agency for distribution to subscribing newspapers. The stations at Delhi and Allahabad have now been equipped with apparatus to enable them to function as aeronautical wireless stations and they are used as such. New wireless stations for aeronautical purposes have been erected at Jodhpur in Bikaner, and Gaya. The wireless installations at Karachi and Calcutta have been modified so as to meet all the Wireless requirements of aircraft passing over India. New stations equipped for aeronautical communication purposes are under construction at Chittagong, Akyab, Sandoway and Rassen.

The coast stations, however, have been maintained in a state of high efficiency and many improvements effected. The application of the Baudot system to the high-speed continuous-wave wireless stations at Madras Fort and Mingaladon (Rangoon) has proved extremely satisfactory, and a large portion of the traffic between Southern India and Burma is regularly worked by this direct route instead of the circuitous route via Calcutta. The traffic is interrupted occasionally by atmospheric interference, particularly during the hot weather but the difficulties have been largely overcome by handspeed working during the worst periods.

For many years the Bombay stations known as Bombay Radio was located on Butcher Island in the Harbour, but during 1927 a fine

new station equipped with modern apparatus was erected and taken into service at Santa Cruz, just outside the limits of Bombay Municipality.

Radio telegrams exchanged with ships at sea by coast stations in India and Burma continue to increase in number, and now total about 30,000 per annum. Official telegrams are exchanged with the British Naval station at Matara (Ceylon) via Bombay Radio. Regular services are also maintained between Burma and the Malay Peninsula via Rangoon and Penang and between Burma and Sumatra, whilst radio traffic is passed between Madras and Colombo when the normal route is interrupted.

Wireless telephonic communication between pilot vessels, lighthouses and shore stations are maintained by the Port Trusts at Bombay and Rangoon. In March 1931, telephonic communication between Bombay and London was established for the first time. The conversations were initiated from the *s.s. Belgenland* a tourist ship lying in Bombay Harbour and were made possible through the courtesy of Standard Telephones and Cables Limited in conjunction with the International Marine Radio Company.

Safety at Sea—A noticeable feature of wireless development during the past two years has been the provision of direction-finding apparatus at Bombay and Karachi and facilities at other coast stations whereby ships at sea equipped with direction-finding apparatus can obtain bearings on coast stations and thus determine their position with a remarkable degree of accuracy. The latest style of Marcony beacon was erected on Kennedy Island during 1931 to guide shipping approaching Bombay harbour. All Ships equipped with wireless direction finders will now be able to obtain exact knowledge of their whereabouts at a distance of 150 miles from the coast. The beacon is an experiment and is likely to be the first of many others along the coast of India. Improved arrangements for broadcasting time signals, weather reports and navigational warnings from coast stations have also proved of value to ships at sea.

Broadcasting—For several years, limited broadcasting services were maintained by Radio Clubs in Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi and Rangoon, and although the transmitting sets employed by them were of very low power, the broadcasts were tuned-in over practically the whole of India. The clubs were assisted financially by a Government contribution based upon the revenue from license fees, but this did not nearly suffice to cover the cost of the transmissions, and the greatest credit is due to the members of those clubs for the sporting manner in which they provided additional funds and undertook the entire responsibility for the programmes. Credit is also due to the Indian States and Eastern Agency for the loan of transmitting apparatus, without which the broadcasts would have been impossible.

After negotiations extending over several years, an Indian Broadcasting Company was granted a license to establish broadcasting services upon lines similar to those of the British Broadcasting Corporation, and transmitting stations were erected in Bombay and Calcutta,

the services at the former being inaugurated by His Excellency the Viceroy in July 1927 and the latter by the Governor of Bengal a month later. These stations had each an aerial input of three kilowatts, the same as that of the 2LO stations in London, of which they are practically duplicates. The programmes were so arranged that both Indian and European music are broadcast daily and the news bulletins and market and weather reports are read in two languages.

Bombay broadcasts normally on a wavelength of 3509 metres, and Calcutta on 370.4 and 49.10 metres. Reception in either of these cities, and for a distance of twenty or thirty miles around, is possible on crystal sets, of which a very large number have been sold. Valve sets are necessary for those living further afield, but although there has been a considerable demand for these, the sales have not reached expectation. One of the greatest difficulties in India is the maintenance of batteries, which is no inconsiderable item when sets containing five or six valves are employed.

The Indian Broadcasting Company was wound up in 1930 and its operations have since been conducted by the Government of India, in the Industries and Labour Department. Government for this purpose formed an Indian State Broadcasting Service and instituted a Central Broadcasting Advisory Committee, representative of the non-official public in association with the Departmental officials, to keep them in touch with public opinion. The Committee has as its chairman the Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in charge of the Subject (now the Hon. Sir Joseph Shore) and upon it sit at the present time Messrs N. B. Macbeth and N. M. Dumas, Bombay, H. H. Reynolds and K. C. Neogy, M.L.A., Calcutta, M. R. Coburn, Financial Adviser to Government in the Posts and Telegraphs Department and B. Rama Rao, Joint Secretary to Government in the Industries and Labour Dept. It is now proposed to establish a series of additional broadcasting stations in different parts of India so as to spread broadcasting receivable on low-powered sets throughout the land. Important proposals with this purpose in view were discussed by the Advisory Committee in Calcutta in December, 1930. An event of considerable importance was Bombay's broadcast to the world on December 18, 1933. This broadcast, played from the Empire Station, gave listeners in Europe their first opportunity of hearing a typical Indian programme.

Licenses—Broadcast receiving licenses are issued at Head Post Offices at a fee of ten rupees per year, and cover the use of receiving sets throughout British India except Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. Licenses for fixed stations for transmitting and experimental purposes are much sought after, and despite a careful scrutiny of the applicants, more than 300 have been issued. The number of traders in wireless apparatus who are required to take out special Import licenses has increased considerably during the past year. This improvement must be ascribed primarily to the commencement of broadcasting.

Prospects—The Government of India have always encouraged the development of wireless

in India by private enterprise and to this source that India may look in the future for considerably increased internal radio communication. There are two most promising lines of development, viz—

(a) Erection of small sets either for speech or Morse in districts where no land lines exist, and to link such districts with the existing landlines. In this connection it may be remarked that modern small radio sets are capable of using either Morse or speech at will and if used for speech can be operated by the ordinary desk telephone instrument in daily use all over India.

(b) The use of radio as a substitute for landline to form the trunk telephone route between two cities which already have telephone facilities.

These would, it is thought, open up a new industry which if properly fostered would very soon extend its sales outside the limits of India. It is believed that the majority of parts for small radio sets could be more cheaply manufactured in this country than they can be imported and such an industry would find the right kind of skilled labour already in India.

Radio Telephone Service.—An event of considerable importance was the inauguration of the radio telephone service between India and England on May 1, 1933, when His Excellency Sir Frederick Sikes, Governor of Bombay, and Sir Samuel Hoare, Secretary of State for India, exchanged messages as a preliminary to the opening of the service to the public.

The service is based upon the beam wireless system which has been operated successfully for the past six years by the Indian Radio and Cable Communications Company between India and the United Kingdom and, since the beginning of this year, between India and Japan. Initially, the radio telephone service was limited to Bombay and Poona at the Indian end and to the United Kingdom at the other, but facilities for conversation with other places were speedily arranged, and within a month it was possible for people in Bombay to speak to the United States, Canada, Australia, South Africa and many other parts of the world. Similarly, there is a gradual extension of the area covered in India, and when the improvement of the landlines has been completed, nearly every important city will be in direct telephonic communication with England and the rest of the world.

Many technical problems are involved in the perfection of the India-England wireless telephone, not the least of which is the ensuring of secrecy. When the service was first opened, reports from ordinary broadcast listeners in all parts of the country and as far afield as Ceylon indicated that conversations could be "tapped" with the greatest ease, but later "secrecy gear" was installed.

Any private telephone owner will be able to use the service for an overseas call. Before doing so, however, he will have to place a deposit of Rs 100 with the Divisional Engineer, Telegraphs, Bombay.

The charge for a 3 minutes' conversation to (a) places in England, Scotland and Wales is Rs 80, (b) Northern Ireland (Dublin) and the Isle of Man, Rs 84. Each additional minute's conversation to places under (a) will cost Rs. 26-11 and to (b) Rs 28.

the Mutiny its freedom had to be temporarily controlled by the Gagging Act which Canning passed in June 1857 on account of the license of a very few papers, and owing still more to the fears of its circulating intelligence which might be prejudicial to public interests. The Act was passed only for a year at the end of which the press was once more free.

On India passing to the Crown in 1858, an era of prosperity and progress opened for the whole country in which the press participated. There were 19 Anglo-Indian papers at the beginning of this period in 1858 and 25 Native papers and the circulation of all was very small. The number of the former did not show a great rise in the next generation, but the rise in

influence and also circulation was satisfactory. Famous journalists like Robert Knight, James Maclean and Harris Mookerji flourished in this generation. The *Civil and Military Gazette* was originally published in Simla as a weekly paper, the first issue being dated June 22nd 1872. Prior to and in the days of the Mutiny the most famous paper in Northern India was the *Mofussilite*, originally published at Meerut, but afterwards at Agra and then at Ambala. After a lively existence for a few years in Simla the *Civil and Military Gazette* acquired and incorporated the *Mofussilite*, and in 1876 the office of the paper was transferred from Simla to Lahore, and the *Gazette* began to be published daily.

INDIAN PRESS LAW.

Before 1835 all printing of books and paper was subject to licence by the Governor-General in Council, and the licences were issued or refused at the discretion of Government. Act XI of 1835 repealed the old Regulations and merely required registration of the printer and made a few minor requirements. That Act was replaced in 1867 by the present Press and Registration of Books Act, and, except for an Act which was in force for one year during the Mutiny, there was no further legislation directly affecting the Press until 1878 when the Vernacular Press Act was passed. That Act was repealed during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon in 1882. From that date until 1907 Government made no attempt to interfere directly with the liberty of the Press, the growth of sedition being dealt with in other ways by the passing in 1898 of section 124A of the Penal Code in its present form, which had been originally enacted in 1870, and by the introduction into the Penal Code of section 153A and into the Criminal Procedure Code of section 108. There were a certain number of prosecutions under those sections up to 1907, but the dissemination of sedition through the Press continued. In 1908 the Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act was passed which dealt with papers inciting to murder or to acts of violence. This Act failed to have the desired effect.

The Indian Press Act, 1910, was a measure of wider scope, the main object of which was to ensure that the Indian press generally should be kept within the limits of legitimate discussion.

The Act deals, not only with incitements to murder and acts of violence, but also with other specified classes of published matter, including any words or signs tending to seduce soldiers or sailors from their allegiance or duty, to bring into hatred or contempt the British Government, any Native Prince, or any section of His Majesty's subjects in India, or to intimidate public servants or private individuals.

The different sections of the Act have in view (i) Control over presses and means of publication, (ii) control over publishers of newspapers, (iii) control over the importation into British India and the transmission by the post of objectionable matter; (iv) the suppression of seditious or objectionable newspapers, books, or other documents wherever found.

Repeal of Press Legislation—By the autumn of 1917 the Government of India had begun to consider the desirability of modifying at least one section of the Press Act to which great exception had been taken on account of the wide powers that it gave. Finally, after more than once consulting Local Government, a Committee was appointed in February 1921 after a debate in the Legislative Assembly, to examine the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1897, and the Indian Press Act, 1910, and report what modifications were required in the existing law. That Committee made an unanimous report in July 1921, recommending:—

- (1) The Press Act should be repealed
- (2) The Newspapers Incitements to Offences Act should be repealed.
- (3) The Press and Registration of Books Act and the Post Office Act should be amended where necessary to meet the conclusion noted below: (a) The name of the editor should be inscribed on every issue of a newspaper and the editor should be subject to the same liabilities as the printer and publisher, as regards criminal and civil responsibilities. (b) any person registering under the Press and Registration of Books Act should be a major as defined by the Indian Majority Act, (c) local Governments should retain the power of confiscating openly seditious leaflets, subject to the owner of the press or any other person aggrieved being able to protest before a court and challenge the seizure of such document, in which case the local Government ordering the confiscation should be called upon to prove the seditious character of the documents. The powers conferred by Sections 13 to 15 of the Press Act should be retained. Customs and Postal officers being empowered to seize seditious literature within the meaning of Section 124A of the I. P. C. subject to review on the part of the local Government and challenge by any persons interested in the courts, (e) any person challenging the orders of Government should do so in the local High Court, (f) the term of imprisonment prescribed in Sections 12, 13, 14 and 15 of the Press and Registration of Books Act should be reduced to six months, (g), the provisions of Section 16 of the Press Act should be reproduced in the Press and Registration of Books Act.

Effect was given to these recommendations during the year 1922.

Press Association of India.—At the end of 1915 this Association was formed in Bombay According to the articles of constitution "Its objects shall be to protect the press of the country by all lawful means from arbitrary laws and their administration, from all attempts of the Legislature to encroach on its liberty or of the executive authorities

to interfere with the free exercise of their calling by journalists and press proprietors, and for all other purposes of mutual help and protection which may be deemed advisable from time to time." Members pay a minimum subscription of Rs. 10 annually. The affairs of the Association are managed by a Council.

Number of Printing Presses at Work and Number of Newspapers, Periodicals, and Books Published

Province.	Printing Presses	Newspapers	Periodicals.	Books.	
				In English or other European Languages.	In Indian Languages (Vernacular and Classical) or in more than one Language.
Madras	(a) 1,838	(a) 300	1,034	787	2,619
Bombay (d) .. .	1,099	404	467	223	2,105
Bengal .. .	1,219	234	883	743	2,551
United Provinces ..	868	227	360	315	2,801
Punjab	557	309	270	192	1,780
Burma	340	61	171	22	194
Bihar and Orissa ..	257	46	59	88	623
Central Provinces and Berar .	(b) 196	77	(c) 50	5	120
Assam	73	22	23		70
North-West Frontier Province .	25	7	4	6	4
Ajmer-Merwara (d) .	35	6	8	26	89
Coorg	5	2	2	..	1
Delhi	134	48	56	34	175
Total, 1931-32	6,646	1,743	2,893	2,441	13,132
1930-31	6,520	1,708	2,780	2,353	14,074
1929-30 .	6,385	1,693	3,057	2,335	13,935
1928-29 .	6,102	1,695	2,960	2,556	14,427
1927-28 ..	5,919	1,525	2,954	2,332	14,815
Totals { 1926-27 .	5,724	1,485	3,027	2,147	15,246
1925-26 .	5,362	1,378	3,089	2,117	14,276
1924-25 ..	5,312	1,401	3,146	2,302	14,728
1923-24 ..	4,909	1,363	2,888	2,037	13,802
1922-23 ..	4,509	1,282	2,559	1,951	12,834

(a) Relates to the Calendar year 1932.

(b) Includes 11 Presses which are reported either closed or not working

(c) This includes 49 periodicals which are treated as newspapers as they contain public news or comments on public news, and one periodical which is catalogued as a book.

(d) Figures relate to the Calendar year 1931

Newspapers and News Agencies registered under the Press Rules and arranged alphabetically according to Station where they are published and situated.

Stations	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Agra	Agra Akhbar	Wednesdays.
	Agra Daily Commercial Report	Daily.
	Daily Vyaparik Report	Daily.
	Ehsas	Every Thursday
Ahmedabad	Prem Pracharak	Thursdays
	Sanadhyap Karak	On the 3rd and 18th of every month.
	Swetamber	Every Thursday
	Ahmedabad and Bombay Market Daily Report	Daily except Sundays
Ahmedabad	Ahmedabad Samachar	Daily.
	Associated Press of India	Sundays
	Deen
	Gujarati Punch	Saturdays
Ajmer	Gujarat Samachar.	Daily.
	Navajivan	Fridays
	Political Bhomlyo	Thursdays.
	Praja Bandhu	Saturdays.
Akola Berar	Sandesh	Daily.
	The Daily Business Report	Daily
	Yong India	Thursdays.
	Agarwal Samachar	On Saturday.
Akyab	Arya Martand	Daily
	Dnrbar	On Saturdays
	Jain Jagat	12th and 17th of every month.
	Matri Bhumi	Wednesdays
Allahabad	Praja Paksha	Saturdays.
	Arakan News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Allgarh Institute Gazette	Wednesdays.
	Abhyudaya	Fridays.
Allahabad Katra	Bharatwasi	On 1st and 16th of every month
	Daily Bharat	Daily except Sundays.
	Free Press of India
	Hindustan Review	On first of every month
Alleppey	Leader	Daily, except Mondays
	The Star	Every Monday.
	Stri Dharam Shukshak	Monthly.
	Travancore Publicity Bureau
Amraoti	Udaya	Mondays.
	Akali te Pardeai	Daily, except Sundays
	Daily Beopar Samachar	Daily.
	Daily Musawat	Daily.
Amritsar	Daily Sukh Sewak	Daily.
	Daily Vakil	Daily.
	Free Press of India
	Punjab Press Bureau
Amritsar	Qaumi Dard	Daily.
	States Press of India
	Tanzeem	Daily.

Stations	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Amroha	Ittihad	Saturdays.
Asansal	Ratnakar	Sundays.
Bagalkot.. ..	Kannadiga	Thursdays.
	Navina Bharat	Tuesdays.
Bagerhat	Jagaran	Sundays.
Bangalore	Associated Press of India	
	Bangalore Mail	Daily, except Sundays.
	Daily Post	Daily.
	Kasim-ul-Akhar	Mondays and Thursdays
Bangalore	Loka Hithaisi	Daily.
	Quick Silver Racing News	On 1st and 15th of every month.
	Truth	Mondays and Thursdays
Bangalore City	Veera Kesari	Daily, except Sundays
	Evening Mail	Wednesdays and Thursdays
	Navajeevana	Daily, except Sundays
	New Mysore	On Saturdays.
Bangalore City	Prajamitra	Daily, except Sundays.
	Tat Nadu	Daily, except Sundays
	Visva Karnataka	Daily
Barisal	Barisal	Every Monday.
	Barisal Hitaishi	Sundays.
Baroda	Shree Sayaji Vijaya	Thursdays.
Bassein, Burma.. ..	Bassein News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Zabumingala	Weekly.
Beawar	Tarun Rajasthan	Weekly
	The Young Rajasthan	Every Wednesday.
Belgaum	Belgaum Samachar	Mondays.
	Karnatak Vritta	Every Tuesday.
	Samyukta Karnataka	Every Thursday
Belgaum	Aj	Daily
	Awazai Khalk	Every Wednesday.
	Bharat Jiwan	Sundays.
Benares City	Brahman Maha Sammelan Pandit	
	Patro	On Thursdays
	Farz Hind	On Wednesdays.
	Hindi Kesari	Thursdays
Benares City	Varnasrama	On Mondays and Fridays.
	Bharati Patrika	Daily, except Sundays
Berhampur, Ganjam	Dainikasha	Daily.
	Nabeen	Every Friday.
	Sunday News	Every Sunday
Bezawada	Jain	Saturdays
	Market News	Daily, except Sundays.
Bhiwani	Sandesh	Sundays.
Bijapur	Karnatak Valbhav	Saturdays
	Udaya	Daily.

Stations.	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Bijoor ..	Daily Madina .. .	Daily
	District Gazette .. .	On 1st and 15th of each month
	Kannal .. .	On 1st and 15th of each month
	Mansoor .. .	On 1st, 8th, 16th and 24th of each month
	Nijat .. .	Bi-Weekly
	Risal Tapil .. .	Monthly.
	The Co-Operative Journal .. .	Monthly
	The Madina Newspaper .. .	On 1st, 5th, 9th, 13th, 17th, 21st, 25th and 28th of every month
	Tofa, Hind .. .	On 4th, 11th, 18th and 25th of each month
	Vir .. .	On 1st and 15th of each month
	Bombay Chronicle .. .	Daily
	Bombay Samachar .. .	Daily.
	Bombay Sentinel .. .	Daily
	Brenl Co's Market Report .. .	Daily, except Sundays.
	Catholic Examiner .. .	Saturdays
Bombay .. .	Outch Praja Mandal Patrika .. .	Every Saturday
	Daily Bombay Commercial Report .. .	On Wednesday and Sunday
	Daily Commercial News .. .	Daily
	Daily Cotton Market Report .. .	Daily, except Sundays.
	Daily Market Bulletin .. .	Daily, on Week days
	Dainik Vepar Samachar .. .	Daily
	Dnyana Prakash .. .	Daily, except Mondays.
	East Indian Cotton Market Report .. .	Every Friday.
	Evening News of India .. .	Daily
	Free Press Journal .. .	Daily, except Mondays
	Goa Mail .. .	Saturdays.
	Gujarati .. .	Saturdays.
	Gujarati Kesari .. .	Wednesdays
	Hindusthan and Prajamitra .. .	Daily
	Illustrated Sunday News .. .	Saturdays
	Illustrated Weekly of India .. .	Sundays
	Indian Industries and Power .. .	On the 15th, each month
	Indian Racing News .. .	On Thursdays and according to Mall week race fixtures.
	Indian Social Reformer .. .	Saturdays.
	Indian States Journal .. .	Every Friday.
	Indian Textile Journal .. .	Monthly
	Ismail .. .	Every Saturday.
	Jain Prakash .. .	Every Saturday
	Jam e-Jamshed .. .	Daily, except Sundays
	Janmabhumi .. .	Daily Except Sunday.
	Jay Cutch .. .	Every Saturday
	Kalser-i-Hind .. .	Sundays.
	Khilafat Bulletin .. .	Saturdays.
	Khilafat Daily
	League of Nations (India Bureau) News Agency
	Maheshwari .. .	Thursdays.
	Memmon Sndharak .. .	Every Thursday.
	Mercantile Report .. .	Every alternate Sunday.
	Muslim Herald .. .	Daily

Stations.	Title in full	Day of going to Press.
Bombay—contd	Nawa Koi	Daily, except Monday.
	Nu-rat	Daily.
	O Anglo-Lusitano	Saturdays.
	Prabhat	Daily, except Wednesdays.
	Railway Times	Friday.
	Reuters Commercial
	Sanj Vartaman	Daily, except Sundays.
	Share Market Daily Report	Daily.
	Shradhanand	Every Friday.
	Shri Lokmanya	Daily, except Mondays.
Bowringpet	Shri Venkateshwar Samachar	Friday.
	Sun	Daily, except Mondays.
	Times of India	Daily.
	The United Press of India
	Kolar Gold Fields News	Tuesdays.
	Akhbar Zulqarnain	6th, 13th, 20th and 27th of every month
	A Voz do Povo	Saturdays.
	Advance	Daily, except Mondays.
	Alkamal	Daily.
	Amrita Bazar Patrika	Daily.
Calcutta	Ananda Bazar Patrika	Daily, except Sundays.
	Aerijadid	Daily.
	Bangabasi	Wednesdays.
	Basumat	Daily.
	Bhagavan Gandhi	Mondays
	Bharata Mitra	Thursdays.
	Business World	Monthly.
	Capital	Thursdays
	Collegian	Bi-monthly.
	Commerce	Wednesdays.
Calcutta	Commercial News	On the 10th of each month
	Dalmia's Weekly Review of the	Every Saturday.
	Calcutta Share Market
	Dowrajadid	Daily
	Englishman	Every Monday.
	Gandhya	Every Friday.
	Hindu Patriot	Daily, except Saturdays.
	Hindusthan	Daily, except Sundays.
	Hitabadi	Wednesdays.
	Indian Engineering	Thursdays
Calcutta	Indian Finance	Every Friday.
	Indian Mirror	Daily.
	Industry	Monthly.
	Inqilab-i-Zamann	Daily, except Sundays
	Jain Gazette	Saturdays.
	Jugabarta	Every Monday.
	Liberty	Daily except Sundays.
	Maheshwari	Every Monday.

Stations.	Time in full.	Day of going to Press
Calcutta—contd.	Market Intelligence Matwala	Daily. Every Saturday Morning
	Mohammadi Muslim Standard Mussalman	Last day of every Bengalee month. Tri-weekly Thursdays.
	Nayak Prakash Rajat Bhandu	Daily. Daily. Sundays.
	Reuter's Commercial, Financial and Shipping Service Rox's Sporting Life Sanjibani Samay	On Saturdays. Wednesdays Wednesdays.
	Samyavadi Statesman	Daily. Daily, except Mondays.
	Swatantra Telegraph	Daily.
	The Handicap The Herald The Indian and Eastern Motors Every Friday. On Wednesday every month. Monthly.
	The Lokmanya The Week	Daily. Every Thursday.
	United Press Syndicate Vishwamitra Vyapar World Peace	Daily. Daily Wednesdays.
Calcut ..	Alameen Kerala Sanchari Manorama Mathrubhumi	On Saturdays. Wednesdays. Tuesdays and Fridays. On Mondays, Wednesdays Thursdays. Weekly.
	Vitavadi West Coast Reformer West Coast Spectator	Sundays and Thursdays. Wednesdays and Saturdays
Cawnpore ..	Associated Press of India Azad Daily Vartaman Pratap, Hindi Daily and Weekly Paper. Reuter's Limited Telegram Company, The Daily Insaaf Zamana	Wednesdays. Saturdays
Chandernagore ..	Probartak	Daily, except Sundays 25th day of every month.
Chindwara ..	Lokmitra	Bi-monthly.
Chinsurah ..	Education Gazette	Saturdays.
Chittagong ..	Daily Jyoti Panchjanya	Tuesdays. Wednesdays. Daily.
Cochin ..	Cochin Argus Cochin News Agency Malabar Herald Sahodaran	Saturdays. Saturdays..... Saturdays

Stations.	Title in full.				Day of going to Press.
Cochin Mattancherry ..	Malabar Islam
Cocanada	Ravi	Thursdays.
Colombatore .. .	Commercial News	Daily.
	Peoples Friend	Mondays.
Contal	Nihar	Mondays.
Cranganore	Dharma Kahalam	Every Saturday.
Outtaek	Indian Sunday School Journal	Monthly.
	Utkal Deepika	Fridays.
	Young Utkal	On Thursday.
Dacca . ..	Dacca Gazette	Mondays.
	Dacca Prakash	Sundays.
	Janavani	Daily
Dakor	Sadhu Sarwaswa	On 9th day of Hindu Fortnight.
Darjeeling	Darjeeling Times and Planters' Gazette.	Tuesdays
	Alaman	Daily
	Alkhalil	On 3rd, 11th, 19th and 26th of every month.
	Arjun	Daily.
	Asin	Daily.
	Bhavishya Wani	On 25th of each month.
	Daily Hamdard	Daily, except Fridays.
	Daily Mahabir	Daily.
	Daily Nizam Gazette	Daily.
	Daily Waqt	Daily.
	Delhi Information Bureau
	General News Agency and Book Depot.	Daily.
	Hindu Sansar	Weekdays.
Delhi . ..	Hindustan Times	Daily.
	Indian News Agency
	Khabardar	Tuesdays.
	Milat Daily	Daily.
	National News Agency
	National Call	Daily
	Parik Prakash	Monthly.
	Rajasthan	Thursdays.
	Reuter's News Agency
	Riyasat	Thursdays.
	The Statesman	Daily.
	Swarajya	Daily.
	Tej	Daily.
	The Tagat	On 1st, 8th, 16th and 24th of every month.
	United India and Indian States	Every Friday.
	Watan	Daily.
	Weekly Herald	Every Thursday.
	Weekly Moballig

Stations.	Title in full	Day of going to press
Deoria ..	Arun	On 1st of each month.
Dharwar .	{ Karnatakavritta and Dhananjaya Raja Hansa Vijaya	Tuesdays Daily Daily.
Dhorejl	Ismail Aftab..	On the 15th and last day of each month
Dhulla	{ Khandesh Valbhav .. Prabodh	Fridays Saturdays.
Dibrugarh	{ Times of Assam Jagaran	Fridays. Daily.
Gadag City	Karnatak Bandhu ..	Every Wednesday
Gauhati	Assamiya	Saturdays.
Gaya	Bihar Advocate and Kayastha Messenger . . .	Sundays.
Ghazabad City	Cotton Message . .	On 15th of every month
Gorakhpur .	{ Daret Gyanshakti Hind Mitar Jadava	Fridays Saturdays Saturdays 13th and 15th of each month
	{ Kalyan Mashriq Motor Car . . . Awadesh Tar	1st of each month Fridays 1st of each month Saturdays. Daily.
Guntur	Deshabhimani	Daily.
Hapur . . .	{ Daily Market Report Vyapar	Daily Daily and Bi-weekly.
Howrah . . .	Bisva Duta. . . .	Daily.
Hubli (Bombay)	Taruna Karnatak . .	Daily.
Hyderabad, Deccan	{ Associated Press of India Munshur Munshur-i-Deccan	Daily Daily.
	{ Rahbars Deccan Reuter's Limited Sahifa-i-Rozana	Daily, except Fridays ... Daily.
	{ Desh Mitra Hindu Jot	Daily. Daily 1st and 3rd Sunday of every month
	Musafir	Saturdays
Hyderabad, Sind	{ Nava Yuga.. . . Navjwan Prakash Prem Pracharak . . .	Daily, except Sundays. Every Saturday. Daily, except Sundays Every Friday.
	{ Sind Hindu Sindvasi Swatantra	Daily. Daily. Every Tuesday.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Indore ..	The Central India Times	On Tuesday
Indore City	Indore Dainik Vapar Samachar	Daily
Jacobabad ..	Frontier Gazette ..	Saturdays.
Jalgaon (Khandesh) ..	Pragatik	Weekly.
Jammu, Tawi. ..	Ranbir	Sundays
Jamnagar ..	Jamnagar Vepar Samachar ..	Daily.
Jaramoala ..	Daily Beopar Patra ..	Daily.
Jhansi ..	{ Deshraj Publicity Bureau Free India Sahas	{ Fridays. Sundays
Jhansi City. ..	Nyaya	Wednesdays
Torhat ..	Batori
Jubbulpore ..	{ Free Press of India India Sunday School Journal Karmaveer Lokmat Topics	{ Third Thursday of every month Fridays Daily. Every Thursday
Jullunder City ..	{ Darbar Brahman Samachar	{ On Friday On Friday.
	{ Alwahid Beopar Sandesh Chodres	{ Daily, except Sundays. Daily Every Monday.
	{ Cotton Daily Market Report Daily Commercial News Daily Gazette	{ Daily. Daily. Daily.
	{ Evening News Hindu Hitechhu	{ Daily. Daily Daily.
	{ Karachi Commercial News Paper Kesari Mahagujarat	{ Daily. Daily, except Sundays Every Saturday.
Karachi ..	{ Masul Morning Post of India New Times	{ Daily. Daily. Daily.
	{ Parsi Sansar Reuters Commercial, Financial and Shipping Service	{ Saturdays.
	{ Rozana Biopar Rozana Samachar Sansar Samachar	{ Daily. Daily. Daily.
	{ Sind Herald Sind Observer Sind Sudhar	{ On Wednesdays. Wednesdays and Saturdays Saturdays.
	{ Sind Vartman Voice of India	{ Daily. Every Monday.
Karal Kudi ..	{ Dhana Vysia Ootran Kumaran	{ Fridays Wednesdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press
Khandwa ..	{ Karamveer The Hindi Swaraja	Saturdays. Mondays
Khulna ..	Khulna Basi	Thursdays.
Kolhapur ..	{ New Sportsman . Sewak . Vidyavilas	Daily Every Friday. Fridays
Kot Radha Kissen	The Weekly Naresb ..	Saturdays
Kottayam .	{ Malayala Manorama . Nazrani Deepika Powtraprabha	Daily Weekly Tuesdays and Fridays
Kumta ..	{ Kanara News .. . Karnatak Leader	Thursdays Daily.
Kuranli ..	Utkarsh . .	Last week of each month
	Ahrar	Daily.
	Akhbar-i-Am	Daily.
	Bande Mataram	Daily, except Sundays.
	Civil and Military Gazette ..	Daily (Sundays excepted)
	Daily Herald	Daily (except Sundays)
	Daily Hurriyat .. .	Daily.
	Daily Karamvir . . .	Daily, except Tuesdays.
	Daily Mitap
	Daily Zamindar
	Ehsau	Daily
	Humayat-i-Isl . . .	On Wednesdays.
	Jannabhum .. .	Daily.
	Lahore News Agency
Lahore	Muslim Outlook	Daily.
	Phul	Thursdays
	Pratap	Daily.
	Progressive Punjab .. .	1st of every month.
	Rajasthan	Mondays
	Rajput Gazette	1st, 8th, 16th and 24th of every month.
	Siyasat	Daily, except Sundays.
	Sunday Times	Sundays
	The Eastern Times .. .	Daily.
	The New World .. .	On last day of every month
	The People	Saturdays
	The United Press of India
	Tribune	Daily, except Sundays.
	Vir Bharat	Daily, except Sundays.
	Watan	Thursdays
	Weekly Azad	On every Monday.
Larkana	{ Aftab	On Saturdays
	Kadma	On Saturdays.
	Khairkhab	Saturdays.
	Larkana Gazette	Fridays
	Nawrose	On Mondays.
	The Azadi	Fridays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press
Lucknow	Advocate	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Aina	On Thursdays.
	Anand	Thursdays.
	Daily Hamdam	Daily.
	Haqiqat	Daily.
	Huque	Daily.
	Himmat	Daily, except Sundays & Holidays
	Hindusthani	Bi-weekly.
	Independent News Agency
	Indian Witness	Wednesdays.
Ludhiana .. .	Kaukab-i-Hind	Wednesdays.
	Observer	On Thursdays.
	Pioneer	Daily, except Tuesdays
	Sarfaraz	On 1st, 5th, 8th, 13th, 17th, 25th and 28th of every month
	Matwala Weekly ..	On Mondays.
	Daily Business Report ..	Daily.
	Daily Commerce ..	Daily.
	Daily Market Report ..	Daily.
	The Daily Beopar Gazette ..	Daily.
	Weekly Tajarat	On Thursdays
Lyalpur . . .	Ananda Bodhini	Every Wednesday.
	Catholic Leader	Wednesdays.
	Christian Patriot	Saturdays.
	Daily Express	Daily, except Sundays and Monday mornings.
	Daily News	Daily.
	Desabandhu	Every Saturday.
	Desabhakatan	Daily.
	Dinavartamani	Daily.
	Dravidan	Daily.
	Hindu	Daily.
Madras .. .	Hindu Nesan	Saturdays.
	India	Daily, except Sundays.
	Indian Express	Daily.
	Indian Railway Journal	15th of every month.
	Indian Review	Monthly.
	Janarthamani	Weekdays.
	Jarida-i-Rozgar	Saturdays
	Jay Bharathi	On Week Days
	Justice	Daily.
	Law Times	Saturdays.
.. ..	Madras Mail	Daily.
	Muhammadian	Mondays and Thursdays
	Mukhbir-i-Deccan	Wednesdays.
	Nyayadipika	Daily.
	New India	Daily.
	New Times	Daily.
	Patriot	Saturdays.
	Reuters Commercial and Shipping Service
	Scientific Press of India

The Press.

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Stations	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Madras—contd	Standard Sporting News Swathanthara Sangu Tamil Nadu	Fridays Tuesdays and Fridays Saturdays.
	The All India Racing News The Daily Alma-E The Original Vel Sporting News	Fridays Daily, except Fridays Thursdays
Mandalay	The Venus Sporting News	Fridays
Mangalore	Upper Burma Gazette	Daily
Margao (Goa) ..	Rastra Bandhu Swadeshabhiman	Every Sunday Thursdays.
Masur	A Terra Noticias Ultramir	Wednesdays and Saturdays. Mondays.
Mattancheri ..	Umbraj-Vishvadar	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
Maymyo	Chakravarthi	Every Saturday Saturdays.
Mahar	Associated Press of India	On Thursdays
Meerut	Shamshir Islam	Every Saturday. Daily
Mhow	Bhavisya Bani Roznama Qaum	Thursdays
Mirpurkhas.. ..	Satyarth Patrika	Wednesdays Every Saturday
Mirpur City ..	Mirpurkhas Gazette Musalman	Saturdays
Moga	Khichri Samachar	Daily
Moulmein	Daily Moga Commercial Report	Daily, except Sundays
Mount Road, Madras	Moulmein Advertiser	Thursdays.
Mussoorie	Hindu	Mondays.
Muttra	Mussoorie Times	Saturdays.
Muvattupuzha ..	Jain Gazette	Weekly
Muzaffarnagar ..	Kerala Dheepika	Wednesdays
Muzaffarpur ..	Weekly Sewak	Tuesdays.
Mymensingh ..	Loksangrah	Daily, except Sundays
Mysore	Charu Mihir	Daily
Nabadwip	Wealth of Mysore	Every Wednesday
Nadiad	Nadia Prakash	Tuesdays
Nagercoil	Jyoti	Wednesdays Saturdays
Nagpur	Travancore Times	Thursdays
	Hitavada Indian Labour Journal Maharashtra	Wednesdays Saturdays

Stations	Title in full.	Day of going to Press
Nagpur— <i>contd</i>	Mahakoshal	On Monday, Tuesday, Friday and Saturday
	Maheshwar	Every Sunday and Thursday.
	Nispruha	On Saturday.
	Swatantra Tarun Bharat Young Patriot	Daily, except Mondays On Tuesdays. Sundays.
Naini Tal .. .	Associated Press of India Naini Tal Gazette Wednesdays
Nasik .. .	Tokant Saturdays
Nathlagalli .. .	Associated Press of India
Naushahro .. .	Mata Shakti On Wednesdays every fortnight Mondays.
Nawabshah .. .	Nawabsha Gazette Mukhl On Wednesdays. Monthly.
New Delhi .. .	Free Press Bulletin Daily
	Free Press of India Statesman The United Press of India Daily.
Nova Goa .. .	Diario do Nolto Daily.
	Heraldo Daily, except Mondays
	O'Debate Mondays.
	O'Heraldo Daily, except Sundays and holidays.
Ootacamund .. .	Associated Press of India
	South of India Observer Nilgiri Times Daily issue, except Sundays Wednesdays.
Oral .. .	Utsah Thursdays.
Palamcottah .. .	Varantha Varthamannam Every Saturday.
Pandharpur .. .	Pandhari Mitra Sundays.
Pangsa .. .	Kangal Fridays.
Panjim, Goa .. .	O'Crente Saturdays.
Parur .. .	Uttara Tharaka Saturdays.
Patna .. .	Associated Press of India
	Behar Herald Saturdays.
	Express Daily.
	Free Press of India
	Indian Nation Daily
	Iteehad On Mondays.
Pen .. .	Mahaveer Daily.
	Patna Times On Saturdays.
	Searchlight Saturdays.
	Kolaba Samachar Fridays.
Peshawar .. .	Associated Press of India
	Khyber Mail On Sundays
	Sarhad Daily.
	The Frontier Advocate On Mondays

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press
Poona ..	Deccan Herald	Daily.
	Unyana Prakash	Daily, except Mondays
	Kesari	Tuesdays and Fridays
	Mahratta	Sundays
	Poona Star	Daily
Poona City ..	Servant of India	Wednesdays,
	Sakal	Daily, except Tuesdays
	Sun	Every Saturday
	Trikal	Daily
	War Cry	Monthly
Quadian (via Batala)	Dinabandhu	Every Thursday
	Lokashakti	On Monday and Thursday
	Satyagrahee	Bi-weekly
	Satyaprakash	Daily
	Servant of India	Weekly
Quetta	Shantidoot	Daily
	Tej	Daily, except Sunday
	Alfazel	Bi-weekly
	Alhakam	Weekly
	Alfarooq	Weekly
Gullon	Nur	Fortnightly
	Review of Religions (In English)	Monthly.
	Do (In Urdu)	Monthly.
	Baluchistan Gazette	Wednesdays and Saturdays
	Baluchistan Herald Daily Bulletin	Daily.
Rajkot	Desabhimani	Daily
	Malayala Rajyam	Wednesdays and Saturdays
	Malayali
	East & West Trade Developer	Last day of every month.
	Kathiawar Times	Wednesdays and Sundays.
Rampur (Kathiawar) ..	Lohana Hitechhu	Wednesdays
	Memon Bulletin	Every Friday
	Western India Press News Agency
	Saurashtra	Daily
	Associated Press of India
Rangoon ..	Burma Exchange Gazette and Daily Advertiser.	Daily.
	Burma Sunday Times	Sundays.
	Chinese Daily News
	Free Burma	Daily
	Free Press of India
Rangoon ..	Masonic Courier
	New Burma	Tri-weekly.
	New Light of Burma	Daily, except Mondays.
	Rangoon Daily News	Daily.
	Rangoon Evening Post	Week-days
Rangoon ..	Rangoon Gazette	Daily, except Mondays.

The Press.

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Stations.	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Surat	Daily Market Report Deshbandhu Deshi Mitra Finance Circular Gujarat Gujarat Mitra and Gujarat Darpat Investor Reports Daily Quotations Jain Mitra Khandwala Circular	Daily. Daily, except Sundays. Thursdays. Daily. Daily, except Sundays. Saturdays Daily, except Sundays Wednesdays Daily.
Sylhet	Muslim Gujarat Prata Pokar Pratap Samachar Samisany Share Circular Share Samachar Surat Alhbar The Hindu	Every Thursday Wednesdays Every Friday. Daily, except Mondays. Daily Daily, except Mondays Daily, except Mondays Sundays Daily
Tilhar	Janasakti Paridarsaka	On every Tuesday Wednesdays.
Tinnevely	Tilhar Munphat	4th, 11th, 18th and 25th of every month Monthly.
Thirupur	Kalpaka	Daily, except Mondays Daily, except Mondays
Tiruvalla	Daily Bombay Telegraphic Cotton News Daily Cotton Bulletin	Tuesdays and Fridays On Mondays, Wednesdays and Thursdays Every Thursday.
Tohana (via Hissar)	Nawabharathi	Daily, except Sundays Wednesdays.
Travancore	The Market Report The Star of India	Daily. Tuesdays, Saturdays Thursdays and
Trichinopoly	Chandamarutham Wednesday Review	Daily, except Mondays Mondays.
Trichur	Lokaprasasam	Daily.
Trivandrum	Associated Press of India Malayalam Daily News Reuter's Limited Samadarsa	Daily. Tuesdays, Saturdays Thursdays and
Tuticorin	Travancore Press Service Trivandrum Daily News.. The Link Western Star	Daily Saturdays Tuesdays. Saturdays Thursdays and
Udipi	Daily News The Daily Cotton News The Indo Foreign Market News	Daily. Daily. Daily.
Vizagapatam	Satyagrahi..	Thursdays.
Wai	Andhra Advocate	Fridays.
Wardha	Vrhattasar	Mondays.
Yotmal	Maharashtra Dharma Rajasthan Kesari..	Tuesdays, Saturdays.
	Lokamat	Thursdays.

Banking.

An event of great importance in the history of Indian banking was the formation on the 27th January 1921 of the Imperial Bank of India by amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras.

The idea of a Central Banking establishment for British India was mooted as early as 1836, and was the subject of a minute by Mr. James Wilson, when Finance Member, in 1859. Again, in 1867 Mr. Dickson, the well-known Secretary of the Bank of Bengal, submitted detailed proposals for an amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks. On various later occasions the matter was brought forward without result and it was discussed by the Chamberlain Commission on Indian Finance and Currency in 1913. The present scheme which has come to fruition was however the result of a *rapprochement* on the part of the Banks themselves as a result of the experience gained during the war and the realisation of the desirability of strengthening and extending the Banking system in India.

The Presidency Banks—The history of the Presidency Banks in their relationship with Government falls into three well-defined stages. Prior to 1862 the Presidency Banks had the right of note issue, but were directly controlled by Government and the scope of their business was restricted by their charters. The second period was from 1862 to 1876. In 1862 the Banks were deprived of the right of note issue, though by their agreements of that year they were authorised to transact the paper currency business as agents of Government. As compensation for the loss of their right of issue, they were given the use of the Government balances and the management of the treasury work at the Presidency towns and at their branches. The old statutory limitations on their business were at the same time greatly relaxed, though the Government's power of control remained unchanged. In 1866 the agreements were revised and the paper currency business was removed from their control and placed under the direct management of Government. The third period dates from the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 by which nearly all the most important limitations of the earlier period were reimposed. But, very briefly, the principal restrictions imposed by this Act prohibited the Banks from conducting foreign exchange business, from borrowing or receiving deposits payable out of India, and from lending for a longer period than six months, or upon mortgage or on the security of immovable property or upon promissory notes bearing less than two independent names or upon goods, and the goods of the title to them were deposited with the Bank as security. At the same time Government abandoned direct interference in the management, ceasing to appoint official directors and disposing of their shares in the Banks. The Banks no longer enjoyed the full use of the Government balances. Reserve Treasuries were constituted at the Presidency towns into which the surplus revenues were drawn and the balances left at the disposal of the Banks were strictly limited.

This system continued with only minor modifications until 1920. During the war, however, the policy was deliberately adopted of reducing the amount of the balances held in the Reserve Treasuries and leaving much larger balances with the Headquarters of the Presidency Banks in order to assist the money market.

The Imperial Bank of India—Under the Imperial Bank of India Act of 1920 as amended by the Amendment Act of 1934 which comes into force at such date as the Governor-General in Council may by notification in the Gazette of India appoint, the control of the Bank is entrusted to a Central Board of Directors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and such other places as the Central Board may determine. The Central Board of Directors shall consist of—

- (a) the presidents, vice-presidents and the secretaries of the Local Boards,
- (b) one person elected from amongst the members by each Local Board,
- (c) a Managing Director and a Deputy Managing Director appointed by the Central Board,
- (d) not more than two non-officials, nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

Representatives of any new Local Boards, which may be constituted, may be added at the discretion of the Central Board.

The Deputy Managing Director and the Secretaries of the Local Boards are entitled to attend the Meetings of the Central Board but not entitled to vote. The Deputy Managing Director is entitled to vote in the absence of the Managing Director.

The Governor-General in Council shall nominate an officer of Government to attend the Meetings of the Central Board but he shall not be entitled to vote.

Under the Imperial Bank of India Act of 1920 provision was made for the increase of the capital of the bank. The capital of the three Presidency Banks consisted of 3½ crores of rupees in shares of Rs 500 each, fully subscribed. The additional capital authorised was 7½ crores in shares of Rs 500 each, of which Rs 125 has been called up, making the present capital of the Bank Rs 11½ crores, of which Rs 5,62,50,000 has been paid up. The Reserve Fund of the Bank is Rs 5,35,00,000 and the Balance Sheet of 31st December 1934 showed the Government deposits at Rs 6,72,19,792, other deposits at Rs 74,27,94,823 and Cash Rs 18,97,37,908, with a percentage of cash to liabilities of 23.15.

Agreement with Reserve Bank of India—The Bank shall enter into an agreement with the Reserve Bank of India which shall be subject to the approval of the Governor-General in Council and will remain in force for 15 years and there-after until terminated after five years' notice on either side. Provisions to be contained in the agreement between the Imperial Bank of India and the Reserve Bank of India are—

The Imperial Bank of India shall be the sole agent of the Reserve Bank of India at all places in British India where there is a branch of the Imperial Bank of India which was in existence at the commencement of the Reserve Bank of India Act 1934, and there is no branch of the Banking Department of the Reserve Bank of India

In consideration of the performance of the Agency duties, the Reserve Bank of India shall pay to the Imperial Bank of India as remuneration a sum which shall be for the first ten years during which this agreement is in force a commission calculated at 1/16 per cent on the first 250 crores and 1/32 per cent on the remainder of the total of the receipts and disbursements dealt with annually on account of Government. As for the remaining five years the remuneration

to be paid to the Imperial Bank shall be determined on the basis of the actual cost to the Imperial Bank of India, as ascertained by expert accounting investigation

In consideration of the maintenance by the Imperial Bank of India of branches not less in number than those existing at the commencement of the Reserve Bank of India Act, the Reserve Bank of India shall, until the expiry of 15 years, make to the Imperial Bank the following payments —

- (a) during the first five years of this agreement Rs 9 lacs per annum,
- (b) during the next five years of the agreement Rs 6 lacs per annum, and
- (c) during the next five years of the agreement Rs 4 lacs per annum

The Directorate

Managing Governor

W Lamond, Esq

Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards

CALCUTTA—

H H Burn, Esq
C G Arthur, Esq, M C
B A C Neville, Esq

President
Vice-President
Secretary

BOMBAY—

E J Bunbury, Esq, M C
Sir Nowojib Saklatwala, Kt, C I E
J G Rudland, Esq

President
Vice-President
Secretary

MADRAS—

Sir William C Wright, Kt, C B E, V D
S V Ramaswamy Mudaliar, Esq,
R A Gray, Esq, M C

President
Vice-President
Secretary

CONTROLLER OF THE CURRENCY

J W Kelly, Esq, C I E (Offg)

Nominated by Government

Sir Dinshaw E Wacha, Kt, J P, Bombay
Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee, K C I E, K C V O, Calcutta
The Hon'ble Rajah Sir S R M Annamalai Chettiar, Kt, Madras

Manager in London

R R Burrell, Esq,

BRANCHES.

Burra Bazaar,
Calcutta.
Olive Street, Calcutta.
Park Street, Calcutta
Byculla, Bombay
Mandvi, Bombay
Sandhurst Road,
Bombay.
Mount Road, Madras.

Alleppey
Ambala.
Ambala Cant.
Amraoti.
Amritsar.
Asansol
Bangalore.
Barilly.
Bassain.
Bellury.
Benares.
Berhampore (Ganjam)
Bexwada
Bhagalpur.
Bhopal.
Broach
Bulsandshahr.
Calicut
Cawnpore.
Ochandpur

Chapra
Chittagong.
Cocanada.
Cochin
Coimbatore
Colombo
Cuddalore
Cuddapah
Cuttack
Dacca
Darbhanga
Darjeeling.
Dehra Dun,
Delhi
Dhanbad.
Dhulia.
Dibrugarh
Ellore.
Erode
Etawah.

Farrukhabad
Ferozepore
Fyzabad
Gaya
Godhra
Gojra
Gorakhpur.
Gujranwala
Guntur.
Gwalior.
Hathras
Howrah
Hubli
Hyderabad (Deccan)
Hyderabad (Sind)
Indore.
Jaipur.
Jalgaon.
Jalpalguri.
Jamshedpur

Jhansi
Jodhpur.
Jubbulpore
Jullundur.
Karachi
Kasur.
Katni
Khamgaon.
Khandwa
Kumbakonam

Lahore
Larkana
Lucknow.
Ludhiana
Lyallpur.

Madura
Mandalay
Mangalore
Masulipatam.
Meerut
Montgomery

Moradabad.
Moulmein.
Multan
Murree.
Mussoorie
Muttra.
Muzaffarnagar.
Muzaffarpur
Mylingyan.
Mymensingh
Nadlad
Nagpur.
Naini Tal
Nanded.
Nandyal.
Narangunge.
Nasik
Negapatam
Nellore
New Delhi
Nowshera

Ootacamund
Patna
Peshawar.
Peshawar City.
Poona
Poona City
Porbandar.
Purnea.
Quetta.
Raipur.
Rajahmundry
Rajkot
Rampur.
Rangoon
Rawalpindi
Saharanpur.
Salem
Sargodha.
Secunderabad
Shillong
Sholapur.

Skalkot.
Simla
Sitapur.
Srinagar (Kashmir).
Sukkur.
Surat.

Telli-cherry.
Tinnevely.
Tirupur.
Trichinopoly.
Trichur.
Trivandrum
Tuticorin.
Ujjain.
Vellore.
Vizagapatam.
Vizianagram
Wardha.
Yeotmal.

In Schedule 1, Part 1, of the Imperial Bank of India Act of 1920 as amended by the amendment Act of 1934, the various descriptions of business which the Bank may transact are laid down, and in Part 2 it is expressly provided that the Bank shall not transact any kind of banking business other than that sanctioned in Part 1

Briefly stated, the main classes of business sanctioned are —

(1) Advancing money upon the security of —

- (a) Stocks, etc., in which a trustee is authorised by act to invest trust moneys and shares of the Reserve Bank of India
- (b) Securities issued by State aided Railways, notified by the Governor-General-in-Council
- (c) Debentures, or other securities issued under Act, by, or on behalf of, a district or municipal board or under the authority of any State in India
- (d) Debentures of companies with limited liability registered in India or elsewhere
- (e) Goods, or documents of title thereto, deposited with, or assigned to the Bank
- (f) Goods hypothecated to the Bank against advances
- (g) Accepted Bills of Exchange or Promises
- (h) Fully paid shares of Companies with limited liability or immovable property or documents of title relating thereto, as collateral security where the original security is one of those specified in 'a' to 'f' and, if authorised by the Central Board, in 'g'

(2) With the sanction of the Local Government, advancing money to Courts of Wards upon security of estates in their charge for the period not exceeding nine months in the case of advances relating to the financing of seasonal agricultural operations or six months in other cases.

(3) Drawing, accepting, discounting, buying and selling of bills of exchange and other negotiable securities

(4) Investing the Banks' funds in the securities referred to in (1) a, b, c and d

(5) Making, issuing and circulating of bank post-bills and letters of credit to order or otherwise than to the bearer on demand

(6) Buying and selling gold and silver

(7) Receiving deposits

(8) Receiving securities for safe custody

(9) Selling and acquiring such properties as may come into the Bank's possession in satisfaction of claims

(10) Transacting agency business on commission and the entering into of contracts of indemnity, suretyship or guarantee

(11) Acting as Administrator, for winding up estates

(12) Drawing bills of exchange and granting letters of credit payable out of India

(13) Buying of bills of exchange payable out of India, at any usance not exceeding nine months in the case of bills relating to the financing of seasonal agricultural operations or six months in other cases

(14) Borrowing money upon security of assets of the Bank

(15) Subsidising the pension funds of the Presidency Banks, and

(16) Generally, the doing of the various kinds of business including foreign exchange business

The principal restrictions placed on the business of the Bank in Part 2 are as follows —

(1) It shall not make any loan or advance —

(a) For a longer period than six months except as provided in clauses 2 and 13 above;

(b) upon the security of stock or shares of the Bank,

(c) save in the case of estates specified in Part 1 (Courts of Ward) upon mortgage or security of immovable property or documents of title thereof.

(2) The amount which may be advanced to any individual or partnership is limited

(3) Discounts cannot be made or advances on personal security given, unless such discounts or advances carry with them the several responsibilities of at least two persons of firms unconnected with each other in general partnership

The Balance Sheet of the Bank as at 31st December 1934 was as follows :—

LIABILITIES	Rs	a.	p.	ASSETS.	Rs	a.	p.
Subscribed Capital	11,25,00,000	0	0	Government Securities	41,55,69,581	2	0
Capital Paid up	5,62,50,000	0	0	Other authorised Securities under the Act	..		
Reserve	5,35,00,000	0	0	Ways and Means Advances to the Government of India	5,00,00,000	0	0
Public Deposits	6,72,19,792	14	4	Loans	5,83,04,399	2	4
Other Deposits	74,27,94,823	5	5	Cash Credits	15,59,39,759	14	4
Loans against Securities - per contra				Inland Bills discounted and purchased	2,55,05,917	3	10
Loans from the Government of India under Section 20 of the Paper Currency Act, against Inland Bills discounted and purchased per contra				Foreign Bills discounted and purchased	4,26,456	1	8
				Bullion			
Contingent Liabilities				Dead Stock	2,45,90,464	11	1
Sundries ..	93,47,907	0	3	Liability of Constituents for Contingent Liabilities per contra			
				Sundries	85,13,083	6	1
				Balances with other Banks	5,24,949	13	7
					73,93,74,615	8	11
				Cash	18,97,37,908	1	1
Rupees	92,91,12,523	10	0	Rupees	92,91,12,523	10	0

The above Balance Sheet includes—

	£	s.	d.
Deposits in London ..	774,459	11	10
Advances and Investments in London	1,520,085	2	4
Cash and Balances at other Banks in London	43,432	12	2

Government Deposits

The following statement shows the Government deposits with each Bank at various periods during the last 40 years or so :—

In Lakhs of rupees.

—	Bank of Bengal.	Bank of Bombay	Bank of Madras.	Total	—	Bank of Bengal	Bank of Bombay.	Bank of Madras	Total
30th June									
1881 ..	230	61	53	344	1913 ..	247	167	68	482
1886 ..	329	82	39	450	1914 ..	290	197	93	580
1891 ..	332	97	53	482	1915 ..	263	187	102	552
1896 ..	225	88	57	370	1916 ..	330	263	115	714
1901 ..	187	90	63	340	1917 ..	1338	716	209	2263
1906 ..	186	93	46	325	1918 ..	664	549	213	1426
1911 ..	198	129	77	404	1919 ..	346	298	142	786
1912 ..	210	155	75	440	1920 ..	801	663	170	1634
					26th Jan. 1921.	364	206	138	709

IMPERIAL BANK.

30th June 1921	2,220
" 1922	1,672
" 1923	1,256
" 1924	2,208
" 1925	2,252
" 1926	3,254
" 1927	1,004
" 1928	796
" 1929	2,074
" 1930	1,391
" 1931	1,596
" 1932	1,908
" 1933	542
" 1934	751

Government Deposits.

Recent Progress

In Lairs of Rupees

* Includes Rs. 63 lakhs as a reserve for depreciation of investments

* Includes Rs. 63 lakhs as a reserve for depreciation			
†	67	"	"
‡	25	"	"

BANK OF BOMBAY.

		Capital	Reserve	Govt depo- sits.	Other depo- sits.	Cash	Invest- ments	Dividend for year
1900	..	100	70	87	432	129	89	11 per cent
1905	..	100	87	92	476	259	158	12 "
1906	..	100	92	101	532	354	177	12 "
1907	..	100	96	112	521	324	164	13 "
1908	..	100	101	94	532	377	149	13 "
1909	..	100	103	120	1035	415	163	13 "
1910	..	100	105	152	1053	436	149	14 "
1911	..	100	106	107	1104	463	208	14 "
1912	..	100	106	117	1124	515	210	14 "
1913	..	100	106	200	1015	477	232	14 "
1914	..	100	110	183	1081	646	202	15 "
1915	..	100	100	136	1079	423	276	15 "
1916	..	100	90	142	1367	667	312	15 "
1917	..	100	92	235	2817	1398	741	17 1/2 "
1918	..	100	101	177	1749	542	353	18 1/2 "
1919	..	100	110	262	2756	928	915	19 1/2 "
1920	..	100	120	349	2748	876	298	22 "

BANK OF MADRAS.

1900	..	60	22	35	260	82	67	9 per cent
1905	..	60	30	41	344	140	71	10 "
1906	..	60	32	54	355	151	81	10 "
1907	..	60	36	35	416	162	84	10 "
1908	..	60	40	52	447	153	84	11 "
1909	..	60	44	49	500	141	79	12 "
1910	..	60	48	72	567	184	85	12 "
1911	..	60	52	59	625	165	104	12 "
1912	..	75	70	75	743	196	113	12 "
1913	..	75	73	86	805	219	117	12 "
1914	..	75	76	91	761	207	134	12 "
1915	..	75	65	86	803	256	184	12 "
1916	..	75	55	104	960	286	161	12 "
1917	..	75	50	87	1020	496	94	12 "
1918	..	75	50	102	954	271	139	12 "
1919	..	75	45	104	1215	496	175	12 "
1920	..	75	45	118	1579	505	211	18 "

IMPERIAL BANK.

30th June								
1921	..	547	371	2220	7016	3433	1652	16 per cent
1922	..	562	411	1672	6336	3395	900	16 "
1923	..	562	435	1256	7047	2913	925	16 "
1924	..	562	457	2208	7662	2195	1175	16 "
1925	..	562	477	2252	7588	3582	1413	16 "
1926	..	562	492	3254	7530	4503	2183	16 "
1927	..	562	507	1004	7317	2283	2050	16 "
1928	..	562	517	796	7331	1377	2555	16 "
1929	..	562	527	2074	7233	3041	2469	16 "
1930	..	562	537	1391	7003	1696	2969	16 "
1931	..	562	542	1596	6615	1717	3077	14 "
1932	..	562	515	1908	6149	2201	2979	12 "
1933	..	562	520	582	7424	2308	3074	12 "
1934	..	562	527	791	7483	2165	3932	12 "

Proposal to Establish the Reserve Bank of India—A Bill to establish a Reserve Bank in India as an essential preliminary to the introduction of the scheme of Reforms to give India a Federal Government has been passed by the Legislative Assembly and Council of State and received the assent of the Governor-General on March 6th, 1934. The proposals embodied in the Bill are given below —

The Bank shall be constituted for the purposes of taking over the management of the currency from the Governor-General in Council and of carrying on the business of banking in accordance with the provisions of the Act. The original share capital of the Bank shall be five crores of rupees divided into shares of Rs. 100 each, which shall be fully paid-up, the maximum number of votes any one shareholder shall have is 10 every five shares carrying the right of one vote. The number of share registers shall be fixed at five to be maintained at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras and Rangoon and the nominal value of the shares assigned to each centre has been fixed at Rs. 140 lacs for Bombay, Rs. 115 lacs for Calcutta, Rs. 115 lacs for Delhi, Rs. 70 lacs for Madras and Rs. 30 lacs for Rangoon.

Management—The general superintendence and direction of the affairs and business of the Bank will be entrusted to a Central Board of Directors, which shall exercise all powers and do all acts and things which may be exercised and done by the Bank. The Board shall be composed of —

(a) A Governor and two Deputy Governors to be appointed by the Governor-General in Council after consideration of the recommendations made by the Board.

(b) Four Directors to be nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

(c) Eight Directors to be elected on behalf of the shareholders on the various registers.

(d) One Government official to be nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

The Governor and Deputy Governors shall be the executive heads, and shall hold office for such term not exceeding five years as the Governor-General in Council may fix when appointing them, and shall be eligible for re-appointment. A Local Board shall be constituted for each of the five areas.

Business which the Bank may transact—The Bank shall be authorised to carry on and transact the following commercial business, viz.—the accepting of money on deposit without interest, the purchase, sale and rediscount of bills of exchange and promissory notes within certain restrictions, the making of loans and advances repayable on demand but not exceeding a fixed amount against the security of stocks, funds and securities (other than immovable property), against gold coin or bullion or documents of title to the same and such bills of exchange and promissory notes as are eligible for purchase or rediscount by the Bank, the purchase from and sale to scheduled Banks of sterling in currencies of not less than the equivalent of Rs. 1 lacs, the making of advances to the Governor-General in Council and to Local Governments repayable in each case not later

than three months from the date of making the advance, the purchase and sale of Government securities of the United Kingdom maturing within ten years from the date of purchase, the purchase and sale of securities of the Government of India or of a Local Government of any maturity or of a local authority in British India or of certain States in India which may be specified.

The Bank shall act as Agent for the Secretary of State in Council, the Governor-General in Council or any Local Government or State in India for the purchase and sale of gold and silver, for the purchase, sale, transfer and custody of bills of exchange, securities or shares, for the collection of the proceeds, whether principal, interest or dividends, of any securities or shares, for the remittance of such proceeds by bill of exchange payable either in India or elsewhere, and for the management of public debt.

Right to issue Bank Notes—The Bank shall have the sole right to issue bank notes in British India and at the commencement shall issue currency notes of the Government of India supplied to it by the Governor-General in Council and on and from the date of such transfer the Governor-General in Council shall not issue any currency notes. The issue of bank notes shall be conducted by the Bank in an Issue Department which shall be separated and kept wholly distinct from the Banking Department.

In addition to the note issue obligation the Bank shall undertake to accept monies for account of the Secretary of State in Council, the Governor-General in Council and of Local Governments and shall carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations including the management of the public debt on such conditions as may be agreed upon.

Obligation to Sell or Buy Sterling—The Bank shall sell to or buy from any person who makes a demand in that behalf at its office in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras or Rangoon, sterling for immediate delivery in London at a rate not lower than 1sh 5 4d-6d and not higher than 1sh 6 8-16d respectively, provided that no person shall be entitled to demand to buy or sell an amount of sterling less than ten thousand pounds. Every scheduled bank shall maintain with the Reserve Bank a balance of not less than 5 per cent of their demand and 2 per cent of their time liabilities.

Allocation of Surplus—The Governor-General in Council shall transfer to the Bank rupee securities of the value of Rs. five crores to be allocated by the Bank to Reserve Fund.

After making the necessary and usual provisions out of profits, a cumulative dividend at such rate not exceeding five per cent per annum on the share capital as the Governor-General in Council may fix at the time of the issue of the shares shall be paid and the surplus shall be allocated to the payment of an additional dividend to the shareholders calculated on the scales prescribed in the Act and the balance of the surplus shall be paid to the Governor-General in Council.

Provided that so long as the Reserve Fund is less than the share capital, not less than fifty lacs of rupees of the surplus or the whole of the surplus if less than that amount shall be allocated to the Reserve Fund.

Publication of the Bank Rate—The Bank shall make public from time to time the standard rate at which it is prepared to buy or

re-discount bills of exchange or other commercial paper eligible for purchase under the Act

The Bank will publish the account of both the Issue and Banking Departments weekly in the *Gazette of India*

The Bank shall create an Agricultural Credit Department

The full text of the Reserve Bank Act is reproduced elsewhere in the Year Book

THE EXCHANGE BANKS.

The Banks carrying on Exchange business in India are merely branch agencies of Banks having their head offices in London, on the continent, or in the Far East and the United States. Originally their business was confined almost exclusively to the financing of the external trade of India; but in recent years most of them, while continuing to finance this part of India's trade, have also taken an active part in the financing of the internal portraun also at the places where their branches are situated.

At one time the Banks carried on their operations in India almost entirely with money borrowed elsewhere, principally in London—the home offices of the Banks attracting deposits for use in India by offering rates of interest much higher than the English Banks were able to quote. Within recent years however it has been discovered that it is possible to attract deposits in India on quite as favourable terms as can be done in London and a very large proportion of the financing done by the Exchange Banks is now carried through by means of money actually borrowed in India. No information is available as to how far each Bank has secured deposits in India, but the following statement published by the Director General of Statistics in India shows how rapidly such deposits have grown in the aggregate within recent years

TOTAL DEPOSITS OF ALL EXCHANGE BANKS SECURED IN INDIA.

In Lakhs of Rupees.

1900	1050
1905	1704
1910	2479
1915	3354
1916	3803
1917	5337
1918	6185
1919	7435
1920	7480
1921	7519
1922	7338
1923	6844
1924	7062
1925	7054
1926	7154
1927	6886
1928	7113
1929	6665
1930	6811
1931	6747
1932	7306

Exchange Banks' Investments.

Turning now to the question of the investment of the Banks' resources, so far as it concerns India, this to a great extent consists of the purchase of bills drawn against imports and exports to and from India

This financing of the import trade originated and is earned through however for the most part by Branches outside India, the Indian Branches' share in the business consisting principally in collecting the amount of the bills at maturity and in furnishing their other branches with information as to the means and standing of the drawees of the bills, and it is as regards the export business that the Indian Branches are more immediately concerned. The Exchange Banks have practically a monopoly of the export finance in India and in view of the dimensions of the trade which has to be dealt with the Banks would under ordinary circumstances require to utilise a very large proportion of their resources in carrying through the business. They are able however by a system of rediscount in London to limit the employment of their own resources to a comparatively small figure in relation to the business they actually put through. No definite information can be secured as to the extent to which rediscounting in London is carried on but the following figures appearing in the balance sheets dated 31st December 1933 of the undernoted Banks will give some idea of this

LIABILITY ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE PRE- DISCOUNTED AND STILL CURRENT

	£.
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	3,477,000
Eastern Bank, Ltd	183,000
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation	1,074,000
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd	1,363,000
National Bank of India, Ltd	2,932,000
P & O Banking Corporation, Ltd	1,330,000
	<hr/> 10,414,000

The above figures do not of course relate to re-discounts of Indian bills alone, as the Banks operate in other parts of the world also, but it may safely be inferred that bills drawn in India form a very large proportion of the whole

The bills against exports are largely drawn at three months' sight and may either be "clean" or be accompanied by the documents relating to the goods in respect of which they are drawn. Most of them are drawn on well-known firms at home or on credit opened by Banks or financial houses in England and bearing as they do an Exchange Bank endorsement they are readily taken up by the discount houses and Banks in London. Any bills purchased in India are sent home by the first post. Mail on that presumption they are rediscounted as soon as they reach London. The Exchange Banks are able to secure the return of their money in about 10 or 17 days instead of having to wait for three months which would be the case if they were unable to rediscount. It must not be assumed however that all bills are rediscounted as soon as they reach London as at times it suits the Banks to hold up the bills in anticipation of a fall in the London discount rate while on occasions also the Banks

prefer to hold the bills on their own account as an investment until maturity.

The Banks place the onerous liability on India for the purpose of purchasing export bills in a variety of ways of which the following are the principal—

- (1) Purchase of Import bills as they mature.
- (2) Sale of drafts and telegraphic transfers payable in London and cleared by a bill of exchange.
- (3) Purchase of Commercial bills and Telegraphic Transfers payable in India from the treasury of India.
- (4) Imports of foreign drafts and bills.
- (5) Imports of a certain kind from London, Egypt or Australia.

The operations here are transacted by the Private India branch of the Bank and are not to be given in detail.

The following is a statement of the position of the various Banks and their capital and reserves in India as at 31st December 1907—

In The year 1907

Name	Capital	Reserve	Div. %	Cash and Investments
Bank of Taiwan, Ltd	772	100	11.50	3,000
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	1,000	3,000	10.50	31,141
Comptoir National D'Escompte de Paris	1,300	3,000	10.10	19,127
Eastern Bank, Ltd	1,000	500	7.00	5,809
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation	1,117	7,223	63.270	32,380
Imperial Bank of Persia	670	720	11.28	4,521
Lloyds Bank, Ltd	15,810	8,500	37.00	235,707
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd	1,000	1,075	12.248	8,264
Mitsui Bank, Ltd	8,520	2,072	41.678	27,160
National Bank of India, Ltd	2,000	2,200	29.636	19,937
National City Bank of New York	25,500	6,000	278.920	206,468
Netherlands Trading Society	10,913	2,720	33.624	14,305
Netherlands India Commercial Bank	7,500	3,039	12.314	11,876
P & O Banking Corporation, Ltd.	2,504	180	6.433	7,935
Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd	5,882	7,308	34.470	29,536

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

Previous to 1906 there were few Banks of this description operating in India, and such as were then in existence were of comparatively small importance and had their business confined to a very restricted area. The rapid development of this class of Bank, which has been so marked a feature in Banking within recent years, really had its origin in Bombay and set in with the establishment of the Bank of India and the Indian Specie Bank in 1906. After that time there was a perfect stream of new flotations, and although many of the new Companies confined themselves to legitimate banking business, on the other hand a very large number engaged in other businesses in addition and can hardly be properly classed as Banks.

These Banks made very great strides during the first few years of their existence, but it was generally suspected in well informed circles that the business of many of the Banks was of a very speculative and unsafe character and it was a matter of no great surprise to many people when it became known that some of the Banks were in difficulties.

The first important failure to take place was that of the People's Bank of India and the loss of confidence caused by the failure of that Bank resulted in a very large number of other failures, the principal being that of the Indian Specie Bank.

Since those events of ten years ago confidence has been largely restored. But in April 1923 the Alliance Bank of Simla suspended payment and is now in voluntary liquidation. The effect of the failure of this old established Bank might have been disastrous but for the prompt action of the Imperial Bank which dealt with the situation in close association with the Government of India. The Imperial Bank undertook to pay the depositors of the Alliance Bank 50 per cent of the amounts due to them. A panic was averted and a critical period was passed through with little difficulty.

During 1923 the Tata Industrial Bank, which was established in 1918, was merged in the Central Bank of India.

The following shows the position of the better known existing Banks as it appears in the latest available Balance Sheets —

In Lakhs of Rupees

Name.	Capital	Reserve.	Deposits	Cash and Investments
Allahabad Bank, Ltd, affiliated to P & O Banking Corporation Ltd	35	44	1,025	625
Bank of Baroda, Ltd	30	22	628	429
Bank of India, Ltd	100	102	1,405	392
Bank of Mysore, Ltd	20	22	193	94
Central Bank of India, Ltd	168	70	2,447	1,575
Indian Bank, Ltd (Madras)	12	15	190	47
Punjab National Bank, Ltd	31	21	472	177
Union Bank of India, Ltd	39	7	51	63

Growth of Joint Stock Banks.

The following figures appearing in the Report of the Director-General of Statistics show the growth of the Capital, Reserve and Deposits of the principal Joint Stock Banks registered in India —

Growth of Joint Stock Banks.				Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits.		
The following figures appearing in the Report of the Director-General of Statistics show the growth of the Capital, Reserve and Deposits of the principal Joint Stock Banks registered in India —				1914	..	251	141	1710
				1915	..	281	156	1797
				1916	..	287	173	2471
				1917	..	303	162	3117
				1918	..	436	165	4059
				1919	..	539	224	5899
				1920	..	837	255	7114
				1921	..	938	300	7689
				1922	..	802	261	6163
				1923	..	659	284	4442
In Lakhs of rupees.				1924	..	690	380	5270
				1925	..	673	386	5449
				1926	..	676	408	5958
				1927	..	688	419	6084
				1928	..	674	431	6235
				1929	..	786	366	6272
				1930	..	744	440	6321
				1931	..	777	426	6222
				1932	..	781	490	7231
				In Lakhs of rupees.				1875
1880	..	18	3					68
1885	..	18	5					94
1890	..	33	17					270
1895	..	63	31					566
1900	..	82	45					807
1906	..	133	56					1155
1910	..	275	100					2565
1911	..	285	126					2529
1912	..	291	134					2725
1913	..	231	132	2259				

INDIAN PRIVATE BANKERS AND SHROFFS.

Indian private Bankers and Shroffs flourished in India long before Joint Stock Banks were ever thought of, and it seems likely that they will continue to thrive for some very considerable time to come. The use of the word "Shroff" is usually associated with a person who charges usurious rates of interest to impecunious people, but this is hardly fair to the people known as "shroffs" in banking circles, as there is no doubt that the latter are of very real service to the business community and of very great assistance to Banks in India. Under present conditions the Banks in India can never hope to be able to get into sufficiently close touch with the affairs of the vast trading community in India to enable them to grant accommodation to more than a few of these traders direct and it is in his capacity as middleman that the shroff proves of such great service. In this capacity also he brings a very considerable volume of business within the scope of the Presidency Banks Act, and enables the Presidency Banks to give accommodation which, without his assistance, the Banks would not be permitted to give. The shroff's position as an intermediary between the trading community and the Banks usually arises in some way after the following manner. A shopkeeper in the bazaar, with limited means of his own, finds that, after using all his own money, he still requires say Rs 25,000 to stock his shop suitably. He thereupon approaches the shroff, and the latter after very careful inquiries as to the shopkeeper's position grants the accommodation, if he is satisfied that the business is safe. The business, as a rule, is arranged through a hoondee broker, and in the case referred to the latter may probably approach about ten shroffs and secure accommodation from them to the extent of Rs 2,500 each. A hoondee is almost invariably taken by the shroffs in respect of such advances.

A stage is reached however when the demands on the shroffs are greater than they are able to meet out of their own money, and it is at this

point that the assistance of the Banks is called into requisition. The shroffs do this by taking a number of the bills they already hold to the Banks for discount under their endorsement, and the Banks accept such bills freely to an extent determined in each case by the standing of the shroff and the strength of the drawers. The extent to which any one shroff may grant accommodation in the bazaar is therefore dependent on two factors, viz, (1) the limit which he himself may think it advisable to place on his transactions, and (2) the extent to which the Banks are prepared to discount bills bearing his endorsement. The shroffs keep in very close touch with all the traders to whom they grant accommodation, and past experience has shown that the class of business above referred to is one of the safest the Banks can engage in.

The rates charged by the shroffs are usually based on the rates at which they in turn can discount the bills with the Banks and necessarily vary according to the standing of the borrower and with the season of the year. Generally speaking, however, a charge of two annas per cent per mensem above the Bank's rate of discount, or $1\frac{1}{2}\%$, is a fair average rate charged in Bombay to a first class borrower. Rates in Calcutta and Madras are on a slightly higher scale due in a great measure to the fact that the competition among the shroffs for business is not so keen in these places as it is in Bombay.

The shroffs who engage in the class of business above described are principally Marwaries and Mithanias having their Head Offices for the most part in Bikaner and Shikarpur, respectively, the business elsewhere than at the Head Offices being carried on by "Moomums" who have very wide powers.

It is not known to what extent native bankers and shroffs receive deposits and engage in exchange business throughout India, but there is no doubt that this is done to a very considerable extent.

THE BANK RATE.

Formerly each Presidency Bank fixed its own Bank Rate, and the rates were not uniform. Now the Imperial Bank fixes the rate for the whole of India. The rate fixed represents the rate charged by the Banks on demand loans against Government securities only and advances on other securities or discounts are granted as

a rule at a slightly higher rate. Ordinarily such advances or discounts are granted at from one-half to one per cent over the official rate, but this does not always apply and in the monsoon months, when the Bank rate is sometimes nominal, it often happens that such accommodation is granted at the official rate or even less.

The following statement shows the average Bank Rates since the Imperial Bank was constituted —

Year	1st Half-year	2nd Half-year	Yearly average
1922	7 132	4 510	5 821
1923	7 410	4 5	5 950
1924	8 05	5 315	6 682
1925	8 585	4 761	5 643
1926	5 051	4 7	4 825
1927	6 508	4 956	5 732
1928	6 945	5 456	6 2
1929	6 878	5 768	6 333
1930	6 508	5 277	5 892
1931	6 735	7 353	7 044
1932	6 022	4 03	
1933	3 627	3 5	
1934	3 5	3 5	

BANKERS' CLEARING HOUSES.

The principal Clearing Houses in India are, and to receive in exchange all cheques drawn on him negotiated by the latter. After all those of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, Colombo and Karachi, and of these the first three cheques have been received and delivered two are by far the most important. The representative of each bank advises the members at the respective council of the Imperial settling Bank of the difference between his Bank, most of the Exchange Banks and English total receipts and deliveries and the settling Banking Agency firms, and a few of the better Bank thereafter strikes a final balance to itself known of the local Joint Stock Banks. No Bank itself that the totals of the debtor balances is entitled to claim to be a member as of right agrees with the total of the creditor balances and any application for admission to a Clearing The debtor Banks thereafter arrange to pay the amounts due by them to the settling Bank during the course of the day and the latter in turn arranges to pay on receipt of those amounts the balances due to the creditor Banks. In the practice however all the members keep Bank accounts with the settling Bank so that the final balances are settled by cheques and book entries thus doing away with the necessity for cash in any form.

The duties of settling Bank are undertaken by the Imperial Bank at each of the places mentioned and a representative of each member attends at the office of that Bank on each business day at the time fixed to deliver all cheques he may have negotiated on other members.

The figures for the Clearing House in India above referred to are given below:—

Total amount of Cheques Cleared Annually.

In lakhs of Rupees.

	Calcutta	Bombay.	Madras	Rangoon	Colombo.	Karachi	Total
1901	Not available	0711	1333	Not available	..	176	8327
1902	..	7013	1206	263	8576
1903	..	8702	1404	310	10566
1904	..	9402	1636	363	11333
1905	..	10927	1660	324	12311
1906	..	10912	1583	400	12393
1907	..	22141	12046	630	37167
1908	..	21281	12586	643	33263
1909	..	10776	14376	702	36901
1910	..	22238	10662	4765	..	765	46527
1911	..	25703	17606	5300	..	702	51612
1912	..	28831	20831	1162	0043	1150	68016
1913	..	37133	21690	2340	6198	1210	64780
1914	..	28031	17006	2127	4380	1715	64165
1915	..	32200	10402	1887	4060	1332	56036
1916	..	48017	24051	2105	4853	1503	60910
1917	..	47193	33036	2330	4066	2028	90181
1918	..	74307	63302	2628	0027	2429	139643
1919	..	90241	76260	3004	8837	2266	180598
1920	..	153388	120363	7600	10779	3120	201140
1921	..	91672	89788	3817	11875	3579	200781
1922	..	94426	86683	4270	12220	9681	210523
1923	..	89148	76015	4722	11094	11040	195083
1924	..	92240	63260	5546	11535	13134	192246
1925	..	101883	51944	5710	12193	14078	191093
1926	..	96944	42006	6088	12311	10033	176406
1927	..	102392	39826	6020	12000	15007	179310
1928	..	108819	54308	6540	12035	15446	200093
1929	..	99765	79968	6877	13100	16430	215917
1930	..	80313	71205	6218	11483	12003	191862
1931	..	75027	63082	4401	8166	8852	163397
1932	..	74050	64637	4722	7506	7466	161570
1933	..	82308	64562	5160	6807	7220	167669
1934	..	80373	68321	5761	6737	8007	177673

TABLE OF WAGES, INCOME, &c.

Showing the amount for one or more days at the rates of 1 to 10 Rupees per Month of 31 Days

Rupees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	0	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Days	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p	Rsa p
1	0 0 60	0 1 00	0 1 60	0 2 00	0 2 60	0 3 00	0 3 70	0 4 10	0 4 70	0 5 10	0 5 80	0 6 20	0 6 80	0 7 30	0 7 90	0 8 30
2	0 1 00	0 2 00	0 3 00	0 4 00	0 5 00	0 6 00	0 7 00	0 8 00	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00
3	0 1 60	0 2 60	0 3 60	0 4 60	0 5 60	0 6 60	0 7 60	0 8 60	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60
4	0 2 00	0 3 00	0 4 00	0 5 00	0 6 00	0 7 00	0 8 00	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00
5	0 2 60	0 3 60	0 4 60	0 5 60	0 6 60	0 7 60	0 8 60	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60
6	0 3 00	0 4 00	0 5 00	0 6 00	0 7 00	0 8 00	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00
7	0 3 60	0 4 60	0 5 60	0 6 60	0 7 60	0 8 60	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60
8	0 4 00	0 5 00	0 6 00	0 7 00	0 8 00	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00
9	0 4 60	0 5 60	0 6 60	0 7 60	0 8 60	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60
10	0 5 00	0 6 00	0 7 00	0 8 00	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00
11	0 5 60	0 6 60	0 7 60	0 8 60	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60
12	0 6 00	0 7 00	0 8 00	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00
13	0 6 60	0 7 60	0 8 60	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60
14	0 7 00	0 8 00	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00
15	0 7 60	0 8 60	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60
16	0 8 00	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00	0 23 00
17	0 8 60	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60	0 23 60
18	0 9 00	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00	0 23 00	0 24 00
19	0 9 60	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60	0 23 60	0 24 60
20	0 10 00	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00	0 23 00	0 24 00	0 25 00
21	0 10 60	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60	0 23 60	0 24 60	0 25 60
22	0 11 00	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00	0 23 00	0 24 00	0 25 00	0 26 00
23	0 11 60	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60	0 23 60	0 24 60	0 25 60	0 26 60
24	0 12 00	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00	0 23 00	0 24 00	0 25 00	0 26 00	0 27 00
25	0 12 60	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60	0 23 60	0 24 60	0 25 60	0 26 60	0 27 60
26	0 13 00	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00	0 23 00	0 24 00	0 25 00	0 26 00	0 27 00	0 28 00
27	0 13 60	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60	0 23 60	0 24 60	0 25 60	0 26 60	0 27 60	0 28 60
28	0 14 00	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00	0 23 00	0 24 00	0 25 00	0 26 00	0 27 00	0 28 00	0 29 00
29	0 14 60	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60	0 23 60	0 24 60	0 25 60	0 26 60	0 27 60	0 28 60	0 29 60
30	0 15 00	0 16 00	0 17 00	0 18 00	0 19 00	0 20 00	0 21 00	0 22 00	0 23 00	0 24 00	0 25 00	0 26 00	0 27 00	0 28 00	0 29 00	0 30 00
31	0 15 60	0 16 60	0 17 60	0 18 60	0 19 60	0 20 60	0 21 60	0 22 60	0 23 60	0 24 60	0 25 60	0 26 60	0 27 60	0 28 60	0 29 60	0 30 60

question of the organization and working of the Indian Railways, and he recommended that the existing system should be replaced by a Railway Board, consisting of a Chairman and two members with a Secretary. The Board was formally constituted in March 1905. The Board was made subordinate to the Government of India in which it was represented by the Department of Commerce and Industry. It prepared the railway programme of expenditure and considered the greater questions of policy and economy affecting all the lines. Its administrative duties included the construction of new lines by State agency, the carrying out of new works on open lines, the improvement of railway management with regard both to economy and public convenience, the arrangements for through traffic, the settlement of disputes between lines, the control and promotion of the staff on State lines, and the general supervision over the working and expenditure of the Company's lines. Certain minor changes have taken place from time to time since the constitution of the Railway Board. In 1908, to meet the complaint that the Board was subjected to excessive control by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the powers of the Chairman were increased and he was given the status of a Secretary to Government with the right of independent access to the Viceroy, he usually sat in the Imperial Legislative Council as the representative of the Railway interest. In 1912 in consequence of complaints of the excessive interference of the Board with the Companies, an informal mission was undertaken by Lord Incheape to reconcile differences. Various changes were introduced during the years 1912-1920 such as the modification of the rule that the President and members of the Railway Board should all be men of large experience in the working of railways due to the importance of financial and commercial considerations in connection with the control of Indian Railway policy. This decision was, however, revised in 1920 and an additional appointment of Financial Adviser to the Railway Board created instead. The question of the most suitable organization was further fully examined by the Acworth Committee in 1921 and a revised organization which is described later was introduced from 1st April 1924.

Some of the difficulties involved in the constitution of a controlling authority for the railways of India may be realized from a study of the "Notes on the Relation of the Government to Railways in India" printed as an appendix to Volume I of the Annual Report by the Railway Board on Indian Railways. These notes bring out the great diversity of conditions prevailing which involve the Railway Department in the exercise of the functions of—

(a) the directly controlling authority of the State-worked systems aggregating 18,499 miles in on the 31st March 1929,

(b) the representative of the predominant owning partner in systems aggregating 29,451 miles,

(c) the guarantor of many of the smaller companies, and

(d) the statutory authority over all railways in India.

Moreover in all questions relating to railways or extra municipal tramways in which Provincial

Governments are concerned, the Railway Department is called upon to watch the interest of the Central Government and is frequently asked to advise the Local Governments. Its duties do not end there. The future development of railways depends largely on the Government of India and the Railway Department is therefore called upon to plan out schemes of development, to investigate and survey new lines and to arrange for financing their construction. The evolution of a satisfactory authority for the administration of these varied functions has proved extremely difficult and the question was one of those referred to the Railway Committee (1920-21) presided over by Sir William Acworth who recommended the early appointment of a Chief Commissioner of Railways whose first duty should be to prepare a definite scheme for the reorganization of the Railway Department and Mr C. D. M. Hindley, formerly Agent of the East Indian Railway and Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust, was appointed Chief Commissioner on November 1st, 1922.

The principal constitutional change involved in this appointment is that the Chief Commissioner who takes the place of the President of the Railway Board is solely responsible—under the Government of India—for arriving at decisions on technical matters and for advising the Government of India on matters of railway policy and is not, as was the President, subject to be out-voted and over-ruled by his colleagues on the Board. The detailed re-organization of the Railway Board in accordance with the Chief Commissioner's proposals required careful consideration but one of the most important of his recommendations namely the appointment of a Financial Commissioner was considered of particular urgency and the Secretary of State's sanction was therefore obtained to the appointment with effect from 1st April 1923. While in the person of the Chief Engineer the Railway Board has always had available the technical advice of a senior Civil Engineer in Mechanical Engineering questions it has had to depend on outside assistance. The disadvantages of this arrangement have become increasingly evident and it was therefore decided with effect from November 1st, 1922, to create the new appointment of Chief Mechanical Engineer with the Railway Board.

The reorganization carried out in 1924 had for one of its principal objects the relief to the Chief Commissioner and the Members from all but important work so as to enable them to devote their attention to larger questions of railway policy and to enable them to keep in touch with Local Governments, railway administrations and public bodies by touring to a greater extent than they had been able to do in the past.

This object was effected by the following new posts which in some cases supplemented the existing ones and in other cases replaced them: Directors of Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Traffic, Establishment and Finance and seven Deputy Directors working under them.

The necessity of some central organization to co-ordinate the publicity central carried out on railways and to undertake work on the many forms of railways publicity which can be best

Open Mileage—The total route mileage on March 31st, 1933 was made up of—

Broad-gauge	21,131 77 miles
Metre-gauge.. . . .	17,644 66 "
Narrow-gauge	4,176 91 "

Under the classification adopted for statistical purposes, this mileage is divided between the three classes of railways as follows—

Class I	38,298 10 miles
Class II	3,509 64 "
Class III	1,145 60 "

During the year 1933-34 the mileage of new lines under construction was 50 37 miles.

Class I Railways	Number of seats in passenger carriages.			
	1st	2nd	Inter	Third
5'-0"	24,082	45,302	65,140	674,837
3'-3½"	10,904	14,876	17,778	371,898

Financial Results of Working.—The total gross earnings of all railways in India during the year 1933-34 amounted to Rs 80½ crores or nearly 2½ crores more than in the previous year. The figures of receipts and expenditure for railways with which the Government are directly concerned are as follows.—

(Based on actuals of penultimate year 1931-32.)

	(Figures in thousands)	
	Rs.	Rs
1. 1 per cent on capital of Rs 7,22,91,99 at charge—commercial lines—to end of 1931-32		7,22,95
(i) Receipts (1931-32)—		
Gross traffic receipts—commercial lines	85,31,16	
Subsidized companies—share of surplus profits	14,75	
Interest on depreciation and reserve fund balances and dividends on investments in branch lines and miscellaneous receipts	99,17	
Total Receipts		80,15,08
(ii) Charges (1931-32)—		
Working expenses—commercial lines	60,05,01	
Indian States and railway companies' share of surplus profits	64,19	
Land and subsidy	9,17	
Interest—		
On capital at charge—commercial lines	30,26,02	
On capital contributed by Indian States and companies	1,31,14	
Miscellaneous railway expenditure	41,71	
Contribution at 1 per cent on capital at charge—commercial lines	7,22,95	
Total Charges		1,00,01,00
(iii) Deficit		11,46,01
(iv) Contribution of 1/5th of surplus
4. Total contribution from railway revenues 1 plus 2 (iv)		7,22,95
Indirect—Loss on strategic lines—		
(i) Interest on capital	1,18,87	
(ii) Miscellaneous railway expenditure	4,05	
(iii) Loss in working	43,48	
(iv) Interest on the amount of loss in working met from Depreciation Reserve Fund of commercial lines	5,55	
		2,01,95
4. Net payment due from railway to general revenues in 1933-34		5,21,00

After meeting all interest and annuity charges Government therefore received a net profit of 4 04 crores on the capital at charge of the State minus the net receipts, that is the gross receipts minus the working expenses, have in recent years given the following returns —

	Percent
1913-14	5 01
1923-24	5 24
1924-25	5 85
1925-26	5 31
1926-27	4 95
1927-28	5 80
1928-29	5 22
1929-30	4 65
1930-31	Nil
1931-32	Nil
1932-33	Nil
1933-34	Nil

Up-to-date figures of the results of working of other countries are not available, but the following table compares the latest available figures of average receipts per ton mile of those countries which have published statistics of working later than 1919 —

	Receipts per ton mile Pies.
United States of America 1929	5 70
United Kingdom 1929	15 15
Japan 1927-28	7 26
Switzerland 1928	20 25
South Australia 1928-29	17 25
Canadian Railways 1929	5 75
India 1929-30	6 14

In the case of receipts per passenger mile the figures for United States of America and India are as follows —

United States of America 1929	14 78 pies
India 1929-30	3 28 "

while in England the present standard fare charged per mile third class is 18 pies

From the above it will be seen that railway transportation of freight in India is one of the cheapest in the world and still more so for passenger traffic

An examination of the latest available figures of operating ratios of foreign countries brings out results not unfavourable to Indian Railways

Year.	Operating Ratio
	per cent
United States of America	74
France	84 15
English Railways	79 10
South African Railways	77 80
Argentine Railways	71 07
Canadian Railways	81 21
India	51 79
1913-14	62 69
1925-26	62 01
1926-27	61 33
1927-28	62 77
1928-29	65 02
1929-30	71 08
1931-32	71 61
1932-33	71
1933-34	

Output of Railway owned Collieries—The output of railway owned collieries during 1930-31 was—

2,026,812 tons for a total of 6,629,014 tons
Consumed for 1931-32 the figures are
2,484,391 tons for a total of 5,759,398 tons
For 1932-33 the figures are
2,470,020 tons for a total of 5,935,826 tons

Number of Staff—The total number of employees on Indian Railways at the end of the year 1933-34 was 701,362 as compared with 710,512 at the end of 1932-33. The following table shows the number of employees by communities on 31st March 1932, 1933 and 1934 —

	Europeans	Statutory Inurans					
		Hindus	Muham- madians	Anglo- Indians	Sikhs	Indian Christians	Other
31st March 1932	4,532	520,575	137,876	13,370	8,767	14,498	12,541
31st March 1933	4,297	504,082	152,875	13,048	8,591	13,574	11,591
31st March 1934	3,908	407,595	151,625	12,814	8,539	16,167	10,971

Indianisation—The various Railway Companies managing State and other Railway lines have followed the lead given by Government and accepted the recommendation of the Lee Commission that the extension of existing training facilities should be pressed forward as expeditiously as possible in order that recruitment in India may be advanced as soon as

practicable up to 75 per cent of the total number of vacancies in the Superior Services of the Railway concerned

Fatalities and Injuries—During the year 1931-32 the number of persons killed decreased by 292 as compared with the previous year, the number of passengers killed decreased by 82 and of passengers injured by 125.

The following table shows the numbers killed and injured separately under passengers, railway servants and others for 1932-33 as compared with 1931-32 —

	Killed.		Injured.	
	1932-33	1933-34	1932-33.	1933-34.
A — Passengers				
In accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	6	21	61	163
In accidents caused by movements of trains and railway vehicles exclusive of train accidents	215	204	761	785
In accidents on Railway premises in which the movement of trains, vehicles, etc., was not concerned	10	7	21	19
B — Railway Servants				
In accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent way, etc.	8	0	73	23
In accidents caused by movements of trains and railway vehicles exclusive of train accidents	184	177	1,789	1,975
In accidents on Railway premises in which the movement of trains, vehicles, etc., was not concerned	24	33	5,922	6,357
C — Other than passengers and railway servants				
In accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	41	45	103	86
In accidents caused by movements of trains and railway vehicles exclusive of train accidents	2,225	2,307	698	67
In accidents on Railway premises in which the movements of trains, vehicles, etc., was not concerned	44	29	75	708
Total	2,757	2,826	9,509	10,082

Local Advisory Committees—In the Annual Reports by the Railway Board on the working of Indian Railways, references are made each year to the work that is being done by Local Advisory Committees on railways in bringing to the notice of their respective railway administrations matters affecting the general public in which respect is were of the railway. These committees have been established and are functioning on all Class I Railways, except the Eastern District Railway, the Nizam's State Railway and the Jaipur Railway. During 1929-30, the Bara Light Railway constituted an Advisory Committee for that line.

The committees constitute a valuable link between railways and their clientele.

The following is a list of some of the more important matters discussed —

Improvements in coaching stock, Provision of cold storage compartments, Provision of Indian dining cars, Reduction of rates and fares, Arrangements for dealing with traffic at festivals, Reservation of seats in intermediate class carriages; Supply of drinking water to passengers, Sleeping accommodation for passengers; Provision of bathing cabins at stations, Despatch of ordinary of goods, Portage charge over railway bridges, Overcrowding in lower class carriages, Provision of waiting rooms for ladies, Combustion of culverts of permanent openings for flood water, Electrification of railway stations, Provision of over-bridges, Remodelling of stations, Misuse of coupons.

THE CHIEF RAILWAYS IN INDIA.

The Assam-Bengal Railway, which is constructed on the metre-gauge, starts from Chittagong and runs through Surma Valley across the North Cachar Hills into Assam. It is worked under a limited guarantee by a company.

Mileage open	Rs. 1,306 41
Capital at charge	Rs. 23,49,41,000
Net earnings	Rs. 38,12,000
Earnings per cent	1 62%

Bengal and North-Western

The Bengal and North-Western Railway was constructed on the metre-gauge system by a company without any Government assistance other than free land and was opened to traffic in 1885. The system was begun in 1874 as the Tirhut State Railway. In 1890 this line was leased by Government to the Bengal and North-Western Railway. Since then extensive additions have been made in both sections. It is connected with the Rajputana metre-gauge system at Cawnpore and with the Eastern Bengal State Railway at Khatbar and the East Indian Railway at Benares and Bokameh Ghat.

Mileage open	..	21,12 99
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Bengal-Nagpur.

The Bengal-Nagpur Railway was commenced as a metre-gauge from Nagpur to Chhatissgarh in the Central Provinces in 1887. A company was formed under a guarantee which took over the line, converted it to the broad-gauge and extended it to Howrah, Cuttack and Kani. In 1901 a part of the East Coast State Railway from Cuttack to Vizagapatam was transferred to it and in the same year sanction was given for an extension to the coal-fields and for a connection with the Branch of the East Indian Railway at Hariharpur.

Mileage open	..	3,411 75
Capital at charge	..	Rs 77,13,70,000
Net earnings	..	Rs 2,19,59,000
Earnings per cent	..	2 85%

Bombay Baroda

The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway is one of the original guaranteed railways. It was commenced from Surat via Baroda to Ahmedabad, but was subsequently extended to Bombay. The original contract was terminable in 1880, but the period was extended to 1905, and then renewed under revised conditions. In 1885 the Rajputana-Malwa metre-gauge system of State railways was leased to the Company and has since been incorporated in it. On the opening of the Nagda-Muttra, giving broad-gauge connection through Eastern Rajputana with Delhi, the working was entrusted to this Company. On the acquisition of the Company in April 1907 the purchase price was fixed at £11,685,581.

Mileage open	..	3,692 30
Capital at charge	..	Rs 75,75,05,000
Net earnings	..	Rs 4,82,57,000
Earnings per cent	..	6 37%

Burma Railways

The Burma Railway is an isolated line, and although various routes have been surveyed there is little prospect of its being connected with the Railway system of India in the near

future. In reply to a question in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1910, Sir Arthur Anderson said — "During 1914-15 extensive survey operations were carried out to ascertain the best alignment for a railway connection along the coast route between Chittagong and certain stations on the Burma Railways south of Mandalay. A rival route via the Hnlong Valley between the northern section of the Assam-Bengal Railway and the section of the Burma Railways north of Mandalay was to have been surveyed during the following year but was postponed because of the war. It is now proposed to commence this survey during the coming cold weather, and on its completion, Government will have sufficient information to enable them to decide which route shall be adopted. Thus no arrangements for the construction of a line have yet been made nor has any concession been granted, but it is probable that the line selected will be built at the cost of Government and worked by one or other of the main lines which it will connect. It was commenced as a State Railway and transferred in 1896 to a Company under a guarantee. From January 1st, 1920, its working has been taken over by the State.

Mileage open	..	2,055 61
Capital at charge	..	Rs 35,19,96,000
Net earnings	..	Rs 83,93,000
Earnings per cent	..	2 33%

Eastern Bengal.

The Eastern Bengal State Railway was promoted under the original form of guarantee and was constructed on the broad-gauge. The first portion of the line running to Calcutta over the Ganges was opened in 1862. In 1874 sanction was granted for the construction on the metre-gauge of the Northern Bengal State Railway, which ran from the north bank of the Ganges to the foot of the Himalayas on the way to Darjeeling. These two portions of the line were amalgamated in 1884 into one State Railway.

Mileage open	..	1,597 65
Capital at charge	..	Rs 50,98,88,000
Net earnings	..	Rs 76,68,000
Earnings per cent	..	1 50%

East Indian

The East Indian Railway is one of the three railways sanctioned for construction as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. The first section from Howrah to Pandua was opened in 1854 and at the time of the Mutiny ran as far as Raniganj. It gives the only direct access to the port of Calcutta from Northern India and is consequently fed by all the large railway systems connected with it. In 1880 the Government purchased the line, paying the share-holder by annuities, but leased it again to the company to work under a contract which was terminable in 1919.

The contract was not terminated until January 1st, 1925, when the State took over the management. From July 1st, 1925 the Oudh & Rohilkhand railway was amalgamated with it.

Mileage open	..	4,294 75
Capital at charge	..	Rs 1,43,53,63,000
Net earnings	..	Rs 6,55,73,000
Earnings per cent	..	4 51%

(Mileage and net earnings)

Great Indian Peninsula

The Great Indian Peninsula Railway is the earliest line undertaken in India. It was promoted by a Company under a guarantee of 5 per cent, and the first section from Bombay to Thana was open for traffic in 1853. Sanction was given for the extension of this line *via* Poona to Raichur, where it connects with the Madras Railway, and to Jubulpore where it meets the East Indian Railway. The feature of the line is the passage of the Western Ghats, these sections being 15½ miles on the Bhore Ghat and 9½ miles on the Thini Ghat which rise 1,131 and 972 feet. In 1900, the contract with the Government terminated and under an arrangement with the Indian Midland Railway that line was amalgamated and leased to a Company to work.

The contract was terminated on June 30th, 1925, when the State took over the management.

Mileage open ..	3 727 20
Capital at charge ..	Rs 1,21,72,88 000
Net earnings ..	Rs 3,28,36,000
Earnings per cent ..	2.70

Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway.

The Madras Railway was the third of the original railways constructed as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. It was projected to run in a north-westerly direction in connection with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and in a south-westerly direction to Calcutta. On the expiry of the contract in 1907 the line was amalgamated with the Southern Mahratta Railway Company, a system on the metre-gauge built to meet the famine conditions in the southern Mahratta Country and released to a large Company called the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company.

Mileage open ..	3,229 00
Capital at charge ..	Rs 55 09,92,000
Net earnings ..	Rs 3,02,26,000
Earnings per cent ..	5.19%

The North-Western

The North-Western State Railway began its existence at the Sind-Punjab-Delhi Railway, which was promoted by a Company under the original form of guarantee and extended to Delhi, Multan and Lahore and from Karachi to Kotli. The interval between Kotli and Multan was unbridged and the railway traffic was exchanged by a ferry service. In 1871-72 sanction was given for the connection of this by the Indus Valley State Railways and at the same time the Punjab Northern State Railway from Lahore towards Peshawar was begun. In 1886 the Sind-Punjab-Delhi Railway was carried by the State and amalgamated with these two railways under the name of the North-Western State Railway. It is the longest railway in India under one administration.

Mileage open ..	6,949 49
Capital at charge ..	Rs 1,47,87,72,000
Net earnings ..	Rs 2,22,72,000
Earnings per cent ..	2.82%

Oudh and Rohilkhand.

Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway was another of the lines constructed under the original form of guarantee. It began from the north bank of the Ganges running through Rohilkhand as far as Saharanpur where it joins the North-Western State Railway. It was not until 1887 that the bridge over the Ganges was completed and connected with the East Indian Railway. To effect a connection between the metre-gauge systems to the North and those to the South of the Ganges, a third rail was laid between Bhurwal and Cawnpore. The Company's contract expired in 1889 when the Railway was purchased by the State and has since been worked as a State Railway.

The working of this railway was amalgamated with that of the East Indian Railway from 1st July 1925.

The South Indian

The South Indian Railway was one of the original guaranteed railways. It was begun by the Great Southern India Railway Company as a broad-gauge line; but was converted after the seventies to the metre-gauge. This line has been extended and now serves the whole of the Southern India, south of the south-west line of the Madras Railway. Between Tuticorin and Ceylon a ferry service was formerly maintained, but a new and more direct route to Ceylon *via* Rameshwaram was opened at the beginning of 1914. As the original contract ended in 1907, a new contract was entered upon with the Company on the 1st of January 1903.

Mileage open ..	2,526 26
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 42 47,28,000
Net earnings ..	Rs 2,15,10,000
Earnings per cent ..	4.79%

The Indian States.

The principal Indian State Railways are the Nizam's, constructed by a company under a guarantee from the Hyderabad State, the Kathiwar system of railways, constructed by subscriptions, among the several Chiefs in Kathiwar, the Jodhpur and Bikaner Railways, constructed by the Jodhpur and Bikaner Chiefs; the system of railways in the Punjab, constructed by the Patiala, Jind, Maler Kotla, and Kashmir Chiefs; and the railways in Mysore, constructed by the Mysore State.

At the end of the financial year 1929-30 a total of 1257.57 miles of new lines was under construction, distributed as follows —

	Miles.
5'6" gauge ..	730.77
3'3½" gauge ..	457.51
2'6" gauge ..	69.29

During 1929-30 sanction was accorded to the construction of new lines totalling 227.77 miles

	Miles
5'6" gauge ..	93.00
3'3½" gauge ..	115.17
2'6" gauge ..	19.00

INDIA AND CEYLON.

The possibility of connecting India and Ceylon by a railway across the bank of sand extending the whole way from Rameswaram to Mannar has been reported on from time to time, and since 1895 various schemes having been suggested.

The South Indian Railway having been extended to Dhanushkodi, the southernmost point of Rameswaram Island, and the Ceylon Government Railway to Talaimannar, on Mannar Island, two points distant from each other about 21 miles across a narrow and shallow strait, the possibility of connecting these two terminal stations by a railway constructed on a solid embankment raised on the sand bank known as "Adam's Bridge," to supersede the ferry steamer service which has been established between these two points, is one of the schemes that has been investigated.

In 1913, a detailed survey was made by the South Indian Railway Company, and the project contemplates the construction of a causeway from Dhanushkodi Point on the Indian side to Talaimannar Point on the Ceylon side, a length of 20.05 miles of which 7.19 will be upon the dry land of the various lands, and 12.86 will be in water. The sections on dry land will consist of low banks of sand pitched with coral and present no difficulty. The section through the sea will be carried on a causeway which it is proposed to construct in the following way. A double row of reinforced concrete piles, pitched at 10 feet centres and having their inner faces 14 feet apart, will first be driven into the sand. These piles will then be braced together longitudinally with light concrete arches and chains and transversely with concrete ties, struts and chains. Behind the piles slabs of reinforced concrete will be slipped into position, the bottom slabs being sunk well into the sand of the seabottom. Lastly, the space enclosed by the slabs will be filled in with sand.

The top of the concrete work will be carried to six feet above high water level, and the rails will be laid at that level. The sinking of the piles and slabs will be done by means of water jets. This causeway, it is expected, will cause the suspended sand brought up by the currents, to settle on either side bringing about rapid accretion and eventually making one big island of Rameswaram Island and Mannar Island.

Indo-Burma Connection.

The raids of the Immen in the Bay of Bengal in 1914, and the temporary interruption of communications between India and Burma, stimulated the demand for a direct railway connection between India and Burma. Government accepted the position and appointed Mr Richards, M. Inst. C.E., to be the engineer-in-charge of the surveys to determine the best route for a railway from India to Burma. The

coast route appears to be the best one but at present would not be remunerative. This would start from Chittagong, which is the terminus and headquarters of the Assam-Bengal Railway and a seaport for the produce of Assam. The route runs southwards through the Chittagong district, a land of fertile rice fields intersected by big rivers and tidal creeks and it crosses the Indo-Burma frontier, 94 miles from the town of Chittagong. For about 160 miles further it chiefly runs through the fertile rice lands of Arrakan and crosses all the big tidal rivers of the Akyab delta. These include the Kaladan river which drains 4,700 miles of country and even at a distance of about 30 miles from its mouth is more than half a mile wide. About 260 miles from Chittagong the railway would run into the region of mangrove swamps which fringe the seacoast north and south of the harbour of Krangkphn stretching out into the mangrove swamps like ribs from the backbone. Innumerable spurs of the Arrakan Yoma have to be crossed. Yoma is a mountain ridge which extends from Cape Negrais northwards until it loses itself in a mass of tangled hills east of Akyab and Chittagong. At its southern end the height of the ridge is insignificant but it has peaks as high as 4,000 feet before it reaches the altitude of Sandway and further north it rises much higher. It is a formidable obstacle to railway communication between India and Burma. This route is estimated to cost about £7,000,000 and would have to be supplemented by branch lines to Akyab where there is at present a considerable rice traffic and the cost of this would have to be added to the £7,000,000 already referred to.

The other routes examined have been the Hkong Valley route and the Manipur route which were surveyed by the late Mr R. A. Wallis many years ago. The Manipur route was estimated to cost about £5,000,000 as it has to cross three main ranges of hills with summit levels of 2,650, 3,600 and 8,000 feet long. Altogether there would be about four miles of tunnelling through the three main ridges and through other hills and more than 160 miles of extensive undulating railway with grades as steep as 1 in 30 and 11,000 feet of aggregate rise and fall. The Hkong valley route is only about 284 miles long and it presents fewer engineering difficulties than either the Coast or the Manipur route. One hundred and fifty miles of this route lie in open country capable of cultivation though at present it is only very thinly populated. Only one range of hills has to be crossed and this can be recaptured with a summit tunnel 5,000 feet long at a height of 2,500 feet. There are less than fifty miles of very heavy work and only about 4,000 feet aggregate of rise and fall. The Hkong route although cheaper than the Manipur route is not a practical financial proposition and it may be ruled out of consideration.

Always results or work

	Particulars.						Total
	Mileage upon up and down of the year ..	Mile ..	1920-21.	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21
1	Average upon up and down of the year ..	Mile ..	39,040	40,713	40,000	41,550	40,310
"	Total Capital outlay, including for loss and surplus, on upon line (in thousands of rupees)	Rs. 7,88,40,000	8,22,50,000	81,00,000	8,09,40,000	8,22,50,000
3	Gross earnings (in thousands of rupees)	1,11,50,000	1,13,00,100	1,11,00,000	1,13,00,000	1,13,00,000
4	Gross earnings per mile worked	2,810	2,810	2,810	2,810	2,810
5	Gross earnings per mile worked per week	44	44	44	44	44
6	Gross earnings per train-mile	0.55	0.55	0.55	0.55	0.55
7	Total working expenses (in thousands of rupees)	6,37,400	6,40,000	6,40,000	6,40,000	6,40,000
8	Working expenses per mile worked per week	165	165	165	165	165
9	Working expenses per train-mile	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05
10	Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings	Percent	62.04	62.04	62.04	62.04	62.04
11	Net earnings (in thousands of rupees)	4,800	4,800	4,800	4,800	4,800
12	Net earnings per mile upon	125	125	125	125	125
13	Net earnings per train-mile	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
14	Percentage of net earnings in total capital outlay (from 2)	Percent	5.91	5.91	5.91	5.91	5.91
15	Passenger train-miles (in thousands of miles)	7,400	7,400	7,400	7,400	7,400

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system—contd

	Particulars.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.	1933-34.
16	Goods train-miles (in thousands) Train-miles	57,328	59,874	† 61,430	60,295	Steam Electric	49,204	44,980	40,935
17	Mixed train-miles (in thousands).. "	20,715	30,684	† 30,878	31,952	Steam Electric	30,014	31,574	33,188
18	Total, including miscellaneous train-miles (in thousands) .. "	170,720	179,658	† 185,459	190,140	Steam Electric	165,195	161,414	164,042
19	Unit-mileage of passengers (in thousands) .. "	20,366,250	21,704,687	22,097,136	23,053,000	20,438,226	18,056,818	17,606,454	17,500,380
20	Freight ton-mileage of goods (in thousands) .. "	20,374,670	21,902,222	21,880,177	21,524,637	20,406,477	18,346,705	17,202,541	18,706,817
21	Average miles a ton of goods was carried .. "	237.4	43.0	241.0	246.4	244.7	246	241	241.5
22	Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile .. Pies	6 12	6 08	6 24	6 14	6 00	6 15	6 35	6 32
<i>Average miles a passenger was carried.</i>									
23	1st class .. "	117 1	131 4	138 8	153.7	164.4	183 1	191 5	192 0
24	2nd class .. "	42.0	48 1	48 4	49.9	52.5	60	60 8	61 7
25	Intermediate class .. "	45.4	243 9	42 8	42.4	40.9	45.3	47 7	48 1
26	3rd class .. "	33.7	34 2	35 1	35.8	35.0	35	34.4	34 3
27	Total .. "	33.1	34 8	35.6	36 3	35.6	35.7	35.1	35 0
<i>Average rate charged per passenger per mile.</i>									
28	1st class .. "	19. 1	17 0	17. 0	16. 2	16 4	17. 2	18 2	18 1
29	2nd class .. "	8.80	7.84	7.94	7.73	7 70	8.28	8.82	8 76
30	Intermediate class .. "	4.68	4.27	4.18	4.02	4 10	4.22	4.20	4 22
31	3rd class .. "	3.85	3.25	3.10	3.02	3.01	3 13	3 21	3 17
32	Total .. "	3.50	3.47	3 32	3.21	3.21	3.33	3.42	3 42

† Based on passengers originating. Season and vendors' tickets are included under separate classes.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.	1933-34.
STATE LINES—<i>contd.</i>										
Kolhat-Thal	62	62	62	62	62	62	61	61	61	61
Kolar Gold-fields*	10	10	10	10	10	10	107	107	107	107
Lucknow-Darjiling*	313	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	312	312
Madras and Southern Mahratta *	2,560	2,560	2,560	2,564	2,572	2,780	1,118	1,118	1,118	3,229 60
Morappur-Hosur *	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	73
Moulmein-yu †	70	80	80	80	80	†
Nagpur	20	20	20	20	20	20	28	28	28	28
North Western	4,075	4,101	4,432	4,535	4,638	5,517	\$5,003	5,552	5,552	9,940 40
Palaupur-Deesa*	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
Paralia-Kanchi*	115	115	117	117	117	117	116	116	116	116
Pylmanna-Tatungdingyi †	67	67	67	67	67	†	56	56	56	56
Raipur-Dhamtari *	57	57	57	57	57	†	57	57	57	57
Southern Indian*	1,317	1,317	1,357	1,508	1,738	1,923	599	599	599	599
Southern Stan States †	87	80	80	80	†	†
Avanore British section ..	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Rhod*	815	808	800	807	810	806	..	802	802	802
Rupattur-Krishnagiri*	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Trans India (Kainlagh-Bannu)	102	102	102	102	102	150	157	157	157	157
Tumkur-Tirodi Light *	47	47	47	47	47	10	18	18	18	18
ASSISTED COMPANIES										
Delhi-Bombay	80	80	80	80	80	80	88	88	88	88
Raipur-Katwa	32	32	32	32	32	32	35	35	35	35

* Worked by a Company

† Worked by Company up to 31st December 1928 and taken over by State from 1st January 1929 and included under Burma

‡ Includes 31 1/2 miles of Mirjan-Burdur section worked by the N.W. Ry. at the cost of the Military Department

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—contd.

Railways.	1921-25	1926	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1932-33	1933-34
ASSISTED COMPANIES—contd.								
Amritsar-Patli	51	51	51	51	51	51	54	
Aligarh-Bagaram Light	65	65	65	65	65	70	70	
Bankura-Dumoder River	60	60	60	60	60	67	67	
Barnset-Basirhat Light	52	52	52	52	52	57	57	
Barsat Light	118	118	118	203	203	221	221	
Bengal and North-Western ..	1,251	1,270	1,270	1,299	1,270	1,270	1,270	2,112 90
Bengal Doonars	157	157	156	156	156	11	11	
Berwada-Masulipatam	52	52	52	52	52	51	51	
Bukharpur-Bihar Light	33	33	33	33	33	35	35	
Burdwan Katwa	32	32	32	32	32	36	36	
Champaner-Shivrajpur Panj Light ..	31	31	31	31	31	30	30	
Chhaparmukh-Silghat	51	51	51	51	51	50	50	
Darjeeling-Khimaiyan	51	51	51	51	51	61	61	
Extension	95	95	95	95	95	100	100	
Dasghara-Jamalpurigunj *	8	8	8	8	8	9	9	
Dehri-Rohas Light	21	21	21	20	20	23	23	
Dhond-Baramati †	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	
Dibru-Gadiva	80	80	80	80	80	111	111	
Kilichpur-Yootmal †	118	118	118	118	118	117	117	
Jalawah-Jalampur	27	27	27	27	27	28	28	
Jodhara-Lanavada	25	25	25	25	25	27	27	
Kardwar-Dehra †	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	
Kowrah-Amta Light	41	44	41	41	41	50	50	
Kayrah-Sheakhula Light	20	20	20	20	20	21	21	
Jacobabad-Kashmir †	77	77	77	77	77	76	76	

* Worked by a Company.

† Worked by State Railway.

Quantity and value of Iron-ore produce in India during the years 1932 and 1933

	1932			1933		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)	
	Tons	Rs	£	Tons	Rs	£
Bihar and Orissa—						
Keonjhar State	186,173	1,86,173	13,908	195,944	1,05,043	14,711
Mayurbhanj State	801,193	21,33,901	100,448	341,502	6,32,129	47,529
Sambalpur	7	50	4	4	30	2
Singhbhum	686,874	15,51,217	116,033	616,046	13,83,773	104,043
Burma—						
Northern Shan States	6,560	(a) 20,240	1,973	36,293	(a) 1,45,172	10,915
Central Provinces	803	2,400	181	777	2,331	175
Madras—						
East Godavari	4,496	4,456	335	2,118	1,201	97
Mysore State	4,395	15,263	1,148	35,041	1,37,245	10,510
TOTAL	1,760,501	30,10,760	294,720	1,228,025	24,07,014	187,613

(a) Estimated

MANGANESE ORE.

This industry was started some thirty years ago by quarrying the deposits of the Vizagapatam district, and from an output of 674 tons in 1892, the production rose rapidly to 92,008 tons in 1900 when the richer deposits in the Central Provinces were also attacked, and are now yielding a larger quantity of ore than the Vizagapatam mines. The most important deposits occur in the Central Provinces, Madras, Central India, and Mysore—the largest supply coming from the Central Provinces. The uses to which the ore is put are somewhat varied. The peroxide is used by glass manufacturers to destroy the green colour in glass making, and it is also used in porcelain painting and glazing for the brown colour which it yields. The ore is now used in the manufacture of ferro-manganese for use in steel manufacture. Since 1904, when the total output was 150,190 tons, the progress of the industry has been remarkable owing to the high prices prevailing.

Record Output in 1927—Before the year 1926, the record production of manganese-ore in India took place in 1907 when 902,201 tons were raised. In 1926 the output rose to 1,014,928 tons valued at £2,463,491. In 1927 the output was 1,129,353 tons, accompanied by a decrease in value. In 1927 the production rose to the highest figure yet recorded, 1,129,353 tons, accompanied by a rise in value to the peak figure of £2,703,063 for Indian ports. During the year 1928, the upward tendency was not maintained, the output falling to 978,449 tons valued at £2,198,597 for Indian ports. In 1929, the output rose again slightly to 994,279 tons, but the value fell heavily to £1,771,030. In 1930 the output fell substantially to 829,946 tons with a heavy fall in value to £1,200,236. In 1931 a still more

serious fall took place, to 537,844 tons with a value of £726,054. This was followed by a disastrous fall in 1932 to 212,604 tons with a value of £140,022. In 1933 the output rose slightly to 218,307 tons but the value fell to £123,171. These are the smallest quantities and values reported since 1901, when the output was 120,891 tons valued at £122,831. In 1907 the output was 247,427 tons valued at £227,432, since when the smallest production was 150,416 tons in 1915 valued at £202,546, whilst the smallest value was in 1900 when a production of 644,060 tons was valued at £608,905. The full magnitude of this catastrophe to the Indian manganese industry is perhaps best realised from the fact that whilst the quantity of the production in 1933 was a little over one-fifth of that of the peak year of 1927, the value was less than one-twenty-second part of the value of the 1927 production. In fact in none of the major Indian mineral industries have the effects of the slump been so seriously felt as in the manganese industry.

The slight increase in 1933 is due to increases in Saurashtra State (22,237 tons), Keonjhar State (15,409 tons), Vizagapatam (5,619 tons) and Singhbhum (5,181 tons), with small outputs from Bonu State and Karnool, largely balanced by decreases in the Central Provinces. In the Central Provinces the production fell from 302,344 tons in 1931 to 77,186 tons in 1932 and 28,789 tons in 1933 which is less than the output of 1900 the year in which the manganese industry commenced in the Central Provinces when the output was 35,356 tons. During 1932 and 1933 the majority of mines in the Central Provinces were closed including several which had never been opened since the commencement of work in 1900 and 1901. The total cessation of production in the Singhbhum district and almost total cessation in Bonu State

Quantity and value of Manganese-ore produced in India during the years 1932 and 1933

	1932		1933	
	Quantity	Value of ore at Indian ports	Quantity	Value of ore at Indian ports
	Tons	£	Tons	£
<i>Bihar and Orissa—</i>				
Bonair State			3,115	1,771
Konjhar State	11,909	23,296	60,107	34,357
Singbhum	2,272	2,300	7,173	7,910
<i>Bombay—</i>				
North Kanara	612	620	.	..
<i>Central Provinces—</i>				
Bilaspur	56,762	30,132	20,501	21,405
Bhandara	10,918	11,919	60	69
Chhindwara	10,011	10,961	8,228	9,394
Nagpur	19,465	21,219
<i>Madras—</i>				
Kurnool			300	124
Sandur State	79,023	26,176	101,260	52,605
Vizagapatnam	8,049	3,169	16,698	7,109
<i>My ore—</i>				
Chitalding	219	79	5	2
Shimoga	335	121	250	116
TOTAL	212,601	110,022	218,307	123,171

GOLD.

The greater part of the total output of gold in India is derived from the Kolar gold field in Mysore. During the last decade the production of this mine reached its highest point in 1905 when 616,758 ounces were raised. In 1906 the quantity won was 565,208 ounces and this figure fell to 535,085 ounces in 1907. The figures for the latter years reveal a small improvement. The Nizam's mine at Hutti in Hyderabad comes next, but at a respectable distance, to the Kolar gold field. This mine was opened in 1903. The only other mines from which gold was raised were those in the Dharwar district of Bombay and the Anantapur district of Madras. The Dharwar mines gave an output of 2,993 ounces in 1911 but work there ceased in 1912. The Anantapur mines gave their first output of gold during the year 1910, the amount being 2,532 ounces, valued at Rs. 1,51,800. Gold mining was carried on in the North Arcot district of Madras from 1893 till 1900, the highest yield (2,854 ounces) being obtained in the year 1898. The Kyaukpazat mine in Upper Burma was worked until 1903, when the pay chute was lost and the mine closed down. In 1902 dredging operations were started on the Irrawaddy river near Myitkyina, and 216 ounces of gold were obtained in 1904, the amount steadily increased from year to

year and reached 8,445 ounces in 1909 but fell in subsequent years until in 1922 it was no more than 24 oz. The small quantity of gold produced in the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and the United Provinces is obtained by washing. Gold washing is carried on in a great many districts in India, but there is no complete record of the amount obtained in this way. There was a trivial fall in the total Indian gold production from 330,488 8 ozs valued at Rs. 2,08,01,943 (£1,540,885) in 1931 to 329,681 7 ozs valued at Rs. 2,53,51,438 (£1,906,123) in 1932. In 1931 the gradual secular decline in the total Indian gold production was temporarily arrested with an output of 330,488 8 ozs, valued at Rs. 2,08,01,943 (£1,540,885), followed by a trivial fall again in 1932, when the output was 329,681 7 ozs valued at Rs. 2,53,51,438 (£1,906,123). In 1933 there was an increase to 336,103 3 ozs valued at Rs. 2,76,40,071 (£2,078,201). This is a result of the stimulus of the high price of gold, the value of the 1933 output being the highest in terms of sterling since 1920. It is interesting to note that the output of 1921 which was valued at £2,050,575 a figure very close to that of the 1933 production, was 432,722 6 ozs. The average number of persons employed on the Kolar Gold Field during 1933 was 20,283.

Quantity and value of Gold* produced in India during the years 1932 and 1933

	1932			1933			Labour in 1933
	Quantity		Value (£1=Rs 13 3)	Quantity		Value (£1=Rs 13 3)	
	Ozs	Rs	£	Ozs	Rs.	£	
Bihar and Orissa—							
Manbhum				42 0	2,988	225	10
Singhbhum	50 0	3,650	274	225 0	16,750	1,259	58
Burma—							
Katha	18 2	950	72	81 0	1,665	125	2
Upper Chindwin	28.4	2,649	199	21 0	1,960	147	
Mysore	329,574 9	2,53,43,443	1,905,522	335,773 9	2,76,15,478	2,06,352	20,263
Punjab	6 6	480	36	10 3	825	62	41
United Provinces	3 6	266	20	5 1	405	31	27
TOTAL	329,681 7	2,53,51,438	1,906,123	336,108 3	2,76,40,071	2,078,201	20,401

* Fine ounces in the case of Mysore

PETROLEUM.

Petroleum is found in India in two distinct areas—one on the east, which includes Assam, Burma, and the islands off the Arakan coast. This belt extends to the productive oil fields of Sumatra, Java and Borneo. The other area is on the west, and includes the Punjab and Baluchistan, the same belt of oil-bearing rocks being continued beyond the borders of British India to Persia. Of these two the eastern area is by far the most important, and the most successful oil-fields are found in the Irrawaddy Valley. Yenangyaung is the oldest and most developed of these fields. Native wells have been at work here for over 100 years, and to 1886, prior to annexation of Upper Burma, the output is estimated to have averaged over 2 million gallons a year. Drilling was begun in 1887. The Yenangyat field yielded a very small supply of petroleum before 1891, in which year drilling was started by the Burma Oil Company. Singu now holds the second place among the oil-fields of India. Petroleum was struck at the end of 1901, and in 1903, 5 million gallons were obtained. In 1907 and 1908 the production of this field was 48 million gallons, and after a fall to 31½ million gallons in 1910 it rose to 56½ million gallons in 1912. Several of the islands off the Arakan coasts are known to contain oil deposits but their value is uncertain. About 20,000 gallons were obtained from the eastern Barongo Island near Akyab, and about 37,000 gallons from Ramri Island in the Kyaukpadaung district during 1911. Oil was struck at Minbu in 1910, the production for that year being 18,320 gallons which increased to nearly 4 million gallons in 1912. The existence of oil in Assam has been known for many years and an oil spring was struck near Makum in 1867. Nothing more, however, was done until 1888, and from that year up till 1902 progress was slow. Since that year the annual production has been between 2½ and 4 million gallons.

some small oil springs have been discovered, attempts to develop them have not hitherto been successful.

The world's production of petroleum in 1926 amounted to nearly 150 million long tons, of which India contributed 0.72 per cent. In 1927, this figure jumped to some 172 million long tons, of which the Indian proportion, on a practically stationary production, fell to 0.64 per cent. In 1928 there was another substantial rise in the world's production, which reached the figure of over 181 million tons. In 1929, there was another jump to over 202 million tons, but in 1930 the world's production fell to about 193½ million tons, in 1931 to about 187 million tons, and in 1932 to about 179 million tons, whilst in 1933 the production rose again to about 198 million tons. Decreases were shown by Columbia, Trinidad, India, Germany, Egypt and Canada. All other important producers showed an increase in production, by far the largest amount being due to the United States. The United States contributed 62.5 per cent of the world's supply in 1933, Russia 10.6 per cent and Venezuela 8.3 per cent. In 1926, India contributed 0.64 per cent, which fell to 0.60 per cent in 1929 and rose to 0.62 in 1930, 0.63 per cent in 1931 and 0.64 per cent in 1932, and fell again to 0.62 per cent in 1933, her position on the list of petroleum producing countries fell from 11th in 1929 to 12th in 1930 to 1933, her place being taken by Trinidad.

The production of petroleum in India (including Burma) fell slightly from 308,606,031 gallons in 1932 to 306,000,022 gallons in 1933. The decrease in 1932 represents a considerable decrease in the output of Assam and the Punjab, and of a small proportionate decrease in the production of Burma. This decrease in output in 1933 was accompanied, however, by a large increase in value amounting to Rs. 1,18,24,818 (£889,094) or 23.3 per cent, an increase much in excess of the decrease of 1932 brought about by the world depression.

The amount of petrol produced from natural gas during the year was 8,729,923 gallons, of which 8,172,197 gallons were produced in Burma and 557,731 gallons in the Punjab.

On the west, oil springs have been known for many years to exist in the Rawalpindi and other districts in the Punjab. In Baluchistan geological conditions are adverse, and though

Quantity and value of Petroleum produced in India during the years 1932 and 1933

	1932			1933		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)	
<i>Assam—</i>	Gals	Rs	£	Gals	Rs	£
Badarpur	847,217	63,357	4,764	75,867	4,178	311
Digboi	54,198,187	92,54,823	695,851	52,710,120	90,01,718	676,821
Patharia	89,854	7,919	595			
<i>Burma—</i>						
Kyaukpadaung	13,237	11,814	888	14,750	12,612	961
Minbu	3,850,716	0,25,750	17,049	3,718,250	7,90,218	594
Singun	88,941,939	1,44,53,005	1,086,697	82,613,112	1,75,55,284	1,319,511
Thayetmyi	461,326	75,453	5,673	434,572	92,346	698
Upper Chindwin	4,040,690	3,03,051	22,786	3,052,778	2,28,958	172
Yenangyat (including Lanywa)	23,067,644	37,55,163	282,343	23,461,982	50,20,905	377,211
Yenangyaung	127,191,743	2,07,05,523	1,561,318	135,683,855	2,88,50,573	2,160,511
<i>Punjab—</i>						
Attok	5,900,480	14,75,120	110,911	4,236,136	10,59,034	794
Total	308,808,031	5,07,91,038	3,818,875	306,009,022	6,26,15,850	4,705,911

Imports of Kerosene Oil into India during the years 1932 and 1933

	1932			1933		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)	
<i>From—</i>	Gals	Rs	£	Gals	Rs	£
Union of Soviet Republics	45,538,086	1,87,38,271	1,408,517	41,946,734	1,60,85,785	1,209,431
Roumania	4,919,489	23,01,891	173,074	6,216,529	13,55,280	116,931
Persia	18,053,144	93,97,711	744,189	302,708	2,00,199	15,033
Straits Settlements	6,500	1,979	149	12	9	1
Borneo	2,181,860	8,72,149	65,575			
Celebes and other Islands	1,313,023	8,20,638	61,702			
United States of America	6,080,904	31,10,838	233,897	1,164,856	7,47,835	56,221
Other countries	566	343	26	8,147,524	35,26,655	265,162
Total	78,091,572	3,57,38,818	2,687,129	57,778,363	2,21,15,763	1,662,839

Imports of Fuel Oils into India during the years 1932 and 1933

	1932			1933		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)	
<i>From—</i>	Gals	Rs	£	Gals	Rs	£
Roumania	2,917,087	5,53,871	41,844	8,767,248	16,09,411	121,008
Persia	67,938,453	1,81,09,255	985,658	64,584,911	1,28,24,390	926,646
Straits Settlements	69,899	19,314	1,452	150,389	41,706	3,186
Borneo	26,513,893	52,01,654	391,102	27,613,731	50,54,512	380,039
Other countries	7,818,355	15,42,640	115,988	3,852,481	7,94,256	59,718
Total	105,252,687	2,04,28,734	1,535,844	104,968,768	1,98,24,275	1,490,547

ber, Graphite and Mica—Amber is found in very small quantities in Burma, Graphite and in small quantities in various places. Little progress has been made in mining it in Travancore. The total output in 1929 was 39 tons. India has for many years been leading producer of mica, turning out more than half of the world's supply. In 1914, owing to the war, the output was only 38,189 cwts. compared with 43,650 cwts in 1913. Owing to necessary restrictions with regard to the export of mica, the output fell off considerably in the 1915, but subsequent demand in the United Kingdom for the best grade of ruby mica led to considerable increase in production during the following years.

There was a marked rise in the declared production of mica from 32,713 cwts valued at Rs 14,35,401 (£1,07,925) in 1932 to 41,075 cwts valued at Rs 16,82,045 (£1,26,470) in 1933. As has been frequently pointed out, the output figures are incomplete, and a more accurate estimate of the size of the industry is to be obtained from the export figures. In the years 1926-1927 the export figure was approximately the same as the reported production figure, whilst in the years 1928 and 1929 the quantity exported was more than double the reported production. In 1930 the recorded exports were, however, only 57 per cent in excess of the reported production, in 1931 36 per cent in 1932 43 per cent, and in 1933 some 45 per cent, in excess of the United States of America and the United Kingdom, which are the principal importers of Indian mica, absorbed respectively 24.0 per cent in 1932, and 24.3 per cent in 1933. Germany took 10.6 per cent and 10.7 per cent respectively, of the total quantities exported during the years 1932 and 1933. The average value of the exported mica decreased slightly from Rs 71.2 (£5.4) per cwt in 1932 to Rs 70.7 (£5.3) per cwt in 1933. The exports rose from 921 cwts valued at Rs 33,48,943 (£251,800) in 1932 to 57,717 cwts valued at Rs 40,92,033 (£3,17,711) in 1933. The value for 1932 is the lowest total value recorded since 1915-16 when the value of the mica exports was £208,496.

Iron, Copper, Silver and Lead.—Following a series of years of practically continuous increase, a slight decrease in the production of iron in Burma was reported for the year 1931, during which the output amounted to 4,255 tons valued at Rs 35,07,380. In 1932, however, there was again an increase in production to 4,255 tons valued at Rs 45,09,995, and in 1933 4,960 tons valued at Rs 70,89,994 (£533,082) which is the highest quantity and total value yet recorded in any one year. The considerable increase in the total value is, of course, mainly due to the rise in the price of the metal resulting from the tin restriction scheme in operation in the five leading tin-producing countries Malaya, Netherlands East Indies, Bolivia, Nigeria and in a scheme to which India is not an adherent. The increase in output of some 435 tons is the balance of an increase from Mergui and Mawehi in the Southern Shan States and a decrease from Mow. Milling operations were suspended at Mawehi in August 1927 pending the installation of an additional plant and further development of the mine was resumed in February 1930 and this explains the large increases of 1930 to 1933.

The total figure for 1933 includes 1,738 tons from Mawehi calculated to be the proportion of tin-ore in 3,050 tons of concentrates derived from mixed wolfram-scheelite-cassiterite ore, these concentrates are assumed to contain 4.1 per cent of wolfram and 57 per cent of cassiterite. There was no reported output of black tin.

Imports of unwrought tin fell from 49,279 cwts valued at Rs 47,50,341 (£3,57,164) in 1932 to 41,655 cwts valued at Rs 52,96,444 (£3,98,230) in 1933 over 97 per cent of the imports came from the Straits Settlements.

In contrast with the increase in the production of silver from the Bawdwin mines of Upper Burma, amounting to 1,400,291 ozs recorded during the four years, 1925 to 1928, the following years 1929, 1930 and 1931 were marked by decreases amounting to 124,211 ozs, 226,311 ozs, and 1,153,806 ozs respectively. In 1932 and 1933, however, there were small increases again, amounting to 98,556 ozs and 53,504 ozs respectively. These variations in quantity were accompanied by a small fall of value in 1929, marked falls in 1930 and 1931, and a marked rise in 1932, and a further rise in 1933. The output of silver obtained as a by-product from the Kolar gold mines of Mysore showed a fall of some 1,600 ozs. The amount of silver bullion and coin exported during the year was 58,328,890 ozs valued at Rs 7,00,38,590 (£5,266,059) as compared with 34,664,148 ozs valued at Rs 4,15,61,144 (£3,124,898) during 1932.

The production of lead-ore at the Burma Corporation's Bawdwin mines in Burma, in reversal of the downward trend since 1930, increased from 372,586 tons in 1932 to 454,791 tons in 1933, and the total amount of metal extracted from 71,202 tons of lead (including 642 tons of antimonial lead) valued at Rs 1,09,95,587 (£826,796) in 1932 to 72,045 tons (including 1,485 tons of antimonial lead) valued at Rs 1,15,61,915 (£869,317) in 1933. The quantity of silver extracted from the Bawdwin ores rose slightly from 5,998,956 ozs valued at Rs 62,32,915 (£468,640) in 1932 to 6,054,047 ozs valued at Rs 65,74,695 (£494,338) in 1933. The value of the lead per ton rose from Rs 154.5 (£11.6) to Rs 160.5 (£12.07) whilst the value of the silver per ounce rose from Rs 1.0-7 (18.75d) to Rs 1.1-5 (19.6d) in the year under review. The ore reserves in the Bawdwin mine as calculated on the 1st of July, 1933, totalled 4,133,792 tons, against 4,126,179 tons at the end of June, 1932, with an average composition of 25.5 per cent of lead, 15.5 per cent of zinc, 0.68 per cent of copper, and 19.6 ozs of silver per ton of lead. Included in this reserve are 37,000 tons of copper-ore. During the year development work in the Mawehi section, discovered in 1930, continued to yield satisfactory results.

Magnetite—The output of magnetite showed an increase of 1,342 tons accompanied by an increase in value of Rs 24,925 (£1,674). The increase was due to a large increase from Mysore State, partially balanced by a decrease in the output of the Salem district, Madras.

Zinc.—A monograph on zinc ores issued by the Imperial Institute in 1917 says that during the past fifty years zinc ores have received but little attention in India and no production was recorded until 1913. The

production of zinc concentrates by the Burma Corporation, Limited, in the Northern Shan States, fell from 51,455 tons valued at Rs 17,23,528 in 1931 to 44,484 tons valued at Rs 15,09,298 in 1932. The slight rise in the value per ton is parallel with a similar rise in the price of spelter. The production of zinc concentrates by the Burma Corporation, Limited, in the Northern Shan States, rose to 61,432 tons valued at Rs 30,82,944 (£231,800) recovering thereby nearly all the ground lost since 1928 (output 64,122 tons), though the value is still greatly below the value in the peak year namely, £559,412, in 1928. The slight rise in the value per ton is parallel with a similar rise in the price of spelter. The exports during the year under review amounted to 61,050 tons valued at Rs 32,02,500 (£240,789) against 49,950 tons valued at Rs 24,97,500 (£187,782) in the preceding year.

Copper.—In 1931 the mine output was 153,686 long tons of copper-ore valued at Rs 22,71,940. 161,563 short tons of ore were treated for a production of 4,069 long tons of refined copper. 1,668 tons of this were sold in the Indian market at an average price of Rs 678 per ton. In addition there was a production of 3,637 tons of yellow metal, the average selling price in India being Rs 719 per ton.

Operations commenced on a revenue basis on January 1st 1929. During that year the ore produced amounted to 76,831 long tons valued at Rs 14,58,746 (£108,862). Of this 75,174 short tons were treated in the mill and smelter, with the production of 1,635 long tons of refined copper ingots and slabs. The copper was sold entirely in India at an average price of Rs 1,200 per long ton. In 1930 the output increased to 123,749 long tons of copper-ore valued at Rs 24,35,571 (£180,413). Of this 124,162 short tons were treated in the mill and smelter and 1,625 short tons sent direct to the smelter with the production of 2,974 long tons of refined copper, of which 2,157 tons were sold in the Indian market and 540 tons were consumed in the new rolling mill, which was completed in July 1930, with the production of 712 tons of yellow metal (brass) sheets, which found a ready market in Calcutta.

Since then in spite of falling prices the production of both mine and smelter has continued to expand. In addition during 1933 there was an initial production of ore from Dhobani where a lode parallel to that at Mosaboni is being opened up. During 1933 the mine output increased to 201,515 long tons of copper-ore from Mosaboni and 207 long tons from Dhobani, making a total of 201,722 long tons, valued at Rs 22,12,968 (£166,388), against 175,010 long tons of copper ore in 1932 valued at Rs 25,09,080 (£188,652). 203,736 short tons of ore were treated in the mill and the production of refined copper amounted to 4,800 long tons against 3,443 tons in the previous year. 3,774 tons were consumed in the rolling mill and 1,317 tons were sold in the Indian market at an average price of Rs 599 per ton. Operations in the rolling mill resulted in the production of 6,143 long tons of yellow metal the whole of which was sold in India at an average price of Rs 631 per ton.

The total ore reserves at the close of the year 1933 amounted to 686,402 short tons with an average assay value of 3.06 per cent of copper.

Gem Stones.—The only precious and semi-precious stones at present mined in India are the diamond, ruby, sapphire, spinel, tourmaline, garnet, rock-crystal, agate, cornelian, jadeite and amber. The production of diamonds in Central India rose from 1,254 1 carats valued at Rs 72,189 (£5,428) in 1932, to 2,342 carats valued at Rs 68,605 (£4,789) in 1933. Of this latter production 2,271 carats were produced in Panna State and the remainder in Charkhari, Ajaigarh, and Bilawar.

A severe decline in the output from the Mogok ruby mines of Upper Burma in 1924, followed in 1925 by a marked drop in value, bore witness to a serious decline in the industry. The Burma Ruby Mines, Limited, ultimately decided to go into liquidation, and the mines were offered for sale in September, 1926. The skeleton organisation left in charge of the mines, however, made good use of its opportunities with the result that the value of the output in 1926 exceeded that of the previous year by over a lakh of rupees. This encouraging result was effected by a rigorous economy and an extension of a system of co-operation with local miners, and was assisted by some good finds of sapphires in the Kyanngdwin mine—the only one still worked by European methods.

During 1927, however, production fell in value by over 1½ lakhs of rupees, due mainly to a decrease in the value of the sapphires and spinels produced, there having been a slight increase in the value of the rubies. During 1928, there was another very large decline in value, amounting to over a lakh of rupees, due to a severe drop in the value of the sapphires produced as before. There was a slight increase in the value of the rubies. The value of the 1929 production was slightly above that of 1928, due to a considerable increase in the value of the rubies found, largely balanced by another large fall in the value of sapphires produced. In 1930 there was a further substantial fall in production and in total value, though the value per carat of the sapphires produced is the highest recorded for many years. Judging from reports in the *Rangoon Times* this is due to the opening up by the Burma Ruby Mines, Ltd., of the new Pagoda mine at Kathe leading to the find of a fine sapphire of 630 carats and a star sapphire of 293 carats. The find of a ruby of 100 carats was also reported.

Since the liquidation of the Burma Ruby Mines, Limited, and the final cessation of the operations of this company in 1931, reliable statistics of production of gem stones in the Mogok Stone Tract have been unobtainable. Work is still continued by local miners but of this no statistics are available, in addition a certain amount of work is being done under extraordinary licenses. For 1932 no returns are available except that a fine ruby of 17 carats was found at Chaunggyi near Mogok, and a fine sapphire of about 90 carats and a good star sapphire of 453 carats were mined at Kathe. For 1933 the only return is of 1,103 carats of rubies from Kathe.

In addition the production was reported from Udhampur, Kashmir State of 25,100 tolas (1 434 285 carats) of sapphire with corundum valued at Rs 92,000 (£8,917). The sapphire deposits of Kashmir have long been known, but on account of their high altitude they are worked only occasionally.

SALT.

There was a substantial increase in the total output of salt, amounting to some 102,000 tons, shared by Madras (43,954 tons), Northern India (19,860 tons), Aden (16,688 tons), India (10,705 tons), and Bombay and Sind (10,124 tons.) Imports of salt into India were largely by 155,923 tons, all the countries of origin showing decreases excepting Germany.

Quantity and Value of Salt produced in India during the years 1932 and 1933

	1932			1933		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)	
	Tons	Rs	£	Tons	Rs	£
Aden	291,241	32,24,898	242,474	308,129	21,00,096	157,920
Bombay and Sind	405,414	19,32,168	145,298	415,538	21,81,752	164,041
Burma	25,084	4,26,438	32,063	35,789	4,81,621	36,212
Gwalior	43	1,744	131	35	1,768	134
Madras	446,556	26,95,736	202,687	480,510	28,93,011	217,787
Northern India	442,523	36,72,149	276,101	462,383	37,65,718	283,137
Total	1,610,861	1,19,53,433	808,754	1,712,384	1,14,24,866	859,012

Imports of Salt into India during the year 1932 and 1933

	1932			1933		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 3)	
From—	Tons	Rs	£	Tons	Rs	£
United Kingdom	31,991	5,93,714	44,640	1,057	91,403	6,872
Germany	49,478	8,57,889	64,503	57,186	8,70,577	65,457
Spain	25,994	3,72,958	28,042	7,725	1,33,185	10,014
Aden and Dependencies	304,229	44,23,875	332,622	256,620	33,57,569	252,471
Egypt	38,509	5,04,995	42,481	15,534	2,32,329	17,463
Italian East Africa	96,500	13,27,124	99,784	57,049	4,21,338	31,630
Other countries	6,040	91,957	6,914	747	11,222	844
Total	552,741	82,32,507	618,956	396,818	51,17,923	384,806

Bibliography.—Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India, under the Indian Mines Act (VIII of 1901) for 1930, by the Chief Inspector of Mines Report on the Mineral Production of India during 1929 by L. Leigh Fermor, Officiating Director, Geological Survey of India. Note on the Mineral

Production of Burma in 1922 Monographs on Mineral Resources published by the Imperial Institute. Quinquennial Review of the Mineral Production of India for the years 1924-1928 (Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol LXIV).

Stock Exchanges.

There are about 475 Share and Stock Brokers in Bombay. They carry on business on the Brokers' Hall, bought in 1887 from the funds of the Share and Stock Brokers' Association formed to facilitate the negotiations and the sale and purchase of Joint Stock securities promoted throughout the Presidency of Bombay. Their powers are defined by rules and regulations framed by the Board of Directors and approved by the general body of Brokers. The Board has the power to stop business in times of emergencies. The official address

of the Secretary is Dalal Street, Fort, Bombay.

At first the admittance fee for a broker was Rs. 5 which was gradually raised to Rs 7,000. The fee for the Broker's card has increased. In 1921 a number of cards were sold at Rs 40,000 each and the proceeds were employed to purchase an adjoining building for the extension of the business. The present value of the card is about Rs 11,000.

In November 1917 a second Stock Exchange was opened in Bombay, with its headquarters in Apollo Street known as the Bombay Stock

Chambers of Commerce.

Modern commerce in India was built up by merchants from the west and was for a long time entirely in their hands. Chambers of Commerce and numerous kindred Associations were formed by them for its protection and assistance. But Indians have in recent years, taken a large and growing part in this commercial life. The extent of their participation varies greatly in different parts of India, according to the natural proclivities and genius of different races. Bombay, for instance, has led the way in the industrial and commercial regeneration of the new India, while Bengal, very active in other fields of activity, lags behind in this one. Arising from these circumstances we find Chambers of Commerce in Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras and other important centres, with a membership both European and Indian, but alongside these have sprung up in recent years certain Associations, such as the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, of which the membership is exclusively Indian. These different classes of bodies are in no sense hostile to one another and constantly work in association.

The London Chamber of Commerce in 1921 realizing the increasing attention demanded by the economic development of India, took steps to form an "East India Section" of their organization. The Indian Chambers work harmoniously with this body, but are in no sense affiliated to it, nor is there at present any inclination on their part to enter into such close relationship, because it is generally felt that the Indian Chambers can themselves achieve their objects better and more effectively than a London body could do for them, and on various occasions the London Chamber, or the East India Section of it have shown themselves out of touch with what seemed locally to be immediate requirements in particular matters.

A new movement was started in 1913 by the Hon. Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy Ibrahim, a leading millowner and public citizen of Bombay, which aims at effecting great improvement in strengthening Indian commercial organization. Sir Fazulbhoy's original plan was for the formation of an Indian Commercial Congress. The proposal met with approval in all parts of India. The scheme was delayed by the outbreak of war but afterwards received an impetus from the same cause and the first Congress was held in the 1915 Christmas holiday season, in the Town Hall, Bombay. The list of members of the Reception Committee showed that all the important commercial associations of Bombay were prepared to co-operate actively.

The Congress was attended by several hundred delegates from all parts of India. Mr. (now the Hon. Sir) D. E. Wacha, President of the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber, presided as Chairman of the Reception Committee, at

the opening of the proceedings and the first business was the election of Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy as the first President. The Congress resolved upon the establishment of an Associated Indian Chamber of Commerce and elected a Provincial Committee empowered to take the necessary steps to get the Association registered and to enrol members and carry on work. The Congress also approved of the draft constitution.

The following are the principal paragraphs of a Memorandum of Association and Statement of Objects of the new Associated Chamber as approved by the Congress—

I The name of the Chamber will be "THE ASSOCIATED INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE."

II The Registered Office of the Chamber will be in Bombay.

III The objects for which the Chamber is established are—

- (1) To discuss and consider questions concerning and affecting trade, commerce, manufactures and the shipping interests, at meeting of delegates from Indian Chambers of Commerce and Commercial Associations or Bodies and to collect and disseminate information from time to time on matters affecting the common interests of such Chambers or Associations or Bodies and the commercial, manufacturing and shipping interests of the country.
- (2) To attain those advantages by united action which each Chamber or Association or body may not be able to accomplish in its separate capacity.
- (3) To organize Chambers of Commerce, Commercial Associations or Bodies in different trade centres of the Country.
- (4) To convene when necessary the Indian Commercial Congress at such places and at such times as may be determined by a Resolution of the Chamber.

The Articles of Association provided "There shall be an annual meeting of the Associated Indian Chamber held at Bombay on a date to be fixed by the Executive Council in the month of February," or at some other time, and "semi-annual or special meetings . . . may be convened by the Executive Council or on the requisition of one-third of the total number of members addressed to the Secretary."

The organization languished for lack of support for some years until a number of merchants specially interested in Currency and Exchange questions revived it in 1926 at Delhi and 1927 at Calcutta, the initiative in the latter activities having, like the first movement, from Bombay. The Commercial Congress held in Calcutta on 31st December 1926 and 1st and 2nd January 1927, decided upon the formation of a "Federation of Indian Chambers of

warrants, debentures and other negotiable or transferable instruments or securities.

- (a) To promote Indian business in matters of inland and foreign trade, transport, industry and manufactures, finance and all other economic subjects
- (b) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community and associations on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian business.
- (c) To enter into any arrangement with any Government or authority supreme, municipal, local or otherwise that may seem conducive to the Federation's objects or any of them, and to obtain from any such Government or authority all rights, concessions, and privileges which the Federation may think it desirable to obtain and to carry out, exercise and comply with any such arrangements, rights, privileges and concessions
- (d) To sell or dispose of the undertaking of the Federation or any part thereof for such consideration as the Federation may think fit and in particular for shares, debentures or securities of any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Federation.
- (e) To take or otherwise acquire and hold shares in any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Federation.
- (f) To undertake and execute any trusts the undertaking of which may seem to the Federation desirable either gratuitously or otherwise
- (g) To draw, make, accept, discount, execute and issue bills of exchange, promissory notes, bills of lading

The following are the Committee of the Federation for 1975:-

Vice President Mr D P Khatan

Members of the Council.—K. S. Subbiah Iyengar (Munadabul Millowners' Association, Munadabul, Mr. G. B. Bhat (Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta), Mr. Purushottamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C. S. I. (Indian Salt Association, Bombay), Mr. Mann Sahadeo (Indian Merchant's Chamber, Bombay), Mr. A. D. Shroff (Indian Merchant's Chamber, Bombay), Lala Shri Ram (Lahore Factory-owners' Association, Delhi), Seth Walchand Hirchand (Mithrasitra Chamber of Commerce, Bombay), Mr. Nalini Ranjan Sarkar (Bural National Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta), Mr. Chandra B. Mehta (Bombay Bullion Exchange, Bombay), Mr. M. L. Dalisunker (Mithrasitra Chamber of Commerce, Bombay), Lala Ramji Lal Vaidya (Gwalior Chamber of Commerce, Lakhna) and Lt. General P. S. Seshbhai (Indian Chamber of Commerce, Lahore).

Honorary Treasurers—Mr D P Khaitan (Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta), and Sir Hurlbaker Paul & Co (British National Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta)

Co-opted Members—Mr S M Bishir, Cawnpore, Pandit K Surtaniam, Lahore, Mr M Muhammad Ismail, Madras, Mr B Dey, M.L.A., Cuttack, Mr A L Ojha, Calcutta and Mr. Hoshtung N. S. Bhattacharya, Ranchi.

Secretary—Mr D G Mulherlan.

Office address—Kainla Tower, Cawnpore

Telegraphic address.—Unicomind, Cawnpore

BENGAL.

The Bengal Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1834. Its headquarters are in Calcutta. Other societies connected with the trade and commerce of the city are the Royal Exchange, the Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association, the Calcutta Trades Association, the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce and the Marwarl Chamber of Commerce. The Bengal Chamber is registered with a declaration of membership of 800. Its objects are the usual purposes connected with the protection of trade "in particular in Calcutta." There are two classes of members Permanent (Chamber and Associated) and Honorary.

Merchants, bankers, shipowners, representatives of commercial, railway and insurance

companies, brokers, persons and firms engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and joint stock companies or other corporations, formed for any purpose or object connected with commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature, may be elected as permanent members of the Chamber

The following are the office bearers of the Chamber for the year 1938-39 --

President—Mr. J. S. Henderson, (Messrs Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.)

Vice-President.—Mr. J. Reid Kay, (Messrs. James Finlay & Co, Ltd.)

Members—Mr. Alec. Aikman, (Messrs Andrew Yule & Co), Mr H F Bateman, (Messrs Shaw, Wallace & Co), The Hon'ble Sir E. C Benthall, (Messrs Burd & Co), Mr R D Cromartie, (The Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd), Mr H A M Hannay, (Agent, Eastern Bengal Railway), Mr L V Heathcote, (The Burma Shell Oil Storage & Distributing Co of India, Ltd), Mr R A Towler, (Messrs McLeod & Co)

The Secretary of the Chamber is Mr A C Daniel Assistant Secretary, Mr D O Fairbairn

The following are the public bodies (among others) to which the Chamber has the right of returning representatives, and the representatives returned, for the current year

The Council of State—The Hon'ble Mr S D Gladstone

The Bengal Legislative Council—Mr F T Homan (Cal. Electric Supply Corporation Ltd), T Lamb (Begg Dunlop & Co Ltd), H G Cooper (Burma-Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co. of India Ltd), Mr G W Leeson (Macneill & Co), Mr W H Thompson, (Bengal Telephone), Mr Henry Birkmyre, (Birkmyre Brothers)

The Calcutta Port Trust—Mr M A Hughes, (Turner Morrison & Co, Ltd), Mr W Hunter (Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co), Mr G R Campbell, Mackinnon, (Mackenzie & Co, Ltd), Mr A L B Tucker, (Kilburn & Co), Mr K J Nicolson, (Gladstone, Wylie & Co), Mr J Reid Kay, (James Finlay & Co, Ltd)

The Calcutta Municipal Corporation—Mr F Rooney, (Bengal Telephone Co, Ltd), Mr F W Leake (British Insulated Cables Ltd), Mr W T Vizar Harmer (Bengal Iron Co, Ltd), J D Sadler (India General Navigation and Railway Co, Ltd), Mr O H Holmes, (Holmes Wilson & Co, Ltd), Mr K G Sillar, (Calcutta Electric Supply Corporation Ltd)

The Board of Trustees for the Improvement of Calcutta—Mr W H Thompson, MLC (Bengal Telephone Co, Ltd)

The Bengal Boiler Commission—Mr W Gow, (Burn & Co, Ltd.), Mr H H Reynolds, MIE (Ind), MIEB, Mr J Williamson, MIE (Ind), MIEB

The Bengal Smoke Nuisances Commission—Mr E J R Gardiner, Mr G Y Robertson.

The Chamber elects representatives to various other bodies of less importance, such as the committee of the Calcutta Sailors' Home, and

to numerous subsidiary associations. The following are the recognised associations of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce—

Calcutta Grain Oilseed and Rice Association, Indian Jute Mills Association, Indian Tea Association, Calcutta Tea Traders' Association, Calcutta Fire Insurance Association, Calcutta Import Trade Association, Calcutta Marine Insurance Association, The Wine, Spirit and Beer Association of India, Indian Mining Association, Calcutta Baled Jute Association, Indian Paper Makers' Association, Indian Engineering Association, Calcutta Jute Fabrics Shippers' Association, Calcutta Hydraulic Press Association, Jute Fabric Brokers' Association, Calcutta Baled Jute Shippers' Association, Calcutta Jute Dealers' Association, Calcutta Hides and Skins Shippers' Association, Calcutta Sugar Importers' Association, Calcutta Accident Insurance Association, Calcutta Flour Mills' Association, Calcutta River Transport Association, and the Masters' Stevedores' Association.

The Chamber maintains a Tribunal of Arbitration for the determination, settlement and adjustment of disputes and differences relating to trade, business, manufactures, and to customs of trade, between parties, all or any of whom reside or carry on business personally or by agent or otherwise in Calcutta, or elsewhere in India or Burmah, by whomsoever of such parties the said disputes and differences be submitted. The Secretary of the Chamber acts as the Registrar of the Tribunal, which consists of such members or assistants to members as may, from time to time, annually or otherwise be selected by the Registrar and willing to serve on the Tribunal. The Registrar from time to time makes a list of such members and assistants.

The Chamber also maintains a Licensed Measurers' Department controlled by a special committee. It includes a Superintendent (Mr R Ellis), Head Office Manager (Mr. C. G. Smith) and Assistant Superintendents (Messrs. J. G. Smyth, G. O. G. Smyth, J. B. F. Hensley and B. Perry), and the staff at the time of the last official returns consisted of 100 officers. The usual system of work for the benefit of the trade on the port is followed. The Department has its own provident fund and compassionate funds and Measurers' Club. The Chamber does not assist in the preparation of official statistical returns. It publishes weekly the *Calcutta Prices Current*, and also publishes a large number of statistical circulars of various descriptions in addition to a monthly abstract of proceedings and many other circulars on matters under discussion

INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, CALCUTTA.

The Indian Chamber of Commerce was established in November 1925 to promote and protect the trade, commerce and industries of India and in particular the trade, commerce and industries in or with which Indians are engaged or concerned, to aid and stimulate the development of trade, commerce and industries in India with capital principally provided by or under the management of Indians; to watch over and protect the general commercial

interests of India or any part thereof, and the interests of persons, in particular the Indians, engaged in trade, commerce or industries in India, to adjust controversies between members of this Chamber; to arbitrate in the settlement of disputes arising out of commercial transactions between parties willing or agreeing to abide by the judgment and decision of the Tribunal of the Chamber, to promote and advance commercial and technical education and such study of different branches of Art and Science as may tend to develop trade, commerce and industries in India, to provide, regulate and maintain a suitable building or room or suitable buildings or rooms for a Commercial Exchange in Calcutta; and to do all such other things as may be conducive to the development of trade, commerce and industries, or incidental to attainment of the above objects or any of them.

There are two classes of Members, local and non-resident. The local Members pay an annual subscription of Rs 100 and the non-resident members Rs 50. Merchants, Bankers, Ship-owners, representatives of commercial, transport or insurance companies, brokers and persons engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature who are Indians shall be eligible for election as members of the Chamber.

The following constitute the Managing Committee of the Chamber for the year 1931-32 —

President — Mr. Kamlal Lal Sita

Senior Vice-President — Mr. J. P. Datta

Vice-President — Mr. Mohanlal Jallundhar

Members — G. D. Birla, Mr. D. P. Khaitan, Mr. S. K. Bhatia, Mr. Kailash Chandra, Mr. G. L. Mehta, Mr. M. K. Poddar, Mr. N. L. Pun, Mr. K. T. Purohit, Mr. G. K. Purohit, Mr. Anandji Haridas, Mr. H. P. Bagaria, Mr. Kasmir A. Mohanlal, Mr. Habib Mohamed, Mr. Kailash Chandra Khurshid, and Dr. M. Sinhal

Secretary — Mr. M. P. Gandhi, M.A., F.R.S.

The following Associations are affiliated with the Chamber — Indian Sugar Mill Association, Jute Bidders' Association, Indian Produce Association, East India Jute Association, Indian Merchants' Association, Calcutta Rice Merchants' Association, Calcutta Tobacco Association, Bengal Jute Bidders' Association, Gunny Trade Association, Indian Cotton Growers' Association, Indian Coal Merchants' Association and Indian Tea Merchants' Association.

The Indian Chamber of Commerce also appointed in 1927 a Tribunal of Arbitration to arbitrate in all disputes relating to various trades. With a view to the increasing nature of disputes in the different trades, separate panels of Arbitration are appointed by the Tribunal of Arbitration for each of the following trades — (1) Jute, (2) Gunny, (3) Peccan and (4) Tea, (5) Iron and Steel, (6) Coal and Minerals, (7) General.

Chamber's Arbitration Panels —

Calcutta Port and Navigation — Mr. P. Khaitan

Bengal Sugar and Jute — Mr. J. P. Datta, Mr. Mohanlal Jallundhar

East India Jute — Mr. J. P. Datta, Mr. Mohanlal Jallundhar

General Panel — Mr. J. P. Datta, Mr. Mohanlal Jallundhar

Board of Arbitration and Trading — Mr. J. P. Datta

Railway and Shipping Companies — Mr. Anandji Haridas, Mr. P. Khaitan, G. D. Birla, Kailash Chandra and D. P. Khaitan

Calcutta Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals — Mr. Kasmir A. Mohanlal

General Arbitration Panel — Mr. D. P. Khaitan, Anandji Haridas, and D. P. Khaitan

Bengal Pilotage and Commission — Mr. K. T. Purohit

Chamber's Auditors — Messrs. S. R. Bhatia & Co.

INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, INDIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE, BOMBAY.

The Indian National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce was established for the following purposes in the year 1928 —

- (a) To participate in the promotion of the objects for which the International Chamber of Commerce, hereinafter called the "International Chamber", is established, namely.
- (i) To facilitate the commercial intercourse of countries.
- (ii) To secure harmony of action on all international questions affecting finance, industry and commerce.

- (iii) To encourage progress and to promote peace and cordial relations among countries and their citizens by the co-operation of business men and organizations devoted to the development of commerce and industry.

The Indian National Committee has on its roll 40 commercial bodies as Organisation Members and 60 commercial firms as Associate Members.

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR THE YEAR 1933

President — Lala Shri Ram.

Vice-President — Mr. Hosenbhoj A. Laljee

Members of the Executive Committee—Mr Kasturbhai Lalbhai (Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, Ahmedabad), Mr Walchand Hirachand (Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, Bombay), Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt, CIE, MBE (Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay), Mr G D Bhla, (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry), Mr D P Khaitan, (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry), Mr Nalini Ranjan Sarker (Bengal National Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta), Mr Amritlal Qha, (Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta), Mr Chunilal B Mehta, (Bombay Bullion Exchange, Bombay), Mr Balrajee Cowasjee (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry), Mr Mohamed Ismail, (Federation of Indian Chambers of

Commerce and Industry), Mr Vithaladas Vissani, (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry), and L Padmanabha Singham (Merchants' Chamber of United Provinces, Cawnpore)

Co-opted—Mr B Das, M.L.A., Mr Feroz D Currumbhoy, Raja Ratna Sheth Bhambhani, D Amin, Mr M A Master and Mr V L Dahanukar

Ex-Officio—Mr D S Erulkar and Mr K Mehta (Representatives of the Council of the International Chamber of Commerce.)

Honorary Treasurer.—Mr R L Nopany

Secretary—Mr J K Mehta

Assistant Secretary—A C Ramalingham

BOMBAY.

The object and duties of the Bombay Chamber, as set forth in their Memorandum and Articles of Association, are to encourage a friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good; to promote and protect the general mercantile interests of this Presidency, to collect and classify information on all matters of general commercial interest, to obtain the removal, as far as such a Society can, of all acknowledged grievances affecting merchants as a body, or mercantile interests in general, to receive and decide references on matters of usage and custom in dispute, recording such decisions for future guidance, and by this and such other means, as the Committee for the time being may think fit, assisting to form a code of practice for simplifying and facilitating business, to communicate with the public authorities, with similar Associations in other places and with individuals, on all subjects of general mercantile interests, and to arbitrate between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of the Chamber.

The Bombay Chamber was established in 1836, under the auspices of Sir Robert Grant, who was then Governor of the Presidency, and the programme described above was embodied in their first set of rules. According to the latest returns, the number of Chamber members is 186. Of these numbers 20 represent banking institutions, 11 shipping agencies and companies, 8 firms of solicitors, 8 railway companies, 12 insurance companies, 17 engineers and contractors, 130 firms engaged in general mercantile business.

All persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits desirous of joining the Chamber and disposed to aid in carrying its objects into effect are eligible for election to membership by ballot. The Chamber member's subscription is Rs 360. Gentlemen distinguished for public services, or "eminent in commerce and manufactures," may be elected honorary members and as such are exempt from paying subscriptions. Any stranger engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits and visiting the Presidency may be introduced as a visitor

by any Member of the Chamber inserting his name in a book to be kept for the purpose, but a residence of two months shall subject him to the rule for the admission of members

Officers of the Year

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a committee of nine ordinary members, consisting of the President and Vice-President and seven members. The committee must, as a rule, meet at least once a week and the minutes of its proceedings are open to inspection by all members of the Chamber, subject to such regulations as the committee may make in regard to the matter. A general meeting of the Chamber must be held once a year and ten or more members may requisition, through the officers of the Chamber, a special meeting at any time, for specific purpose

The Chamber elects representatives as follows to various public bodies—

The Council of State, one representative

Legislative Council of the Governor of Bombay, two representatives.

Bombay Municipal Corporation, one member, elected for three years

Board of Trustees of the Port of Bombay, five members, elected for two years.

The following are the officers of the Chamber for the year 1935-36 and their representatives on the various public bodies—

President—Sir John Abercrombie, Kt, Jt C

Vice-President—W. G Lely, Esq

Committee—G H Cooke, Esq, E H Currie, Esq, J J Lockhart Esq, S Funnell, Esq, J R N Graham, Esq, A C W. M Pitne, Esq, L C Reid, Esq, M C

Secretary—R J F Sullivan, Esq

Asst Secretary—H. Royal, Esq.

Representatives on—**Council of State**—The Hon'ble Mr. E. Miller.**Bombay Legislative Council**—J B Greaves, Esq, M L C, G. L. Winterbotham, Esq, M L C.**Bombay Port Trust**—G H Cooke, Esq, J. J. Flockhart, Esq, F H French, Esq, W G Lely, Esq, R C Lowndes, Esq**Bombay Municipal Corporation**. O P G Wade, Esq.**Bombay College of Commerce Advisory Board** R L Ferard, Esq and A. G. Gray, Esq**Bombay Smoke, Nuisances Commission** H F Milne, Esq.**Persian Gulf Inghis Committee**. G. Furze, Esq**Governor's Hospital Fund**. O N Moberly, Esq, O I B**Indian Central Cotton Committee**: M. S. Duruti, Esq**Empire Cotton Growing Corporation** S B Samoilys, Esq**Back Bay Reclamation Scheme—Standing Advisory Committee and Lay-out Committee**. Sir Joseph Kay, Kt.**Auxiliary Force Advisory Committee** V F Noel-Paton, Esq**Ex-Services Association**. Sir John Abercrombie, Esq (Ex-officio)**Bombay Seamen's Society** R. J. F. Sullivan, Esq.**Federation of Chambers of Commerce of the British Empire** Sir Malcolm Hogg, Kt.**Railway Advisory Committees—**

G I P : L. A. Halsall, Esq

B B & C. I L. A. Halsall, Esq

Bombay Telephone Company, Ltd W. G Lely, Esq**Railway Rates Advisory Committee** G C R Coleridge, Esq, L. A. Halsall, Esq; J F. Macdonell, Esq, The Hon Mr E Miller, C J Damala, Esq**Government of Bombay Road Board** G H Cooke, Esq**Bombay University** G L Winterbotham, Esq, M L C**Special Work.**

One of the most important functions performed by the Chamber is that of arbitration in commercial disputes. Rules for this have been in existence for many years and have worked most satisfactorily. The decisions are in all cases given by competent arbitrators appointed by the General Committee of the Chamber and the system avoids the great expense of resort to the Law Courts

A special department of the Bombay Chamber is its Statistical Department, which prepares a large amount of statistical returns connected with the trade of the port and of great importance to the conduct of commerce. The department consists of fourteen Indian clerks who, by the authority of Government, work in the Customs House and have every facility placed at their disposal by the Customs authorities. They compile all the statistical information in connection with the trade of the port, in both export and import divisions, which it is desirable to record. No other Chamber in India does similar work to the same extent.

The Bombay Chamber publishes a Daily Arrival Return which shows the receipts into Bombay of cotton, wheat and seeds, and a Daily Trade Return, which deals with trade by sea and shows in great detail imports of various kinds of merchandise and of treasure, while the same return contains particulars of the movements of merchant vessels.

The Chamber publishes twice a week detailed reports known as Import and Export manifests, which give particulars of the cargo carried by each steamer to and from Bombay.

Four statements are issued once a month. One shows the quantity of exports of cotton seeds and wheat from the principal ports of the whole of India. The second gives in detail imports from Europe, more particularly in regard to grey cloths, bleached cloths, Turkey red and scarlet cloths, printed and dyed goods, fancy cloth of various descriptions, woollens, yarns, metals, kerosene oil, coal, aniline dyes, sugar, matches, wines and other sundry goods. The third shows, classified, the number of packages of piece-goods and yarns imported by individual merchants. The fourth gives number of bales of cotton exported by each firm to each country during the month with a running total of the number of bales exported during the year.

Another "Monthly Return" issued by the Chamber shows clearances of a large number of important designations of merchandise. A return of "Current Quotations" is issued once a week, on the day of the departure of the English mail, and shows the rates of exchange for Bank and Mercantile Bills on England and Paris, and a large quantity of general banking and trade information.

The annual reports of the Chamber are substantial tomes in which the whole of the affairs of the Chamber and the trade of the port during the past year are reviewed.

The Chamber has also a Measurement Department with a staff of 10, whose business is that of actual measurement of exports in the docks before loading in steamers. Certificates are issued by these officers with the authority of the Chamber to shippers and ship agents as to the measurement of cotton and other goods, in bales or packages. From the measurements given in this certificate the freight payable by the Shippers of goods is calculated. The measurers are in attendance on the quays whenever there are goods to be measured and during the busy

season are on duty early and late. The certificates granted show the following details —

- (a) The date, hour and place of measurement
- (b) the name of the shipper;
- (c) the name of the vessel;
- (d) the port of destination;
- (e) the number and description of packages;
- (f) the marks;
- (g) the measurement, and in the case of goods shipped by boats;
- (h) the registered number of the boat;
- (i) the name of the tinal.

Certificates of weight and of origin are also issued by the Chamber.

Associated Chamber of Commerce of India

HEAD OFFICE LOCATED IN CALCUTTA FOR 1935

President: The Hon Mr G R Campbell

Millowners' Association, Bombay.

The Millowners' Association, Bombay was established in 1875 and its objects are as follows —

- (a) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity amongst Millowners and users of steam, water and/or electric power on all subjects connected with their common good
- (b) To secure good relation between members of the Association
- (c) To promote and protect the trade, commerce and manufactures of India in general and of the cotton trade in particular
- (d) To consider questions connected with the trade, commerce and manufactures of its members
- (e) To collect and circulate statistics and to collect, classify and circulate information relating to the trade, commerce and manufactures of its members

Any individual partnership or company owning one or more mill or mills or one or more press or presses or one or more ginning or other factory or factories actuated by steam, water, electric and/or other power is eligible for membership members being elected by ballot. Every member is entitled to one vote for every complete sum of Rs 50 paid by him as annual subscription.

The membership of the Association in 1934 numbers 100

The following is the Committee for 1935 —

Sir Joseph Kay, Kt (*Chairman*), V N Chandavarkar, Esq (*Dy Chairman*), Sir Ness Wadia, KBE, CIE, Sir Chunilal V Mehta, KCSI, Sir Dinshaw E Wacha, Kt, T V Baddeley, Esq, B D Benjamin, Esq, Bhagwandas Nanmohandas Ramji, Esq, Dharamsi Mulraj Khatau, Esq, R L Ferard, Esq, A Geddis, Esq; Krishnaraj M D Thackersey, Esq, A. M. Mehta,

Esq, H T Milne, Esq, H P Mody, Esq, M L A, Neville Ness Wadia, Esq, A Pether, Esq, S D Saklatvala, Esq, V J C, F Stones, Esq, OBE, C P Wadia, Esq, and T Maloney, Esq. (*Secretary*).

The following are the Association's Representatives on public bodies —

Legislative Assembly Mr. H. P. Mody, M L A

Bombay Legislative Council Mr S D Saklatvala, M L C

Bombay Port Trust Mr A Geddis

Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute Mr. V N Chandavarkar

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission. Messrs W F Webb and Mark Binmie

Advisory Board of Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics Mr Dharamsi Mulraj Khatau

Indian Central Cotton Committee Mr S. D Saklatvala, M L C

Development of Bombay Advisory Committee Mr V N Chandavarkar

G I P Railway Advisory Committee. Mr. A Geddis

B B & C I Railway Advisory Committee Mr H P Mody, M L A

Bombay Municipal Corporation Mr H. P Mody, M L A

University of Bombay Mr F Stones, OBE

Royal Institute of Science Mr B D Benjamin

The Office of the Association is located at 2nd Floor, Patel House, Churchgate Street, Fort, Bombay, and the Telephone No. is 25350

Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd.

The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd, was registered on 30th June 1924, as a Company limited by guarantee. The registered office of the Association is located in Patel House, Churchgate Street, Fort, Bombay.

The objects of the Association are —

(a) The mutual insurance of members of the Company against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them or their dependants for injuries or accidents, fatal or otherwise, arising out of and in the course of their employment; (b) the insurance of members of the Company against loss or damage by or incidental to fire, lightning, etc; and (c) to reinsure or in any way provide for or against the liability of the Company upon any assurances granted or entered into by the Company and generally to effect and obtain re-insurances, counterinsurances and counter-guarantees, etc., etc., etc.

The Association consisted of 50 members on 1st October, 1934.

(3) Honorary members — Gentlemen distinguished for public services, eminent in commerce and industry or otherwise interested in the interests and objects of the Chamber, elected as Honorary members at the General Meeting of the Chamber on the recommendation of the Committee and as such shall be entitled from paying subscription. They shall not be entitled to vote at any meeting of the Chamber, but they are eligible to serve on the Committee for the

and Mr E Schwarz (Volkart Brothers)

Representatives on the Bombay Legislative Council — Mr J Humphrey, OBE

Representatives on the Karachi Port Trust — Messrs H S Bigg-Wither, OBE, G H Raschen, J W Anderson and W D Young

Representatives on the Karachi Municipality — Mr A W Hutton, OBE, MC, and Mr W F Enever

Representatives on the North Western Railway Local Advisory Committee, Karachi. Messrs G H Raschen and L Reid

Ag Secretary — Mr H M Gomes

Ag Public Measurer — Mr J G Smith

Any Indian gentleman, firm or person engaged in mercantile pursuits of a commerce and commerce de jure of the Chamber shall be eligible for election to the Chamber as

The following Associations are on the Chamber the Chamber —

- The Grain Merchants' Association, Karachi Municipality
- The Bombay Rice Merchants' Association, Western Railway
- The Bombay Chamber of Commerce, Karachi
- The Bombay Chamber of Commerce, January 1935
- Merchants' Association, officers in 1934 —
- S Bigg-Wither, OBE
- The Bombay Shroffs Storage and Distributing Ltd)
- The Bombay Pearl Ltd)
- Association. Mr J W Anderson
- Trading Co (India) Ltd)
- The Bombay Chamber of Commerce — Mr A D Finney
- Johnson Mackenzie & Co), Mr A K
- The Silkman (North Western Railway), Mr
- The Sir S Miculachi, (Ralli Brothers, Ltd),
- Mr G N R Morgan (Bombay Co Ltd),
- The Mr G H Raschen (Forbes, Forbes,
- Bombay Campbell & Co, Ltd), Mr L Reid,
- David Sassoon & Co, Ltd), Mr J
- The Richardson (National Bank of India,
- Bomb-

The following are the principal ways in which the Chamber gives special assistance to members. — The Committee take into consideration and give an opinion upon questions submitted by members regarding the custom of the trade or of the Port of Karachi. The Committee undertake to nominate arbitrators and surveyors for the settlements of disputes. When two members of the Chamber or when one member and a party who is not a member have agreed to refer disputes to the arbitration of the Chamber or of an arbitrator or arbitrators nominated by the Chamber, the Committee will undertake to nominate an arbitrator or arbitrators, under certain regulations. Similarly, the Chamber, under certain regulations, will undertake to appoint an arbitrator or arbitrators for the settlement of disputes in which neither of the parties are members of the Chamber. A public measurer is appointed under the authority of the Chamber to measure pressed bales of cotton, wool, hides and other merchandise arriving at or leaving the port

MADRAS.

The Madras Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1836. All merchants and other persons engaged or interested in the general trade, commerce and manufactures of Madras are eligible for membership. Any assistant signing a firm or signing *per-pro* for a firm is eligible. Members who are absent from Madras but pay their subscriptions may be represented in the Chamber by their powers-of-attorney, as honorary members, subject to ballot. Honorary members are elected are entitled to the full privilege of ordinary members. Election for membership ballot at a general meeting, a majority of the recorded votes being necessary. Every member pays an entrance fee of Rs 100, provided that banks, bodies and mercantile firms may be elected on the Chamber by one or more members and are liable for an entrance fee of Rs 100 in ten years each. The subscription in advance, subject to reduction in accordance with the state of the finances. Absentees in Europe and members temporary in Madras pay one rupee per annum. Members are admissible to the usual conditions. Members insolvent cease to be members for re-election without repaying the entrance donation.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations and surveys, the granting of certificates of origin and the registration of trade marks. One of the rules for the last named is "that no trade mark or ticket shall be registered on behalf of an Indian firm trading under a European name."

The following publications are issued by the Chamber — Madras Price Current and Market Report, Tonnage Schedule and Madras Landing Charges and Harbour Dues Schedule

There are 58 members and 8 Honorary Members of the Chamber in the current year and the Officers and Committee for the year are as follows —

Chairman — Sir William Wright, OBE, Vice-Chairman — Mr W H Ruddle

Committee — Mr G A Banbridge, Mr H N Colam, Mr G L Orchard, Mr D M Reid

The following are bodies to which the Chamber is entitled to elect representatives and the representatives elected for the year —

Madras Legislative Council — Mr F Burley, MLC

Madras Port Trust — Messrs F Burley, MLC, G A Banbridge, W M Brownlee, G H Hodgson

Corporation of Madras — Messrs A J Powell, D B Scott, W T Williams

Federation of Chamber of Commerce of the British Empire: Vacant

Secretary G Gompertz

SOUTHERN INDIA.

The Southern India Chamber of Commerce was established in 1909 by the Legislature of the Madras. The object of the Chamber is to promote the usual for such bodies, in order to protect the interests of trade, especially in the Madras Port, and the interests of the community.

"To maintain a library of books and collections of commercial information, and to disseminate commercial information among its members."

"To establish a system of inspection of goods and services, and to regulate the conduct of the Chamber in relation to the public."

There are two classes of members, ordinary and honorary. The ordinary members are elected by ballot for three years.

The Chamber is the oldest of the kind in India. It is the only Chamber of Commerce in the Madras Port, and the only one in the Indian National Congress of the Madras Port.

The Chamber has a right of appeal in all matters of survey and arbitration, and a right of appeal in all matters of origin.

The right of election to a representative of the Madras Port Trust was conferred on the Chamber by the Madras Port Trust Amendment Act, 1915. Members of the Chamber hold seats in the Madras Legislative Council, and the Chamber has also a right of appeal in all matters of survey and arbitration, and a right of appeal in all matters of origin.

NORTHERN INDIA

Northern India Chamber of Commerce, C. 211, M. Gazette Building, The Mall, Lahore.

Chairman: Mr L. T. R. Rifford

Vice Chairman: Rai Bahadur L. Baldev Singh

Committee: Mr C. C. T. Barton, Mr J. G. Davidson, Rai Bahadur L. Baldev Singh, Mr P. H. Gurney, Mr I. C. Hughes, Dewan Bahadur Dewan Kishor Kishor, Mr H. J. Rufford, Sardar Sahib S. S. Singh, Hon'ble Rai Bahadur L. Baldev Singh, Das, C. R. V. S., Mr G. H. I. Richmond, Rai Bahadur Pandit Balak Ram Pandya, Mr G. B. Lewis, Professor W. Roberts, etc.

Chamber Members: Spedding Dings Singh & Co., Lahore, Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co., Lahore, Civil and Military Gazette, Lahore, Allahabad Bank Ltd., Lahore, Dhanraj Singh Parshad, Lahore, Bird & Co., Lahore, H. J. Rufford, Lahore, Col. F. H. Cole, C. R. V. S., Okara, B. C. G. A. (Punjab), Ltd., Lahore, Bharat Insurance Co., Ltd., Lahore, Jallo Resin Factory, Lahore, National Bank of India Ltd., Lahore, Attock Oil Co., Ltd., Rawalpindi, Central Bank of India, Ltd., Lahore, Rai Bahadur Mela Ram's Sons, Lahore, Murree Brewery Co., Ltd., Rawalpindi, Ganesh Flour Mills Co., Ltd., Lyallpur, Mahor Singh Sapran Singh Chawla, Lahore, North-Western Railway, Lahore, Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Lahore, Imperial

Honorary Members: Major A. Angelo, O.B.E., Rai Bahadur L. Ramlal, M.B.E., P.C.S., Mr H. P. Thomas, B.Sc., M.A., F.R.S., M.C., Soc. C.F.

Secretary: H. J. Martin

Tel. Address: "Commerce."

Telephone: 2237

UPPER INDIA

The Upper India Chamber of Commerce is concerned with trade, commerce and manufactures in the United Provinces and has its registered office at Cawnpore. Members are elected by the Committee, subject to confirmation by the next general meeting of the Chamber. Gentlemen distinguished for public service, or eminent in commerce or manufactures, may be elected honorary members of the Chamber by the members in a General Meeting and such shall be exempted from paying any subscription to the Chamber. There is no entrance fee for membership, but subscriptions are payable as follows—A firm, company or association having its place of business in Cawnpore, Rs 800 a year; an individual member resident or carrying on business in Cawnpore, Rs. 800; firms or individuals having their places of business or residence outside Cawnpore pay half the above rates, but the maintenance of a branch office in Cawnpore necessitates payment of full rates.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a Committee of ten members, which has power to constitute Local Committees of from four to seven members each at trade centres where membership is sufficiently numerous to justify the step. Such Local Committees have power to communicate only with the Central Committee.

The Chamber appoints arbitration Tribunals for the settlement and adjustment of disputes when invited, to do so, members of the Tribunals being selected from a regular printed list of arbitrators.

The Chamber has in the present year 61 members, two honorary members and seven affiliated members.

The following are the officers—

Upper India Chamber of Commerce Committee—

President—Mr T Gavin Jones, M.L.C., (The Cawnpore Chemical Works Ltd) *Vice-President*—Mr G V Lewis, (The British India Corporation, Ltd) *Members*—Mr K J D Price, (Muir Mills Co., Ltd), Mr H A Wilkinson, (Messrs. Begg, Sutherland & Co., Ltd), Mr B L Gray, (Messrs Begg, Sutherland & Co., Ltd), Mr J Tinker (British India Corporation, Ltd); Rai Bahadur Babu Ram Narain Sahab, (Cawnpore), Mr E M. Souter, C.I.E., (Messrs. Ford & Macdonald Ltd), Mr Jung Bahadur Mirhoulra (Messrs Moona Lal & Sons), and Mr G A Thompson, (The Allahabad Bank Ltd.) *Representatives on the United Provinces Legislative Council*—Mr T Gavin Jones, M.L.C., (Cawnpore Chemical Works Ltd), The Hon'ble Sir Jwala Prasad Srivastava, Kt, M.L.O., Cawnpore

Secretary—Mr J G Ryan, M.B.E., V.D.

Head Clerk—Babu B N Ghosal

MERCHANTS' CHAMBER OF UNITED PROVINCES, CAWNPORE.

This Chamber was founded towards the end of the year 1932 (November, 1933) by Lala Kamlapat Singhania, the leader of the Indian Commercial and Industrial community of the United Provinces, feeling the need of a healthy, well-organised body truly representative of the Indian Commercial community to voice their grievances, to represent their views on questions of economic importance both to the country and the United Provinces, and to vigilantly watch and try to advance the interests, of Indian Commerce and Industry. Its membership is open to all persons, associations, firms or corporations (incorporated in India) directly engaged interested in or possessing expert

knowledge of trade, commerce, manufacture, industry, transport, banking, finance or insurance and having a place of business in the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh. The Chamber is a member of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry, the All-India representative organisation of Indian Commerce and Industry. The Executive body, or the Council of the Chamber as it is called, consists of 17 members. The principal Office-Bearers for the year 1934-35 are as follows—

President—L Kamlapat Singhania

Senior Vice-President—Mr S M Bashir

Junior Vice-President—SardarINDER Singh,

Secretary—Mr D V Kelkar, M.A.

THE INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, LAHORE (PUNJAB).

The Indian Chamber of Commerce (Desai Beopar Mandal), Lahore, was established in 1912 and was registered under the Indian Companies Act, 1882, in 1913. The main objects for which the Chamber was established were to safeguard the interests of Indian Commerce, Trade and Agriculture. The Chamber is recognised by the Punjab Government and the Government of India. The Chamber is affiliated to the Federation of Indian Chamber

of Commerce and Industry and is member of the International Chamber of Commerce, Paris—The Chamber has trade mark registration Department and has Board of Arbitration to settle commercial disputes. Member of the Committee for 1933-34 are *President*—Lala Harkishen Lal, B.A. (Cantab), B.A. (Law), *Vice-President*—(1) Lala Raj Mulk Bhatta, Munazir Director, Punjab Co-operative Bank Ltd., Amritsar and (2) K B Sardar Habibullah,

The rules of the Chamber provide that by the term 'member' be understood a mercantile firm or establishment, or the permanent Agency of a mercantile firm or establishment, or a society of merchants carrying on business in Cocanada or other place in the Districts of Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatam, and Ganyam, and duly elected according to the Rules of the Chamber, and that all such be eligible but only members resident in Cocanada can hold office. Members are elected by ballot. The Committee, when called upon by dissenting members or non-members of the Chamber, give their decision upon all questions of mercantile usage and arbitrate upon any commercial matter referred to them for final judgment. In either case a minimum fee of Rs 16 must accompany the reference with Rs 5 from a non-member and Re. 1 from a member as payment for the Chamber's Sealed Certificate.

The Committee consisting of 3 members, including the Chairman, is elected by ballot at the general meeting in January in each year for a term of 12 months. The entrance fee for each member, whose place of business is in Cocanada, is Rs. 100 and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 50. The subscription for each member whose place of business is in Cocanada is Rs 120 per annum, payable quarterly, and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs 60 per annum, payable in advance. The Committee usually meets once a month on the penultimate Thursday and the general body meets on the last Thursday.

A Fortnightly Circular of current rates of produce, freights, and exchange is drawn up by the Committee.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCIAL INTELLIGENCE AND STATISTICS.

The Department of Statistics was reabsorbed into the Department of Commercial Intelligence with effect from the 1st December 1922. The joint department has its office at No 1, Council House Street, Calcutta. It embraces two distinct classes of work: (a) the collection and dissemination of information connected with overseas trade which may be of use to Indian firms and (b) the compilation and publication of All-India statistics.

For some time past the Government of India have felt the necessity for the creation of a Central Statistical Research Bureau for the continuous analysis and interpretation of economic and statistical facts and phenomena and they have recently established the nucleus of a Statistical Research Bureau under the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics at their headquarters. The Director-General is now stationed at the headquarters of the Government of India with a Deputy Director of Commercial Intelligence and a Deputy Director of Statistics at Calcutta and a new Deputy Director of Statistical Research at the headquarters.

Among the important publications for which the Director-General is responsible are the following annual volumes *Review of the Trade of India*, *Statement of the Foreign Sea-borne Trade and Navigation of British India*, *Statistical Abstract for British India*, *Agricultural Statistics*, *Estimates of Area and Yield of Principal Crops and Indian Customs Tariff*. The department also publishes a weekly journal—'The Indian Trade Journal'—the principal features of which are (a) information as to tariff change in foreign countries which affect Indian interests (b) notices of tenders called for and contracts placed by Government departments and public bodies, (c) crop reports and forecasts, (d) Government orders, communiques and other

notifications affecting trade, (e) analysis of Indian trade statistics, (f) market reports, prices and trade movements of the staple exports and imports, (g) trade enquiries for securing trade introductions, (h) summaries of the leading features of consular and other trade reports, and (i) abstracts of the proceedings of the various Chambers of Commerce in India.

The Department also administers the COMMERCIAL LIBRARY AND READING ROOM located at No 1, Council House Street, Calcutta. This was at first a small departmental library used for the purpose of answering enquiries, but in 1919 the Government of India agreed to the formation of a combined technological library of reference in Calcutta in place of the separate libraries attached to the Departments of Commercial Intelligence, Statistics, and Patents and Designs, and the resultant Commercial Library and Reading Room was placed under the administrative control of the Director-General. It has now been expanded into a first-class technical library containing over 15,387 volumes on different subjects of commercial, economic and industrial interest as well as Indian and foreign statistical publications, and over 388 technical and commercial journals and market reports. Ordinarily books are consulted in the Library, but they are also available on loan upon deposit of value throughout India.

The Department works in close co-operation with Directors of Industries and other Government Departments in India, with the Indian Trade Commissioners in London and Hamburg with His Majesty's Trade Commissioners in India and the Dominions, and with Consular Officers in various parts of the world. And the yearly increase in its correspondence shows that it is steadily being used more and more both by firms in India and by overseas firms interested in Indian exports.

THE BRITISH TRADE COMMISSIONER SERVICE IN INDIA.

The British Trade Commissioners in India are part of the world-wide Commercial Intelligence Organisation of the Imperial Government. The Department of Overseas Trade, London, which is the headquarters of this organisation, is a joint department of the Board of Trade and the Foreign Office and was created in 1917 with the specific object of stimulating the overseas trade of the United Kingdom by securing commercial information from all parts of the world, by disseminating it to British manufacturers and exporters, by undertaking such special constructive activities as may be found possible, and by assisting traders in the removal of their difficulties. The Department has nothing to do with the regulation of trade. It passes no measures and makes no restrictive or regulative orders. Briefly, the policy on which it is based is the policy of assistance without interference

into personal relations with the Chambers of Commerce, Trade Associations, and similar bodies, and with the principal representative importers and local manufacturers, to visit the principal commercial centres, to report upon foreign competition, on financial and trade conditions, and new legislation affecting trade, to make an annual general report on the conditions and prospects of trade in his area, and to furnish special reports and monographs on particular questions which are likely to be of interest to British manufacturers and exporters. He is also expected to supply a regular flow of commercial information of all kinds to his department, to maintain an active correspondence with firms in the United Kingdom or the Dominions who wish to extend their trade with his area and to give all possible assistance to the representatives of British firms who may visit his territory.

The Department of Overseas Trade maintains a network of trained and experienced Commercial Intelligence Officers throughout the world, who forward a constant supply of commercial information to London and provide local assistance in the promotion of British economic interests. Those overseas officers who are stationed in the British Empire are members of the Trade Commissioner Service while Foreign countries are served by the Commercial Diplomatic Service forming part of the British Diplomatic Missions and by the Consular Service.

Sir (then Mr) Thomas M. Ainscough, C.B.E., was appointed His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India in January 1918 and opened an office in Calcutta in March of that year. For five years, owing to the pressing need for economy in the Public Service, he was singlehanded in covering this vast territory. In 1923, however, H.M.'s Government sanctioned the opening of an office in Bombay and the creation of an additional Trade Commissioner's post in Calcutta. Mr W. D. M. Clarke holds the appointment of H.M.'s Trade Commissioner at Bombay and in 1935 Mr A. Schofield was appointed as H.M.'s Trade Commissioner at Calcutta. The territory is now divided between the Calcutta and Bombay posts and this development allows the Senior Officer to travel almost continuously to any part of India which may call for his attention and to devote his time to some of the broader politico-economic problems which are becoming so important in view of the changing political conditions in India.

Function of Commissioner.—The primary duty of the British Trade Commissioner comprises the collection of information in regard to opportunities that may arise within his territory for securing and developing trade by British manufacturers and merchants, both in the United Kingdom and other parts of the British Empire. He is, therefore, enjoined carefully to watch and report from time to time to the Board of Trade and the Governments of the Dominions concerned on all matters affecting the trade, industry and commerce of his area. His general functions are to maintain cordial relations with the governing authorities of his area, to enter

Every effort is made by His Majesty's Trade Commissioners to keep in touch with British representatives and agents in India. The offices are equipped with a complete range of directories and reference books of all kinds and information is available with regard to such matters as tariff conditions, port dues and charges throughout the world, etc. A library, consisting of over 1,000 catalogues of the leading British manufacturers is maintained in Calcutta and Bombay, and firms desiring information with regard to specific manufacturers of particular machinery or processes are invited either to call personally or to communicate their requirements in writing. It is hoped that local importers and buyers will co-operate by making a more extended use of the information available in the offices and by bringing to the attention of the British Trade Commissioners any cases where the interests of exporters from the United Kingdom or the Dominions may be adversely affected by foreign competition or otherwise.

For many years British traders have deplored the fact that there have not been available officials with commercial experience who could help them in voicing their difficulties and in meeting foreign competition. As a rule these complaints eulogized the Consuls of other countries and invited the attention of Government to their many virtues. In response to this agitation the greatest care has been taken by the British Government to select, as their trade officers Overseas, men of sound commercial training and experience who have acquired some reputation in their respective spheres, and a comprehensive and businesslike organization has been built up at the Department of Overseas Trade, London, to deal with the information sent home. It now rests with the British mercantile community, both at home and also Overseas, to co-operate freely and frankly with the Trade Commissioners and to recognize the work they are doing in the Imperial interest by assisting them with such information and particulars with regard to foreign competing goods, conditions of trade, etc., as they are able to afford.

The Karachi Chamber of Commerce, Mr F G
Ahmedabad Millowners' Association,
in Co. Sakarlal Balabhai
27th,
Trade Tuticoria Chamber of Commerce, Mr J
dist. sch
Trad
The Upper India Chamber of Commerce, Mr
E J W. Plummer

The Empire Cotton Growing Corporation,
Mr W. Roberts, O.E.

COMMERCIAL REPRESENTATIVES NOMINATED BY LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

Central Provinces—Mr Y G Deshpande, Rao
Bahadur G R Kothare, M.L.O

Madras—Mr J. Nuttall

Punjab—Khan Bahadur Sardar Halabulla,
M.L.O

Bengal—Mr. Akhil Bandhu Guha

**CO-OPERATIVE BANKING
REPRESENTATIVE**

Rao Bahadur M G Deshpande, O.E.

**REPRESENTATIVES OF COTTON-GROW-
ING INDUSTRY**

Madras—Mr K S Ramaswami Gownder
And By K. Sarabha Reddi Garu

Ram
J. G. Bay—Sardar Rao Bahadur Bhimbhai
Vom
Esq. Khodji Naik, M.L.O, Rao Bahadur Chen-
Esq. Pa Shudramappa Shrivasthi
Seller
Seller of Provinces—Khan Bahadur Shah
Panel, Hussain, M.L.O Rao Bahadur Lala
Jagjiw,
Rameswarup, M.L.O

Hargov
Chitranb—Sardar Sampuran Singh, M.L.O
N. M. H
Panel
Nurullah
Rao, B
Gro, B
Indian C
C. S. Sh
Esq, Gro
the Gov

State—Mr Nizam-ud-din Hader,
D Meht
Esq, B
Menezes, B

Provinces and Berar—Mr N M
Mr J B Deshmukh

REPRESENTATIVES OF INDIAN STATES

State—Mr Nizam-ud-din Hader,
D Meht
Esq, B
Menezes, B

State—Mr C V Sane, Director of
Agriculture

Gwalior State—Mr H H P. J. S. Agricultural
Adviser

Rajputana and Central India States—Mr J K
Jackson, Director, Institute of Plant Industry,
Indore

**ADDITIONAL MEMBERS NOMINATED BY
THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL-IN-COUNCIL**

Mr. D N Mahta, Economic Botanist for
Cotton, Central Provinces

Mr S S Sahmath, Deputy Director of Agri-
culture, Southern Division Dharwar

M R By V Ramanatha Iyer, Acl, Cotton
Specialist, Colmbatore

Musahib-i-khas Bahadur S V Kanungo
Finance Minister, Representative of the Indore
State.

Mr W J. Jenkins, I.A.S., Chief Agricultural
Officer in Sind

Seth Isserdas Varindmal, Representative of
the Karachi Indian Merchants' Association

Mr P. B Richards, I.A.S., Entomologist to
Government, United Provinces, Cawnpore

Khan Bahadur Nawab Fazl-i-Ali Khan,
Chairman, District Board and President, Central
Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Gujrat (Punjab)

Khan Saheb Farrukhbeg Sadikahbeg Murza
Nawabshah, Sind

Lala Shri Ram, Representative of the Cotton
Millowners' of Delhi

A K Yegna Narajan Iyer, Director of
Agriculture, Mysore State, Bangalore

Mr Chellaram Shewaram, Representative of
the Karachi Cotton Association Ltd

Secretary—Mr P. H Rama Reddi, I.A.S

Deputy Secretary—Vacant

Publicity Officer.—Mr R D. Mhira.

Director, Technological Laboratory.—Dr Nour
Ahmad.

The spinning of yarn is in a large degree centred in Bombay, the mills of that province producing nearly 53 per cent of the quantity produced in British India. The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and Madras produced about 20·8 per cent. while Bengal and the Central Provinces produced 4·3 and 4·0 per cent. Elsewhere the production is as yet very limited.

BOMBAY ISLAND.

Here is a detailed statement of the quantity (in pounds) and the counts, or numbers, of yarn spun in Bombay Island —

—	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33	1933-34.
Nos. 1—10	32,435,744	53,035,403	53,038,480	52,408,182	40,700,540	42,715,111
„ 11—20	61,806,080	105,891,361	109,812,483	121,121,030	121,094,087	92,714,801
„ 21—30	47,058,788	85,715,908	82,704,900	104,772,031	97,050,083	74,000,208
„ 31—40	8,560,651	13,074,239	22,071,169	20,178,014	31,590,653	21,131,281
Above 40	3,133,097	4,028,807	10,493,889	12,051,822	12,904,255	10,801,301
Wastes, &c	901,027	870,000	525,937	704,546	573,318	924,877
TOTAL ..	153,752,803	203,219,744	270,000,933	321,589,815	312,921,893	242,947,799

AHMEDABAD.

The corresponding figures for Ahmedabad are as follows:—

—	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Nos. 1—10	2,409,057	2,957,202	2,774,584	1,897,390	1,817,847	2,297,900
„ 11—20	39,400,182	48,393,118	48,006,959	55,517,079	93,253,618	71,515,832
„ 21—30	58,194,408	63,127,227	58,522,363	60,911,461	61,730,219	54,402,853
„ 31—40	12,039,915	15,399,621	17,155,503	19,017,030	23,291,983	22,262,214
Above 40	4,064,968	5,899,594	10,647,819	14,420,395	16,070,045	18,388,301
Wastes, &c.	512
TOTAL .	116,718,430	135,770,822	137,107,228	152,363,901	199,193,742	198,027,587

YARN SPUN THROUGHOUT INDIA.

The grand totals of the quantities in various counts of yarn spun in the whole of India including Native States, are given in the following table —

—	1928-29	1929-30.	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34.
Nos. 1—10	78,887,784	105,477,320	113,588,158	116,809,114	115,210,693	107,594,031
„ 11—20	303,135,880	337,822,398	400,150,510	445,157,034	484,241,173	439,896,706
„ 21—30	213,013,236	271,758,294	259,455,565	294,005,342	297,512,610	254,827,136
„ 31—40	37,488,197	46,362,781	60,746,714	71,073,075	77,185,513	75,810,009
Above 40	19,029,048	15,278,339	27,310,831	34,001,393	39,593,740	37,358,405
Wastes, &c.	5,720,242	6,709,881	5,792,771	5,236,192	5,074,071	5,634,696
TOTAL .	648,283,337	383,409,013	455,889,074	906,373,020	1,016,418,400	921,000,983

In the early days of the textile industry the energies of the millowners were largely concentrated on the production of yarn, both for the China market, and for the handlooms of India. The increasing competition of Japan in the China market, the growth of an indigenous industry in China and the uncertainties introduced by the fluctuations in the China exchanges consequent on variations in the price of silver compelled the millowners to cultivate the Home market. The general tendency of recent years has been to spin higher counts of yarn, importing American cotton for this purpose to supplement the Indian supply, to erect more looms, and to produce more dyed and bleached goods. This practice has reached a higher development in Bombay than in other parts of India, and the Bombay Presidency produced in 1933-34 nearly 64·4 per cent of the cloth woven in India. The United Provinces produced 7·3 per cent, the Central Provinces 2·9 per cent and Madras 3·1 per cent. Gray and Bleached goods represent nearly 76·7 per cent. of the whole production.

ANALYSIS OF WOVEN GOODS.

The following brief extract is taken from the statement of the quantity (in pounds and their equivalent in yards) and description of woven goods produced in all India, including Native States:—

	1929-30	1930-31.	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Grey and Bleached piece-goods—					
Pounds ..	421,753,613	460,325,143	520,016,204	531,701,526	495,794,794
Yards ..	1,814,920,801	2,003,490,240	2,311,104,465	2,422,097,054	2,264,994,590
Coloured piece-goods—					
Pounds ..	125,858,886	117,518,225	138,021,286	150,723,943	137,610,496
Yards ..	604,059,124	557,642,795	678,786,696	746,901,445	680,030,523
Grey and coloured goods other than piece-goods—					
Pounds ..	4,536,020	3,178,666	3,237,696	3,542,246	3,391,961
Dozens ..	1,164,778	779,365	831,844	946,971	841,755
Hosiery—					
Pound ..	1,923,016	1,667,834	1,974,144	2,544,339	2,193,217
Dozens ..	576,353	499,933	622,360	746,341	667,600
Miscellaneous—					
Pounds ..	4,635,744	4,225,198	5,362,410	4,291,948	4,863,953
Cotton goods mixed with silk or wool—					
Pound ..	3,360,626	3,443,498	3,045,221	2,007,004	1,879,114
Total—					
Pounds ..	562,058,731	590,336,923	672,256,961	694,901,056	645,713,715
Yards ..	2,418,979,925	2,561,133,035	2,988,891,101	3,169,898,499	2,945,031,727
Dozens ..	1,737,182	1,272,541	1,453,704	1,693,312	1,593,355

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY WOVEN GOODS

The output of woven goods during the three years in the Bombay Presidency was as follows:—

The weight (in pounds) represents the weight of all woven goods; the measure in yards represents the equivalent of the weight of the grey and coloured piece-goods)

	1929-30	1930-31.	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Pounds	376,413,138	392,057,830	459,247,935	462,222,027	415,072,223
Yards	1,724,925,196	1,829,793,378	2,188,300,219	2,205,897,230	2,024,523,210
Dozens	960,219	531,704	656,402	608,709	516,611

The grand totals for all India are as follows:—

	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Pounds	562,058,731	590,336,923	672,256,961	694,901,056	645,713,715
Yards	2,418,979,925	2,561,133,035	2,988,891,101	3,169,898,499	2,945,031,727
Dozens	1,737,182	1,272,541	1,453,704	1,693,312	1,593,355

Progress of the Mill Industry.

The following statement shows the progress of the Mill Industry in the whole of India

Years ending 30th June	Number of Mills	Number of Spindles.	Number of Looms	Average No of Hands Employed Daily.	Approximate Quantity of Cotton Consumed.	
					Cwts.	Bales of 30 lbs
1878	53	12,89,706	10,533	Not stated	9,36,547	2,67,585
1879	56	14,52,794	13,018	42,914	10,76,708	3,07,031
1880	56	14,61,600	13,502	44,410	13,26,461	3,78,989
1881	57	15,13,096	13,707	46,430	13,91,467	3,97,365
1882	65	18,20,814	14,172	48,467	15,97,046	4,50,556
1883	67	17,90,388	15,373	53,476	18,59,777	5,31,385
1884	79	20,01,667	16,262	60,397	20,88,621	5,96,749
1885	87	21,45,646	16,537	67,166	22,51,214	6,43,201
1886	95	22,61,501	17,455	74,388	25,41,966	7,26,276
1887	103	24,21,290	18,536	76,942	27,54,437	7,80,982
1888	114	24,88,851	19,490	82,379	31,10,239	8,89,654
1889	124	27,62,518	21,501	91,578	35,29,617	10,08,402
1890	137	32,74,196	23,412	1,02,721	41,26,171	11,78,906
1891	134	33,51,594	24,531	1,11,018	40,80,783	11,65,938
1892	139	34,02,232	25,444	1,16,161	40,93,528	11,71,005
1893	141	35,75,917	28,104	1,21,500	42,78,778	12,22,508
1894	142	36,49,736	31,154	1,30,461	46,03,949	13,41,714
1895	148	38,09,929	35,338	1,38,669	49,32,613	14,09,318
1896	155	39,32,940	37,270	1,45,432	45,53,276	13,00,936
1897	173	40,65,618	37,584	1,44,335	51,84,648	14,81,328
1898	185	42,59,720	38,013	1,48,964	58,63,166	16,75,190
1899	188	47,28,333	39,069	1,62,108	50,86,732	14,53,352
1900	193	49,45,783	40,124	1,61,189	47,31,090	13,51,740
1901	193	50,06,936	41,160	1,72,683	61,77,633	17,65,035
1902	192	50,06,965	42,584	1,81,031	60,97,690	17,39,340
1903	192	50,43,297	44,092	1,81,399	61,06,051	17,44,766
1904	191	51,18,121	45,337	1,84,779	65,77,354	18,79,244
1905	197	51,63,480	50,139	1,93,277	70,82,306	20,23,516
1906	217	52,79,595	52,668	2,08,616	69,30,595	19,50,170
1907	224	53,33,275	58,486	2,05,696	69,70,250	19,91,500
1908	241	57,56,020	67,020	2,21,195	73,81,500	21,09,000
1909	259	60,53,231	70,898	2,36,924	67,72,535	19,35,010
1910	263	61,95,071	82,725	2,38,624	68,70,591	19,05,866
1911	263	63,57,460	85,352	2,30,649	71,75,357	20,59,102
1912	268	64,63,929	88,951	2,43,637	73,36,056	20,96,016
1913	272	65,96,862	94,136	2,53,786	75,00,941	21,43,126
1914*	271	67,78,595	1,04,170	2,60,276	73,59,212	21,02,632
1915*	272	68,48,744	1,08,009	2,65,346	76,92,018	21,97,718
1916*	266	68,39,877	1,10,266	2,74,361	76,93,574	21,93,164
1917*	263	67,38,697	1,14,621	2,76,771	72,99,873	20,85,678
1918*	262	66,53,871	1,16,484	2,82,227	71,54,805	20,44,230
1919*	268	60,89,680	1,18,221	2,93,277	68,33,113	19,52,318
1920*	253	67,63,876	1,19,012	3,11,078	74,20,835	21,20,230
1921*	257	68,70,804	1,23,783	3,32,176	77,12,390	22,03,540
1922*	298	78,31,219	1,34,620	3,43,723	75,30,943	21,61,698
1923*	333	79,37,938	1,44,794	3,47,360	67,12,118	19,17,748
1924*	336	83,13,273	1,51,485	3,56,887	77,92,085	22,26,310
1925*	337	85,10,683	1,54,202	3,67,877	73,96,844	21,13,384
1926*	334	87,14,168	1,59,464	3,73,508	84,80,942	24,17,412
1927*	336	87,02,760	1,61,932	3,84,623	70,34,237	20,09,782
1928*	335	87,04,172	1,66,532	3,80,921	75,84,081	21,61,166
1929*	344	89,07,064	1,74,992	3,48,925	90,07,999	25,73,514
1930*	348	91,24,768	1,79,250	3,84,022	92,16,116	26,33,176
1931*	339	93,11,953	1,82,429	3,95,475	1,01,89,424	29,11,264
1932*	339	95,06,083	1,86,341	4,08,226	99,30,053	28,37,153
1933*	344	95,80,669	1,89,040	4,00,005	94,63,965	27,03,990
1934*	352	96,13,174	1,94,988	3,84,938		

* Year ending 31st August.

Until the outbreak of war the exports by sea of raw jute were marked by increases from year to year although the increase was very much less than that in the case of manufactures. During the war years exports declined very considerably. The cessation of the war stimulated the export trade and in 1919-20 the export showed an increase, as compared with the average of the war quinquennium (1914-15 to 1918-19). In the following two years, the export recorded a decrease and in 1922-23 they again made a recovery and amounted to 578,000 tons

Jute, raw, ton			
Average 1879-80 to 1883-84 .	375,000	(100)	
" 1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	445,000	(119)	
" 1889-90 to 1893-94 .	500,000	(133)	
" 1894-95 to 1898-99 .	515,000	(164)	
" 1899-1900 to 1903-04	635,000	(169)	
" 1904-05 to 1908-09..	755,000	(201)	
" 1909-10 to 1913-14.	765,000	(204)	
" 1914-15 to 1918-19	464,000	(124)	
Year 1919-20	592,000	(159)	
" 1920-21	472,000	(129)	
" 1921-22 . . .	468,000	(125)	
" 1922-23	578,000	(145)	
" 1923-24 . . .	660,000	(176)	
" 1924-25	696,000	(185)	
" 1925-26	647,000	(172)	
" 1926-27	708,000	(189)	
" 1927-28 . . .	892,000	(238)	
" 1928-29	898,000	(239)	
" 1929-30 . . .	807,000	(215)	
" 1930-31 . . .	620,000	(165)	
" 1931-32 . . .	557,000	(157)	
" 1932-33 . . .	563,000	(150)	

The total quantity of jute manufacture exported by sea from Calcutta during the year 1922-23 was 668,000 tons as against 639,000 tons in the preceding year and 603,500 tons in the pre-war year 1913-14. The values of these exports amounted to Rs 40.28 lakhs, or an increase of Rs. 10.36 lakhs over the preceding year and Rs 12.08 lakhs over the pre-war year. The shipments of gunny bags were valued at Rs 15.82 lakhs and of gunny cloth Rs 24.24 lakhs as against Rs 13.86 and Rs 15.92 lakhs respectively in the preceding year and Rs. 12.48 and Rs 15.58 lakhs in the pre war year.

The price of raw jute reached a very high point in 1906-07, the rate being Rs 65 per bale in 1907-08 it dropped to Rs 42 per bale, and the fall was accentuated in 1908-09 and 1909-10, the price having declined to 36-4 and Rs 31, in 1917-18 it dropped to Rs. 35-8-0 but rose again in 1919-20 up to Rs 77-8-0. In 1920-21 it dropped to Rs. 65 but rose again to Rs. 86. It again declined to Rs 66 in 1921-22 the price rose to Rs 73 at the end of September, but

fell back again to Rs 50 at the end of November and recovered at Rs. 61 at the close of the year.

Average price of jute, ordinary, per bale of 400 lbs

Rs a p		
1879-80 to 1883-84 ..	21 8 0	(100)
1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	23 3 2	(111)
1889-90 to 1893-94 ..	32 6 3	(154)
1894-95 to 1898-99 .	30 12 0	(131)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	32 1 7	(157)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	44 13 6	(191)
1909-10 to 1913-14 .	51 0 10	(217)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	30 6 5	(214)
1917-18	38 8 0	(164)
1918-19	60 0 0	(275)
1919-20	77 8 0	(270)
1920-21	69 8 0	(296)
1921-22	63 0 0	(265)
1922-23	73 0 0	(210)
1923-24	75 0 0	(274)
1924-25	89 2 0	(73)
1925-26 . . .	124 2 10	(528)
1926-27 . . .	83 5 9	(331)
1927-28 . . .	73 8 4	(312)
1928-29	76 13 0	(27)
1929-30	66 11 2	(284)
1930-31	42 9 0	(180)
1931-32 . . .	38 3 8	(163)
1932-33 . . .	29 10 9	(126)

N.B.—Prices are given for 'Red' as from 1922-23 onwards.

The average prices of gunny cloth have been as follows—

Price of Gunny cloth 10½oz. 40" per 100 yds		
Rs a p		
1879-80 to 1883-84 .	10 7 11	(110)
1884-85 to 1888-89 .	8 0 7	(77)
1889-90 to 1893-04 .	10 6 6	(111)
1894-95 to 1898-99 .	5 11 8	(111)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	10 2 10	(107)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	11 11 1	(111)
1909-10 to 1913-14 ..	12 12 2	(122)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	23 5 7	(222)
1917-18	33 8 0	(111)
1918-19	33 0 0	(111)
1919-20	28 0 0	(27)
1920-21	20 8 0	(111)
1921-22	14 8 0	(111)
1922-23	21 12 0	(111)
1923-24	19 12 0	(111)
1924-25	22 0 0	(114)
1925-26	24 3 0	(111)
1926-27	19 6 0	(111)
1927-28	21 3 3	(111)
1928-29	22 12 14	(111)
1929-30	17 4 0	(111)
1930-31	12 1 7	(111)
1931-32	11 0 0	(111)
1932-33	10 11 10	(111)

The 1932 crop.—The final figures of outturn for the three provinces work out as follows.—

PROVINCE.	YIELD IN BALES.	
	1933.	1934.
Bengal (including Cooch Behar & Tripura States) ..	7,092,100	7,216,000
Bihar and Orissa	† 473,200	† 450,000
Assam	446,800	207,800
Total ..	8,012,100	7,963,800

PROVINCE.	AREA IN ACRES.	
	1933.	1934.
Bengal (including Cooch Behar & Tripura States) ..	2,168,700	2,186,100
Bihar and Orissa	102,100	165,600
Assam	156,700	145,300
Total ..	2,517,500	2,497,000

† Including Nepal

The Indian Jute Mills Association now one of the most important, if not the most important, of the bodies affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, was started under the following circumstances.—In 1886 the existing mills, finding that, in spite of the constant opening up of new works, working results were not favourable, came to an agreement, with the late S. E. J. Clarke, Secretary to the Chamber of Commerce, as trustee, to work short time. The only mills which stood out of this arrangement were the Hooghly and Berajunge. The first agreement, for six months dating from 15th February 1886, was subsequently renewed at intervals without a break for five years up to February 15, 1891. The state of the market at the time of the renewals dictated the extent of the short time, which varied throughout the five years between 4 days a week, 9 days a fortnight and 3 days a week. Besides short time, 10 per cent. of the sacking looms were shut down for a short period in 1890. An important feature of this agreement was a mutual undertaking by the parties not to increase their spinning power during the currency of the agreement, only a few exceptions being made in the case of a few incomplete new mills.

The present officials of the Association are:—
Chairman.—Mr. H H Burn

Members of Committee —

Mr. B. M. Birla, Mr G M. Garrie, Mr S K. Scott, Mr C G Cooper, M.L.C., Mr A Wilson, Mr. John Scott

Working days.—With the introduction of the electric light into the mills in 1896, the working day was increased to 15 hours, Saturdays included, which involved an additional amount of cleaning and repairing work on Sundays. In order to minimise this Sunday work and give them a free Sunday, an agitation was got up in 1897 by the Mill European assistants to have the engines stopped at 2 or 3 p.m. on Saturdays. The local Government took the matter up, but their action went no further than applying moral suasion, backed by a somewhat half-hearted threat. The Mill Association held meetings to consider the question and the members were practically agreed as to the utility of early closing on Saturdays, but, *more so*, could not trust themselves to carry it out without legislation. Unfortunately the Government of India refused to sanction the passing of a Resolution by the provincial Government under the Factory Act and the matter was dropped. Only a year or two ago the Jute Mills Association in despair brought out an American business expert, Mr. J. H. Parks, to advise them on the possi-

bility of forming a jute trust with a view to exercising some control over the production and price of jute. Mr. Parks came, and wrote a report which the Association promptly pigeon-holed because the slump was over and the demand was so prodigious that there was no need to worry about the price of jute.

about by the war, the quantity exported was 10 per cent below that of the previous year. Of the consumers the United Kingdom and Italy took less, while the United States, France and Brazil took greater quantities. There were, of course, no exports to enemy countries which took more than 27 per cent, in the five years ending 1913-14, the pre-war year. The increase in the value accompanied by a decrease in the volume of exports was due to the very high range of prices during the months of September, October, November and December. Towards the close of the year under review prices steadily declined, and have since gone still lower.

The working agreements referred to above have been followed by others, differing in points of detail, but with the same object in view, namely the restriction of production. During the past 10 years a policy of curtailment of output has been continuously in force. By an agreement operating from October 1931 the mills in the membership of the Association, comprising some 95 per cent of the trade, have worked 40 hours per week, with 15 per cent of the total complement of looms sealed, and the agreement incorporates a clause which provides that the mills will not instal any extra productive machinery or relative buildings during the currency of the agreement, which will remain in force until three months notice of intention to alter the present working arrangements, or to terminate the agreement, has expired. Since the 1st November 1934 this agreement has been modified to the extent that the mills have worked with only 12½ per cent of the total complement of their looms sealed, and as from 1st May 1935 only 10 per cent will remain sealed. Working hours, however, have continued to be restricted to 40 per week. In addition to this working arrangement, which as has been stated above applies only to the mills in the membership of the Association, there came into force with effect from 1st August 1932 an agreement with the five principal mills outside the Association, namely Adamjee, Agarpara, Gagalbhai, Ludlow and Shree Hanuman, whereby these mills undertook to restrict their working hours to 54 per week up to 30th June 1933. With certain modifications this agreement has since been extended and is now a continuing agreement, subject to six months notice of termination being given by either party, but this notice could not be given before the 1st July 1934. Five of the Association mills—Premchand, Craig, Waverley, Megna and Nuddea—have also been granted the privilege of working 54 hours per week with a full complement of machinery.

Jute Manufactures—The value of the exports now approximates to Rs 42 crores. In spite of the war with its attendant difficulties of freight and finance, the exports of gunny cloth showed an increase of Rs 241 lakhs of which Rs 163 lakhs were due to higher prices and Rs. 78 lakhs to an increase in the volume of exports. There were also an increase of Rs. 118 lakhs in the value of gunny bags exported. The number of bags shipped increased while the weight decreased, and bags for war purposes being lighter than the ordinary bags for transporting grain. Exports to Australia in 1916-17 were a record. The United Kingdom with 1916-17 were a record. The United States took more than half the quantity of cloth exported.

There were 74 mills at work throughout the year with 41,292 looms and 863,339 spindles. The number of persons employed was 285,881. There were no difficulties as regards the supply of labour.

The number of gunny bags shipped from Calcutta during 1922-23 declined from 386 million bags to 342 million bags, but the value increased from Rs 18,87 lakhs to Rs 15,82 lakhs. Shipments of gunny cloth rose from 1,120 million yards to 1,251 million yards valued at Rs 16,92 lakhs and Rs 24,24 lakhs respectively.

Hemp and Jute Substitutes.

Experiments have been made during the last few years by the Agricultural Department of the Government of India with the Deccan hemp plant (*Erbucus cannabinus*), which yields a fibre very similar to jute. As a result, a new variety of the plant, known as Type 3, has been obtained, which it is now proposed to introduce into several parts of India, and, as a beginning, the variety is to be grown on a number of estates in Bihar. A sample of the fibre prepared from this variety by the usual methods of retting was 10 ft to 12 ft long, of an exceptional light colour, well cleaned, and of good strength. It was valued at £18 per ton with Bimlipatam jute at £12 10s, and Bengal first mark jute at £17 per ton. Deccan hemp has been grown fairly extensively in Bombay, the Central Provinces, and Madras, where it is used for ropes and cordage and also for the manufacture of a coarse sackcloth. A valuable feature of the plant is its suitability for cultivation in such parts of India as are not suitable for jute.

An Association, styled the Calcutta Jute Dealers Association, has been formed in Calcutta to promote and to guard the common interests of its members as dealers in jute for local consumption. The members are balers and brokers of jute for sale to the jute mills in and around Calcutta. The present Committee is—Mr H A Luke, Chairman. Members—Mr D King, Mr H F Mytton, Mr I D O Buet, Mr A O Robertson and Mr. Murray Fleming.

Effects of the War.—The official review of the Trade of India in 1916-17 says—The value of the exports of raw jute increased in 1916-17 by nearly Rs. 65 lakhs to Rs. 1,629 lakhs. The quantity exported, however, was less than in the preceding year. The estimated yield of the crop was 12 per cent above that of the previous year, viz., 1,490,000 tons or 8,340,000 bales. Owing to the lack of tonnage and other abnormal circumstances brought

Prior to the war, the United Kingdom's requirements of hemp were mainly supplied by the following countries in order of importance — the Philippine Islands, New Zealand, India, Russia, Italy and Germany. The opinion appears to be held that the effect of the war will be to cause very considerable changes in the character of the fibre market. There will probably be labour difficulties, it is thought, in the preparation of the hemp crops of Russia and Hungary and it is not unlikely that the world will look to countries such as India for the supply of fibres which may be used as substitutes for the European varieties of hemp. There can be no doubt

that one of the early effects of the war was to firm up hemp prices. As far as Indian hemp is concerned, values were persistently depreciated during the first six months of 1914 owing to large stocks held; but the closure of the Russian hemp market on the outbreak of war resulted in a marked improvement in values, and there was a keen demand and a considerable rise in price. Exports from Calcutta during 1922-23 made a great recovery from the previous year. The quantity advanced by 37 per cent from 197,412 cwts. to 269,487 cwts. and the value from Rs 26 98 lakhs to Rs. 36 68 lakhs.

THE WOOL INDUSTRY.

Wool exported from India consists not only of wool grown in India itself, but of imports from foreign sources, these latter coming into India both by land and by sea. Imports by sea come chiefly from Persia, but a certain quantity from Persia also comes by land, while the main imports are from Afghanistan, Central Asia, Tibet and Nepal. Quetta, Shikarpur, Amritsar and Multan are the main collecting centres for wool received by land from Afghanistan and Persia, whence it is almost invariably railed to Karachi for subsequent export overseas.

Imports and Exports—A considerable amount of wool is imported annually from Tibet, and in normal years, from Afghanistan. Imports of raw wool in 1933-34 decreased from 7 2 million lbs valued at Rs 42 lakhs to 5 1 million lbs valued at Rs 34 lakhs. Australia with her contribution of 2 8 million lbs valued at Rs 18 lakhs still remained the largest supplier, although this quantity was less by 0 2 million lbs as compared with imports from that country in 1932-33.

Production in India—The production of wool in India is estimated at 60 million lbs the estimate being arrived at from the available figures of the number of sheep in the country and their estimated yield per fleece, the average quantity of wool yielded per sheep per annum being taken at only 2 lbs.

All Indian wools are classed in the grade of carpet wools, and it is correct to say of perhaps fully half the breeds of sheep found on the plains of India that they yield a kind of hair rather than of wool. They are reared chiefly on account of the mutton, and the fleece has been generally regarded as of subsidiary interest. In many respects, in actual fact, the Indian plains sheep approximate more nearly to the accepted type of the goat rather than of the sheep. Short remarks in his manual on Indian cattle and sheep, particularly with respect to the Madras type, that they "resemble a greyhound with tucked up belly, having some coarseness of form, the feet light, the limbs bony, sides flat and the tail short."

Mill manufacture—The number of mills in British India in 1930, the latest year for which

details are available, was 12 of which five were in the United Provinces. The paid up capital of these mills was Rs 68,28,576 and the number of looms and spindles was 1,447 and 60,293 respectively. The average number of persons employed daily in these mills was 4,240. There are no complete figures of production, the last year for which they are available being 1921 when the quantity of woollen goods produced was 3,820,879 lbs valued at Rs 1,17,90,396. As regards Indian States there are four woollen mills in Mysore which produced woollen goods of 2,700,201 lbs, in weight in 1930, the value being Rs 17,83,256. The bulk of the wool used by the Indian mills is Indian wool, although it is supplemented to some extent by the importation of merinos and cross-breeds from Australia for the manufacture of the finer classes of goods. Their market for manufactured goods is almost entirely in India itself. Imports of woollen piecegoods in 1932-33 increased by over 8 million yards as compared with the preceding year, and even exceeded the imports of 1929-30 by about a million yards. Imports came chiefly from France, Italy, Japan and the United Kingdom. There was a considerable increase in the number of woollen shawls imported in 1932-33, Germany being the largest single source of supply. Imports of carpets and floor-rugs declined to 188,000 lbs in 1932-33 from 267,000 lbs in 1931-32. The share of Persia in this trade receded considerably, but imports from the United Kingdom rose.

Blanket weaving and carpet manufacture are carried on in various parts of the country, notably in the Punjab and the United Provinces. Woollen pile carpets are made in many of the jails. Amritsar had a considerable trade at one time in weaving shawls from *pashm*, the fine under fleece of the Tibetan goat, but its place has been taken to some degree by the manufacture of shawls from imported worsted yarns, but more generally by the manufacture of carpets of a fine quality which find a ready sale in the world market. This work is done entirely on hand looms and the carpets fetch a high price.

Bibliography.—Notes on wool in India. By A. H. Silver and J. K. Mehta, Govt. Press, Calcutta, (1919).

Silk.

In the early days of the East India Company the Indian Silk trade prospered greatly, and various sub-tropical races of the Silkworm were introduced. But the trade gradually declined for the following reasons:—

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries India's chief competitor in the silk trade was the Levant Company. Successful efforts, however, were made to acclimatise in Europe one or two races of a temperate worm, procured from China and Japan. When sericulture became part of the agriculture of France and Italy, a quality of silk was produced entirely different from that of India and Turkey, and its appearance created a new demand and organized new markets.

All subsequent experience seems to have established the belief that the plains of India, or at all events of Bengal, are never likely to produce silk that could compete with this new industry. On the lower hills of Northern India, on the other hand, a fair amount of success has been attained with this (to India) new worm, as, for example, in Dehra Dun and Kashmir. In Manipur, it would appear probable that *Bombyx mori*, possibly obtained from China, has been reared for centuries. The caprice of fashion has, from time to time, powerfully modified the Indian silk trade. The special properties of the *Lorah* silk were formerly much appreciated but the demand for them has now declined. This circumstance, together with defective systems of rearing and of hand-reeling and weaving, accounts largely for the present depression in the mulberry silk trade of India.

Mulberry-feeding worms.—Sir George Watt states that in no other country does the necessity exist so pressing as in India to treat the subject of silk and the silk industries under two sections, *viz.* Bombycidae, the domesticated or mulberry-feeding silkworms, and Saturniidae, the wild or non-mulberry-feeding worms. In India the mulberry worm (*Bombyx Mori*) has been systematically reared for many centuries, there being six chief forms of it. In the temperate tracts of India various forms of *Morus alba*, (the mulberry of the European silk-producing countries), are grown specially as food for the silkworm. This is the case in many parts of the plains of Northern India, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, and along the Himalaya at altitudes up to 11,000 feet. The other species even more largely grown for the Indian silkworm is *M. Indica* of which there are many distinctive varieties or races. This is the most common mulberry of Bengal and Assam as also of the Nilgiri hills.

India has three well-known purely indigenous silkworms, the *tasar*, the *muga* and the *eri*. The first is widely distributed on the lower hills, more especially those of the great central tableland, and feeds on several jungle trees. The second is confined to Assam and Eastern Bengal, and feeds on a laurel. The third exists in a state of semi-domestication, being reared on the castor-oil plant. From an art point of view the *muga* silk is the most interesting and attractive, and the cocoon can be reeled readily. The

eri Silk, on the other hand, is so extremely difficult to reel that it is nearly always carded and spun—an art which was practised in the *Khasi Hills of Assam* long before it was thought of in Europe.

Experiments and results.—Numerous experiments have been made with a view to improving sericulture in India. French and other experts are agreed that one of the causes of the decline of the silk industry in India has been the prevalence of diseases and parasites among the worms, the most prevalent disease being pebrine. M. Lafont, who has conducted experiments in cross breeding, believes that improvement in the crops will be obtained as soon as the fight against pebrine and other diseases of the worms is taken up vigorously by the producers of seed and the rearers of worms, while improvement in the quality of the cocoons will be obtained by rearing various races, pure and cross breeds.

In Kashmir and Mysore satisfactory results have been obtained. In the former State sericulture has been fostered on approved European principles with Italian reeling machinery, seed being imported annually on a large scale. In 1897 in Mysore Mr. Tata, after selecting a plantation and site for rearing houses, sent to Japan for a Superintendent and trained operatives. The Mysore authorities have made a grant of Rs. 8,000 a year to the Tata farm in return for instruction given to the people of Mysore in Japanese methods of growing the mulberry and rearing the insects. The products of the Mysore State are exported to foreign countries from Madras. The work of the Salvation Army is also noteworthy in various parts of India. They have furnished experts, encouraged the planting of mulberry trees, and subsidised several silk schools. The draft prospectus has been issued of a silk farm and institute to be started at Simla under the auspices of the Salvation Army. The Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab has permitted the school to be called after his name, and the Punjab Government made a grant of Rs. 2,000 towards the expenses. Sir Dorabji Tata has also made a donation of Rs. 1,000. The Bengal Silk Committee under the guidance of some French experts have conducted cross-breeding experiments with a view to establish a multi-voltine hybrid of European quality. There is a Government sericultural farm at Berhampore, where, it is said, a pure white multi-voltine of silk worm is reared. The results of the Bengal Committee's labours may be summed up as follows:—the only really effective method of dealing with the problem is to work up gradually to a point at which the whole of the seed cocoon necessary for the province will be supplied to rearers under Government supervision, and to establish gradually a sufficient number of large nurseries throughout the silk districts of the province.

In 1915 there was issued by the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, a *Bulletin* (No. 48 of 1915) entitled "First Report on the Experiments carried out at Pusa to improve the Mulberry

From-war materials are used extensively at Dacca in the manufacture of cheap rayon buttons and in many cases of rayon for in the muslin which the local dealers get and sell in the various parts of India. The Dacca handloom factors carry on an important local industry of very ancient standing, the material is almost entirely obtained from the South Indian and Ceylon canank fisheries already alluded to.

Bombay.

Whereas Bengal's fisheries are at present confined principally to inland waters, those of Bombay are concerned, save in Sind, almost entirely with the exploitation of the wealth of the sea. Bombay is favoured with a coast line abounding with excellent harbours for fishing craft, a fair-weather season lasting for some seven months, and a fishing population more than those of the sister Presidencies. Bombay sea-fisheries are of very great importance financially as well as economically, and there is ample scope for most useful work in improving existing methods, in introducing canning and in the development of minor marine industries particularly those connected with the utilization of bye-products.

No survey of the halibut industry in the Bombay Presidency in recent years can be complete without a reference to Mr. H. T. Soley's valuable report on the Marine Fisheries of the Bombay Presidency, published in 1913. The volume is a storehouse of information bearing on the Presidency's fishing industry and the fish trade in general, and contains numerous useful suggestions by the adoption of which the prospects of the fish trade of the Presidency may be improved.

Mr. Soley has observed that the industry is neither expanding nor declining and that the supply of fish closes no signs of diminution. Lihaving this view he proceeds to point out that the fishermen are healthy and moderately prosperous in comparison with others belonging to a similar social stratum.

Mr. Soley's more important recommendations are —

1. The establishment of a marine aquarium in Bombay and Karachi, if they are able to pay their way as the Madras aquarium does.
2. The establishment of a bureau of fisheries information.
3. The advisability of the transfer of the fish curing yards to the control of the Local Government, and
4. The encouragement by the Bombay University of marine biological research.

Mr. Soley in the course of his report alluded to the value of employing fast motor launches to transport fish to the consuming centres in Bombay from the catching sites.

New Era Started—A move in the above direction was made towards the end of the year 1933, when the Government of Bombay launched an experiment in marketing in some way the above suggestions. The experiment was formally inaugurated by Sir Frederick S. J. the then Governor of Bombay at Bandra. The experiment was undertaken in co-operation with the head of the fishing community at Bandra. For the purpose of the experiment a launch was obtained on loan from the Royal Indian Navy (then the R. I. N.) and suitable alterations were made on it to adapt it to the purpose of a carrier launch. The results achieved by the working of this launch were very encouraging. The experiment was rapidly with which the fish was transported in a much healthier state than had till then been

Fast fisheries have been made in the Bombay fishing industry in the course of the past five years, the two latter years of which will always remain an eventful date in its history. This progress in a large measure due to the awakening among the fishermen, who are traditionally a conservative people, and the introduction of reforms among them is a very gradual process, as strongly ingrained prejudices and customs have to be overcome.

Little esteem locally that it sold on the average at the rate of 100 lbs. for a rupee.

is needed in the medival conditions under which the local fish market is conducted and there is much to be done in popularising little known species of edible fish, such as kareil, pain, tambura, and particularly the kareil or skate which formed on the average 25 per cent. of the total catch but which is so little esteemed locally that it sold on the average at the rate of 100 lbs. for a rupee.

seemed promising, but the experiment as a whole showed that the cost of maintaining a trailer of the type used could not be met by sales of fish at current market rates. Cold storage has since been installed at the principal fish market in Bombay, but for a trailer special facilities are needed also for rapid coaling, supplying ice and stores, and for unloading catches more than this a change is needed in the medival conditions under which the local fish market is conducted and there is much to be done in popularising little known species of edible fish, such as kareil, pain, tambura, and particularly the kareil or skate which formed on the average 25 per cent. of the total catch but which is so little esteemed locally that it sold on the average at the rate of 100 lbs. for a rupee.

Societies : Literary, Scientific and Social.

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Superintendent T P Joyce, Agri-Horti-
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Agri-Horticultural Society of Madras—
 Established 1833. Quarterly subscription
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AN ETHNOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF BOMBAY—
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B 4, Dowd's (Oven) Office Address 172,
Hortly Road, Bombay

BEHAR MATHS SOCIETY—founded in 1919 for the encouragement and promotion of research in the various branches of Pure and Applied Mathematics, and in the History of Mathematics. It conducts a Journal "The Proceedings of the Benares Mathematical Society", in which original papers on Mathematics are published and maintains a library. There are about 60 members from all parts of India. Admission fee Rs 10 Annual subscription Rs 12 (resident members) and Rs 5 (non-resident members). *Life President* Dr. L. C. Chakrabarti, M.A. (Cambridge), D.Sc., *Secretary* Prof. Chakrabarti, M.A., B.Sc., *Treasurer* Prof. Chakrabarti, M.A., B.Sc.

LAWYER ORIENTAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE, LORNA—The Institute was inaugurated on the 6th of July 1917, the 80th birthday of late Sir B. G. Bhattacharya, at the hands of H. R. Lord Willingdon, who became its first President. Its object was to publish critical editions of books and original works bearing on Oriental literature, to train students in the methods of research and to act as an advisory body to the Government. The valuable library of the Institute, which had been gathered already to the Institute, was later in the same handed over by his executor to the Institute, and is now located in the Central Hall of the Institute. Since the 1st

of April 1918 the Government of Bombay have transferred to the custody of the Institute the unique collection of nearly 20,000 manuscripts, formerly in charge of the Deccan College, together with a maintenance grant of Rs. 5,000 a year Government have likewise entrusted to the Institute a grant of Rs. 10,000 a year for the publication of the B S and Oriental Series. The Institute has undertaken to edit *Alphabetica* critically (*Editor-in-Chief*, Dr. V S Sukthankar), at the request of the Chief of Amudlakur, who has promised a total grant of Rs. one lakh for that purpose Grants are being received from the Government of India (Rs. 4,000 a year), the University of Bombay (Rs. 3,000 a year) and the Government of Bombay (Rs. 6,000 a year). Burma, Baroda and Mysore as well as several Southern States The Institute has a Journal called "Annals of the Bhandarkar Institute" published four times a year. It also held under its auspices the First Oriental Conference on the 5th, 6th and 7th of November 1919 under the patronage of H R Sir George Lloyd and the presidency of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar. Thanks to liberal donations from the Rastar and the Jain community, supplemented by Grants-in-aid from the Government of Bombay, the Institute is housed in a fine building near the hills behind the Home of the Servants of India Society. Since August 1927 the Institute has been conducting regular M A classes in Sanskrit, Pali, Ardhamagadhi and Ancient Indian Culture Membership dues Rs. 10 a year or Rs. 100 compounded for life. Members can, subject to certain conditions, borrow books from the library and get the "Annals" free and other publications (a request) at concession rates sent upon Dr. V S Sukthankar, M A, Ph D

The BHARAT PRASAXSODHAKA MANDAL, Pooza—Founded in 1910 by the late Mr. K. Rajwade and Sardar K. C. Mehandale and registered under Act XXI of 1860 in 1916 with the object of collecting and conserving historical materials, erecting suitable buildings for preserving and exhibiting them, publishing such materials and other works of historical research and generally to encourage and foster critical study of and research in Indian history. Has a building of its own, possesses the best collection of Persian and Marathi historical papers owned by any private society. Has a rare collection of about a thousand Indian paintings, manuscripts a coin cabinet and an armoury of old weapons and a section for Copper plates, sculpture and archaeology and has a library of rare books and forthcoming annual meeting where notes and papers based on original documents are presented discussed and afterwards published. Has published 5 volumes of original historical letters and other historical

Operations of Co-operatives Sec. 114, 1932-33

IN REPLY TO LETTER OF

Number	Working Capital.—		Share Capital	Loans and deposits held from—		Members	Non-Members	Societies	Provincial or Central Banks	Government	Reserve and other Funds	Total	Loans made during the year to—																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																		
	Individuals .	Banks and Societies		Loans due by—	Individuals .								Of which overdue .	Banks and Societies	Profits																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																
10	397	51,939	10,514	5,255	5,257	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	2,80,27	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71	13,53,16	4,40,56	1,50,56	1,40,50	1,10,17	6,38	1,13,35	67,36	2,80,27	4,85,28	19,19,53	74,17	4,54,16	16,50	52,58	11,50,14	81,41,83	34,38,71

TABLE NO. 6.
Working Capital by Provinces and States for 1982-83 only

Province	Popula- tion	Share Capital Paid-up	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the Year from						Reserve and other Funds	Total	Number of Annas per head of Popu- lation
			Members	Societies	Provincial or Central Banks.	Govern- ment	Non- Members and other sources				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
	Millions.	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Annas.	
Madras	46.7	(1,900) 2,30,21	(1,900) 1,02,30	(1,900) 1,12,32	(1,000) 5,14,03	(1,900) 39,80	(1,000) 5,54,71	(1,900) 1,55,36	(1,000) 1,30,50	60	
Bombay	21.0	1,06,37	3,26,16	1,10,93	3,14,46	48,93	4,63,39	1,21,67	15,50,01	115	
Bengal	69.1	2,12,54	1,19,26	30,91	5,33,41	50	6,08,02	2,10,90	17,00,73	54	
Bihar and Orissa	37.7	57,45	1,77,76	4,17	2,20,58	61	1,09,79	92,21	5,71,38	24	
United Provinces	43.4	40,75	13,30	3,09	40,08	16	48,80	40,50	2,26,03	7	
Punjab	23.0	1,94,74	60,86	77,91	40,04	11,04	5,55,55	3,10,98	15,72,50	127	
Burma	13.1	83,79	19,15	0,32	36,49	9,24	18,77	72,77	2,40,34	30	
Central Provinces and Berar	15.5	35,51	5,98	2,90	10,41	12	39,72	75,72	5,38,09	55	
Assam	8.0	7,02	0,36	4,4	4,80	81	5,89	13,10	83,46	15	
North-West Frontier Province	2.4	2,55	1,11	82	2,81	11	2,07	3,08	15,80	11	
Gooch	9.2	3,92	35	82	2,81	11	2,07	3,08	12,82	102	
Amber-Mewar	0.6	6,06	5,48	2,98	10,53	18	15,55	19,38	50,33	135	
Hyderabad Administered Area	0.6	2,22	4,71	10	7,14	18	35	43	7,89	126	
Delhi	0	2,89	2,11	10	7,14	18	11,20	3,17	26,07	71	
Total (British India)	260.5	19,95,88	6,84,10	3,82,87	25,49,93	1,92,40	27,02,24	11,00,29	86,73,50	51	
Mysore	6.6	50,49	28,87	9,20	20,90	3,04	72,56	28,98	2,23,10	54	
Baroda	2.4	6,85	12,82	2,07	12,02	3,25	23,01	11,58	72,49	48	
Hyderabad	14.4	48,03	5,18	3,32	74,06	3,97	62,57	34,34	2,23,39	25	
Bhopal	0.7	1,28	2	27	7,49	3,33	1	8,04	20,05	48	
Gwalior	3.5	15,82	1,81	0,87	15,85	2,89	11,59	28,02	34,77	48	
Indore	1.8	4,77	8,20	80	20,35	4,46	18,37	12,33	63,30	78	
Kashmir	3.0	27,03	14	1,20	18,08	4,46	18,91	19,50	1,01,07	45	
Tiruvannamalai	5.1	35,93	8,97	2,30	18,08	26	7,10	0,50	85,18	26	
Cochin	1.2	3,37	3,41	2,43	8,79	26	7,10	3,90	24,32	82	
Total (Indian States)	38.8	1,04,71	68,01	32,42	1,84,16	54,07	2,23,70	1,52,02	9,09,99	38	
Grand Total	398.3	12,09,59	7,52,01	4,15,29	27,24,10	1,50,56	20,86,94	12,56,31	95,83,50	49	

TABLE No. 5.
Working Capital for all India showing the Increase since 1900-07.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Average for 4 years from 1900-07 to 1903-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	Average for 5 years from 1920-21 to 1924-25.	Average for 5 years from 1925-26 to 1929-30.	1931-32.	1932-33.	
Share Capital paid up	Rs. (1,000) 13,19	Rs. (1,000) 88,87	Rs. (1,000) 22,61,07	Rs. (1,000) 6,25,66	Rs. (1,000) 9,91,17	Rs. (1,000) 12,05,00	Rs. (1,000) 12,39,60	
Reserve and deposits held at the end of the year from members	14,12	88,28	90,35	22,61,15	6,03,12	9,83,12	7,64,01	
Reserve and deposits held at the end of the year from Societies	13,60	1,03,12	47,81	1,10,08	22,02,88	3,60,08	4,16,20	
Reserve and deposits held at the end of the year from Societies in (bank) Branches	6,04,10	12,29,86	21,02,13	27,09,07	27,21,10	
Reserve and deposits held at the end of the year from Government	6,80	10,87	25,68	67,00	1,03,31	1,08,72	1,00,50	
Reserve and deposits held at the end of the year from non members and other societies	10,00	1,11,08	4,70,25	10,04,22	23,60,04	28,69,67	29,99,91	
Reserve and other funds	1,07	25,00	1,23,02	4,12,11	7,13,21	11,10,61	12,19,10	
Total	44,12	2,13,17	15,49,14	16,36,76	4,19,16	42,60,11	47,70,30	

TABLE NO 4

Number of Members by Provinces and States for 1932-33 only

Province	Population (Millions)	Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Unions)	Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies)	Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	Non-Agricultural (including other Insurance Societies)	Total Number of Members of primary Societies	Number of Members of primary Societies per 1,000 Inhabitants
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	46.7	16,430	10,863	6,29,806	2,60,426	8,99,231	10.2
Bombay	21.9	14,912	3,418	8,17,448	2,63,266	6,80,743	26.6
Bengal	50.1	26,148	280	5,23,489	2,50,748	7,73,743	16.4
Bihar and Orissa	37.7	11,454	9,721	2,31,292	28,960	2,50,802	6.8
United Provinces	48.4	10,725	108	1,17,763	31,164	1,48,027	9.0
Punjab	28.6	35,945		5,73,766	1,14,332	6,88,082	20.1
Burma	13.1	1,683	1,927	41,706	31,876	73,081	5.6
Central Provinces and Berar	16.6	51,899	7,289	65,311	17,692	73,133	4.7
Assam	8.6	1,887		62,204	14,079	60,283	7.7
North-West Frontier Province	2.4	185		10,311	1,676	11,887	4.0
Coorg	0.2	340	212	11,789	3,263	15,052	75.1
Ajmer-Merwara	0.6	1,046	120	12,739	6,500	19,239	32.0
Hyderabad Administered Area	0.1		19		8,541	8,541	85.4
Delhi	0.6	480		5,280	4,044	9,280	16.4
Total (British India) ..	269.6	1,72,243	33,457	25,81,718	10,44,372	36,56,090	13.4
Madras	6.0	3,014	..	71,134	70,320	1,41,454	21.4
Baroda	2.4	1,518	38	27,682	14,364	41,936	17.4
Hyderabad	14.4	4,812	2,067	43,631	17,262	60,893	4.2
Bhopal	0.7	2,208		10,332	467	17,289	24.7
Gwalior	3.5	7,546		71,182	654	71,830	20.6
Indore	1.3	2,113		9,505	7,248	16,843	12.0
Kashmir	3.0	3,418		47,040	6,983	53,733	14.0
Travancore	5.1	3,300	1,633	1,62,266	65,501	2,27,767	44.6
Cochin	1.2	161		11,408	13,555	25,053	20.8
Total (Indian States)	38.8	28,170	3,733	4,60,760	1,96,044	6,66,704	16.0
Grand Total	308.6	2,00,413	37,190	30,42,468	12,40,416	42,82,884	13.8

TABLE No 3
Number of Members for all India showing the increase since 1900-07.

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	Average for 5 years from 1920-21 to 1924-25.	Average for 5 years from 1925-26 to 1929-30.	1931-32	1932-33
1	2	3	1	5	6	7	8
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions)	1,967	23,077	80,025	163,822	212,003	204,740	200,418
Cooperatives and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-Insurance Societies)			10,971	24,437	34,621	36,510	37,190
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	107,643	159,096	902,030	1,061,093	2,791,562	3,109,363	3,042,468
Non-Agricultural (including other Insurance Societies)	54,207	89,167	226,031	493,509	397,279	1,124,056	1,240,416
Total number of Members of primary Societies	161,910	548,253	1,128,961	2,154,607	3,088,841	4,204,330	4,282,884

TABLE No. 2
Number of Societies by Provinces and States for 1932-33 only.

Province	Population (Millions)	Central	Supervising and Guar- anteeing Unions	Agricultural	Non-Agricul- tural	Total Number of Societies.	Number of Societies per 1,00,000 Inhabitants.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	46.7	33	405	11,003	1,430	13,870	29.7
Bombay	21.0	20	119	4,820	921	6,860	20.8
Bengal	50.1	120	3	21,342	2,185	23,850	47.2
Bihar and Orissa	37.7	67	71	8,500	317	9,054	24.0
United Provinces	48.4	71	3	5,512	314	5,900	12.2
Punjab	23.0	110	..	17,726	3,240	21,086	80.3
Burma	13.1	11	325	1,840	151	2,330	17.8
Central Provinces and Berar	15.5	36	15	3,748	99	3,803	23.1
Assam	8.0	10	...	1,202	94	1,406	16.3
N. W. F. Province	2.4	1	...	301	20	332	15.0
Coorg	0.2	1	13	213	25	252	120.0
Ajmer-Merwara	0.0	7	2	571	108	683	114.7
Hyderabad Administered Area	0.1	1	1	224	21	22	22.0
Delhi	0.6	1	1	..	58	233	47.2
Total (British India)	290.5	506	657	76,250	8,002	88,705	32.0
Mysore	0.0	14	..	1,793	443	2,180	38.0
Baroda	2.4	8	1	980	199	1,147	47.8
Hyderabad	14.4	30	1	2,180	305	2,532	17.6
Bhopal	0.7	22	..	912	20	954	136.3
Gwalior	3.5	4,069	41	4,110	117.4
Indore	1.3	5	..	616	54	675	51.0
Kashmir	3.6	14	..	2,572	357	2,943	51.0
Travancore	5.1	1	20	1,401	337	1,708	84.7
Cochin	1.2	1	..	137	110	248	20.7
Total (Indian States)	38.8	101	31	14,400	1,020	16,557	42.0
Grand Total	308.3	607	688	92,740	10,018	1,05,202	34.1

TABLE NO. 1.

Number of Societies for all India showing the Increase since 1900-07.

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10	Average for 6 years from 1910 to 1914-15	Average for 6 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20	Average for 6 years from 1920-21 to 1921-22.	Average for 6 years from 1922-23 to 1929-30	1931-32.	1932-33.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Companies)	17	231	301	600	657	905	907
Co-operative and General Insurance (including Mutual Societies)	17	231	301	600	657	905	907
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	1,713	10,591	25,873	61,716	83,093	93,598	92,710
Non-Agricultural	190	661	1,062	4,118	5,862	10,750	10,015
Total	1,926	11,780	26,177	67,707	93,930	1,09,050	1,05,202

movement in forms other than credit has not been very remarkable and credit societies still predominate, especially the agricultural Credit societies

The non credit movement has had naturally more obstacles to overcome than the credit but the former is slowly gathering force in the shape of sale societies for cotton in Karnataka, Gujarat and Khandesh, cattle insurance societies in Butma and irrigation societies in Bengal and the Southern Division of the Bombay Presidency. Perhaps the most remarkable instance of the co-operative movement in India is to be found in the Punjab where consolidation of holdings has been successfully attempted through co-operative in the non-agricultural non-credit sphere, a still smaller headway has been made there are a number of housing societies especially in Bombay, Madras and Mysore, and agricultural societies and unaided labour societies in Madras. It may be noted that on the agricultural side co-operative farming has hardly been touched and on the non-credit side the consumers' movement has made but meagre progress.

In 1926, the Royal Commission on Agriculture was appointed and co-operation formed only a part—though an important one—of its extensive enquiry. Recently, in consequence of the appointment of the provincial committees under the *Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee* the co-operative movement in the different provinces has been surveyed. But the provincial committees, for obvious reasons, confined their inquiries to banking in relation to agriculture, small industries and trade. Thus only those aspects of the co-operative movement which have an intimate bearing on the credit needs of the population and the development of banking facilities have been examined. While the need for separate enquiries into the whole movement in the different provinces of the lines of those undertaken in C, P, U and Madras and emphasised by the Royal Commission on Agriculture is still to be met Bihar and Orissa recently got the movement examined by a committee which has published its report last year. The Government of Bombay convened in June 1934 a Round Table Conference of official and non-official Co operators to discuss the problems that confronted the movement in Bombay. As a result of this Conference, three Committees were appointed, one to examine the system of supervision over Co operative societies by the Superintending Unions in the Presidency, another to report on the best way to help the agriculturists in these times of falling prices and trade depression, and the third to examine the problem of extension or land mortgage banking on a Co-operative basis. These Committees have not yet submitted their reports, but there is little doubt that their recommendations would lead to a tightening up of supervision, an extension of land mortgage banking and efforts to meet the growth or overdue loans.

The growing difficulties of the Co-operative movement throughout India in these times of unprecedented depression led the Government of India to hold an All-India Co-operative

Conference at New Delhi on the 29th January 1934. This Conference was unique in so far as it was not restricted only to the Representatives of Co-operative Societies and their advisers but it also included some ministers in charge of Agriculture and Co-operation from the provinces and a representative of each of the two All-India Co-operative organisations—the 'Institutes' Association and the 'Provincial Banks' Association. This Conference recommended the enactment of an All-India Co-operative Societies Act so as to permit the registration of Co-operative Societies working in the whole of India or in more provinces than one. It also recommended earnest efforts for the development of land mortgage banks by the Government guaranteeing not only the interest on their debentures but also the capital and suggested the creation of a Central Co-operative Board under the Imperial Government with a small establishment to bring about a closer co-ordination of work between the different provinces and States of India. This last suggestion has met with some opposition, since after the provisionisation of Co-operation under the Montford Reforms of 1914, the provinces do not much fancy the imposition of control from the centre and yet, there seems to be nothing wrong in the idea of a central organisation, which would be a clearing house for authentic information and statements progress through a careful study of experiments and efforts in particular areas and drawing attention of other areas to the success achieved or the difficulties revealed.

It may also be mentioned that the Indian States were not slow in introducing the co-operative movement within their limits, and the movement in some of the more important of the States, such as Hyderabad (Deccan), Mysore, Baroda, Gwalior and Indore has made considerable progress, more or less on the same lines as those followed in the neighbouring British Indian Provinces.

The landmarks in the history of the co-operative movement in India are, the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904, the Co-operative Societies Act of 1912, the Madras Co-operative Societies Act of 1916, the provisionisation of co-operation, 1919, the establishment of institutes, Unions and federations for provinces, provincial Committees of Enquiry into the co-operative movement in several provinces, provincial legislation, the Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, 1928, and Reports of the Indian Central and Provincial Banking Enquiry Committees, 1931.

will be started in large numbers in the various provinces of India or better still that the co-operative credit societies would take upon themselves the function performed by these societies and that the term better living be given as wide a connotation as possible so that the co-operative movement would be doing good to itself and the nation by carrying on the general work of village uplift, as well as its own economic objective of strengthening the position of the agriculturists.

Rational Societies—Through the problem of illiteracy is a very large problem indeed and though education is one of the chief responsibilities of Government it is interesting to find that because of the great reaction which has on the efficient working of co-operative societies, educational societies have been started in some of the provinces—notably in the Punjab. In that province, there are two kinds of societies, one for adult education and the other for compulsory education of children. In the former the members pay a small entrance fee and a small monthly fee to make up the day of the teacher, who is generally the school master of the primary school receiving a small extra pay for the additional work. Such of these schools as are well conducted are taken over by the District Board. Various other agencies in that province have also started similar schools with the result that their number has gone up to about 2,000. The compulsory education schools for children are started by parents, fees are collected as in the case of the adult schools for engaging a teacher and there are about 150 such schools in that province up to the IV standard. Through such educational societies may now be done all the good that they bear testimony to the realization of the correlated education and the co-operative movement. The United Provinces is gradually following the lead given by the Punjab and they also have started a number of schools in Bihar and Orissa, the co-operative credit societies are to be formed in these provinces. The co-operative credit societies are to be formed in these provinces. The co-operative credit societies are to be formed in these provinces.

Anti-malarial Societies—Among other things, the need for improvement in village sanitation, an important commitment of better living, attracted the attention of co-operators particularly in Bengal, which pays a heavy toll, year after year, from that terrible scourge—malaria and kala-azar—and where, unlike many other provinces, the rural death rate is higher than the urban death rate. There is some talk of the presence of experiments with plasmodium to read of mosquitoes immune from infection and thus prevent the spread of infections. Bengal has thus rendered a distinct service by organising successful a campaign in rural areas for arresting or checking in some measure the ravages of malaria.

The first co-operative anti-malarial society was the Ramditya Society registered in March 1918, and in July 1919, the Central Society was launched. The whole movement in this direction owes considerably to Dr Gopalchandra Chatterjee. The Central Society aimed at organising a network of anti-malarial and public health societies, at carrying on propaganda, as guiding the rural societies and acting as an expert advisory body. There are now about 600 rural societies, often in inaccessible places and the Central Society, now acts as merely an organising body, leaving the function of supervision to local bodies. Through whom Government give grants to them. The members of the rural societies pay a monthly subscription of from 4 annas to a rupee, and each of these maintains a medical man on the subsidy system, who attends to the families of members free of charge. They depend for funds on subscriptions, donations, and grants from members, benevolent individuals and Government. They do not pay their way and therein indeed lies their weakness. The actual anti-malarial work consists of filling up all stagnant pools and ditches within the village, especially during the dry season and keeping all drains and accumulations of water, immediately after the rains. Many dispensaries and schools are being maintained, some on a share basis, others on a charity basis, and these societies have done the great service of bringing the services of qualified medical men within easy reach of inaccessible rural areas.

Urban Credit Societies—While the chief objective of the co-operative movement was from the first to do service to the rural population, it must be remembered that the Act of 1907 permitted two classes of societies—rural and urban, recognising thus the suitability of the co-operative method for solving the problems of urban population also. At present there are in all 10,912 non-agricultural societies with a membership of 12,81,095. Of these, 5,555 are credit societies, the rest being societies for other purposes.

The urban co-operative credit societies for the most part make it possible to open amongst the members making it possible to open a number of bath-houses and schools by adequate contributions. In Bengal many societies spend on education and on other things, as a result of which in one district alone there are 38 such schools, 21 primary schools and one English middle school. The Ganja cultivators' societies spend large amounts out of their profits on education and help 3 high schools and 87 primary schools. Societies in Bombay also spend very large amounts by making grants to schools and giving prizes and scholarships.

Anti-malarial Societies—Among other things, the need for improvement in village sanitation, an important commitment of better living, attracted the attention of co-operators particularly in Bengal, which pays a heavy toll, year after year, from that terrible scourge—malaria and kala-azar—and where, unlike many other provinces, the rural death rate is higher than the urban death rate. There is some talk of the presence of experiments with plasmodium to read of mosquitoes immune from infection and thus prevent the spread of infections. Bengal has thus rendered a distinct service by organising successful a campaign in rural areas for arresting or checking in some measure the ravages of malaria.

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societies with a Union in the City for distributing the co-operative solution of the milk problem of the City of Bombay.

Rural Reconstruction—One of the main reasons why the achievements of the co-operative movement fall so short of the expectations as of the promoters and workers in the extreme backwardness of the rural population and it is not too much to state that the ultimate success of the co-operative movement lies

bound up with general, rural development and progress. So long as agricultural remains steeped in illiteracy and ignorance, are heavily and almost hopelessly indebted, have a fatalistic outlook on life and have an extremely low standard of living, carrying on agricultural conditions to launch more ambitious schemes for improvement in financial and political and rural districts and Government will only

selected villages are in progress in a few results. Interesting experiments in a few work. The campaign has yielded concrete

Sub-Divisional Officer toured and supervised the of Piriyas undertook extra work and special Inspector, Gohagpur taluka, and the circle auditor

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Non-Credit Agricultural Co-operation

for the inspectors, auditors and assistant registrars of the co-operative departments.

In some provinces, like the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa, the provincial union or federation has been actively associated in discharging the Registrar's statutory function or the audit or licensing and that audit should be a function of the provincial unions or federations. If this is a of a uniform system of audit through the provincial unions be accepted, it will naturally follow that they will also have to assume the responsibility for supervision of the co-operative societies. The departmental audit and inspection by the central banks cannot dispense with the need of careful supervision, which to be effective must be from within and the provincial federation or union is obviously the best agency for this friendly and efficient supervision. The combination of the functions of audit and of supervision as suggested by the All-India Conference and endorsed by the Banking Enquiry Committee would mean improved efficiency in the working of the movement while de-officialising it considerably and giving it the popular touch it lacks. It must, however, be remembered that the institutions and unions are not quite unofficial in this that resort to society A for credit, to society B for produce or for credit. Now he is made to and domestic requirements or for the sale of his whether for the supply of agricultural requirements or for the sale of his. The answer was to him the one separately. The answer was to him the one needs, each one of which it is proposed to meet being viewed as one person with a bundle of have the curious spectacle of an agriculturist and to favour the single purpose society, and we avoid the multiple-purpose or general society co-operation have induced the authorities to but the complexities of the non-credit forms of to adopt the rule of one village, one society, inter-state agriculturists, it would appear wise with varying success. In a land of ignorant and established here and there and have been working and societies for these purposes have been therefore engaging the attention of co-operators marketing of agricultural produce have been of agricultural requisites and above all the fencing, cattle insurance, improved sanitation, consolidation or holdings, improved sanitation, non-credit needs. The problems of irrigation of co-operative organisation to meet his different range of the problem, and different provinces have been experimenting upon the application of co-operative co-operation touches but the action through co-operation, its organ- but one of the needs of the cultivator, is the benefit of the rural population. Credit has been directed on other forms of co-operation for some years past increasing attention has been directed on other forms of co-operation.

Non-Credit Agricultural Co-operation —

Non-Credit Agricultural Societies, 1932-33

Province	Purchase and sale	Production	Production and sale	Other forms of co-operation	Total
Madras	78	17	11	347	436
Bombay	41	932	74	113	945
Bihar	85	2	272	44	1,333
United Provinces	2	2	56	5	420
Punjab	19	154	1,182	91	1,446
Burma	11	5	14	..	30
Central Provinces and Berar	36	11	10	54	57
Mysoor	45	1	18	90	118
Baroda	20	25	37	10	172
Other areas	..	3	16	10	38
Total	3,37	1,150	1,692	1,136	43,15

present time.

of de-officialisation of the movement at the conflict whether the remedy lies in officialisation movement is not conducive to progress, opinions of part official and part non-official control of the and though all agree that the present system agrees on the goal of ultimate de-officialisation and efficient than ever before. Though all institutions and make them more non-official control while the other seeks to strengthen the force in the village which would tend to promote the ideal embodied in the famous phrase. Better living, better farming and better business. However, co-operative opinion in India has not yet accepted the wisdom of this and yet believes in the theory of almost water-tight compartments. The agricultural non-credit societies in India on the 30th June 1933 were 4,515 distributed as under:—

societies have thus, it must be admitted, lost their co-operative character in a great measure and have become business bodies without, however, the efficiency that should characterise them. The recent Committee on Co-operation in Bihar and Orissa views "with a considerable degree of dismay the general failure to make the ordinary agricultural credit society a self-governing and truly co-operative institution." The Bombay Reorganisation Committee states that "in view of the figures quoted, it is evident that the movement has ceased to a great extent to be co-operable." Whether such a verdict is quite justifiable or not, it is obvious that the situation is disquieting enough and very great caution is to be exercised in the re-organising of the borrowing to loans to the repayment capacity of the borrowers as emphasised by the Bihar and Orissa Committee seen to be the urgent needs of the day.

Land Mortgage Banks.—The loans advanced by co-operative societies to their members and by the central financial agencies to their constituent societies are, from the very nature of the source from which they derive the bulk of their finance, for short or intermediate terms only. By concentrating upon the growth and multiplication of rural credit societies and thus upon facilities for short and intermediate term loans, the co-operative movement did not provide for the redemption of old debts or for increasing the earning of agriculturalists which alone would prevent any further increase in their debts and pave the way for the paying off of the old ones. It does not seem to have been adequately realised that the removal of or the lightening of the heavy load of indebtedness does not depend so much upon the easy terms on which co-operatives are made available, as upon the amount of the individual indebtednesses now owing. Upon this point the agriculturalists that they could be prevented from essentialising their money and so as to pay no more, and as an agriculturalist as an industry sufficiently paying to leave a little after all expenditures on agricultural and industrial debts. The mistaken notion associated with the state that the co-operative movement is a credit co-operative movement is a serious defect in the movement which has been made as a saving device for the village farmer as well as the purchaser of the village produce and what he cannot recover from the borrower by way of interest on the repayment of the principal of the loans, he can more than make good on the threshold of his shop. The co-operative movement is a movement of non-payment are saddled on the society while the profits of the movement and the rest of the world are still engaged by the so-called "the attack ought to have been on all fronts."

There are three main types of such banks mortgage banks. The strictly co-operative type is an association of borrowers who raise credit by the issue of mortgage bonds bearing interest and made payable to bearer and is well illustrated in the German Landbank. The commercial type is represented by the Credit Foncier of France, which works for profit and declares dividends. The third type—the quasi co-operative has a mixed membership of borrowers and non-borrowers, operating over land in large areas and formed with share capital and on a limited liability basis. The banks organised so far in India are in a sense of the co-operative type, though strictly speaking they belong to the quasi co-operative variety, admitting as they do to the membership a few non-borrowing individuals for the attachment of initial capital as well as business management, efficient management.

At present there are 12 co-operative land mortgage banks in the Punjab. Two of these operate over whole districts, the rest confine their operations to a single tehsil. Bombay has three land mortgage societies, which have only recently started their operations. Bengal has two, Assam has five, while Madras has 38 mortgage banks. It has been started recently too early to pronounce on the success or otherwise of these banks. Among the objects for the redemption of old debts, improvement of land and method of cultivation and the purchase of land in special cases. The Central Banking Committee think however that for a long time to come the resources of these institutions will be mainly required for enabling the cultivator to redeem his land and his house from mortgage and to pay off his old debts. One feels, however, extremely doubtful whether the emphasis should not be put on the immediate and extensive development of agriculture, since as pointed out above, unless agriculture becomes a paying industry, the redemption of the funds of these banks will have to be raised by debentures and for this purpose, there will have to be in the provinces general land mortgage banks as in America. The provincial co-operative banks cannot function

should not be abolished and the bigger socialist working capital of the agricultural societies was Rs 3,38,74,49, the loans due by individuals were Rs 27,04,72,035. The overdraft loans were therefore 58 per cent.

Overdine Loans.

Overdues.—Among the most important tests of the success or otherwise of a co-operative credit society is the repayment of loans by members and it is in this respect that one has to recognize that in India, the societies have not attained any very great measure of success. On the 30th June 1933, the overdues in agricultural societies amounted to Rs. 13,00,76,876 as compared with Rs. 11,63,88,885 the year before, the 1932-33 Overdue Loans in Agricultural Societies, 1932-33 (in lakhs of rupees)

Province.	Working Capital	Loans due by individuals	Overdue loans by individuals	Working Capital	Loans due.
				Percentage of overdue loans to	

	Total	91.99	27.06	19.01	38	47
Madrass ..	.	5,46	4,49	2,06	49	69
Bombay ..	"	4,24	3,08	1,81	48	49
Bengal ..	"	5,92	4,31	3,48	69	81
Bihar and Orissa ..	"	2,23	1,78	1,04	47	58
Punjab ..	"	1,01	76	62	51	68
Burma ..	"	8,40	6,96	43	5	6
Central Provinces and Berar ..	"	1,37	98	37	27	38
Assam ..	.	1,02	1,32	98	60	74
Hydrabad ..	"	32	24	21	66	88
Baroda ..	"	64	60	20	37	40
Alypore ..	"	34	30	12	35	40
Gwalior ..	"	68	47	39	48	66
Kashmir ..	"	36	46	7	1,50	84
Tiranncore ..	"	87	70	17	47	55
Others ..	"			14	16	18

[illegible]

[illegible]

sanctioned to the borrowing client. The following figures will clearly show the position and transactions of the apex banks in 1932-33—

Provincial Banks, 1932-33.

In thousands of rupees.

Working Capital—	67.36
Share Capital	52.58
Reserve and other funds	11,50.12
Deposits and loans—	
from individuals	4,54.16
from Provincial and Central banks	4,85.26
from societies	16.50
from Government	74.17
Total	1,87.25
Loans made during the year to—	
Individuals	2,58.43
Banks and societies	1,87.25
Total	4,45.68
Loans due by—	
Individuals	10.43
Banks and societies	4,20.84
Total	4,31.27

While accepting deposits from co-operative banks and the general public, most of the apex banks have also dealings in current account with the latter. The Punjab bank does not encourage such accounts with individual non-members, as it does not wish to enter into competition with central banks. Apex banks also generally carry on ordinary banking business, such as collecting hundis and dividends from companies and collecting the pay and pensions of public servants. The provincial banks of Bombay, Madras and the Punjab have floated long-term debentures. The Bombay bank has so far issued debentures of the value of Rs 8 lakhs and these debentures are recognised as a trustee security. The bank has also issued debentures of the value of 2.18 lakhs on the security of a floating charge of the general assets of the bank, while the Punjab bank has issued debentures of the value of 5 lakhs in every banking institution, these banks also are frequently troubled with surpluses and deficits, though at different times in the different institutions. There is therefore interlending or surplus funds between these apex banks, and during the period of shortage of funds, deposits are accepted from surplus banks, and some of them call for special season deposits, allowing favourable rates of interest to tide over the period of shortage. The All-India Provincial Co-operative Banks' Association enables the member banks to ascertain which of them are surplus in the period and by correspondence to arrange for inter-provincial borrowings.

In all provinces the apex banks have connected themselves with the Imperial Bank of India and have secured cash credit accommodation on furnishing security. In the earlier stage the Imperial Bank was pleased to permit the accommodation on the deposit of co-operative paper duly endorsed in their favour, but of late a

Audit and Supervision—The proper working of co-operative societies requires an efficient and statutory function of the Registrar and his responsibility to the public is thus a serious one. The general purposes of an audit such as ascertaining whether the accounts of the society are properly kept and preparation of a correct statement of the society's financial position, are common to the audit of joint-stock and co-operative concerns. But the Co-operative Act requires the auditor of a co-operative society to examine the expenditure, if any, and to value the assets and liabilities of the society, and by implication, this statutory direction imposes on the auditor the obligation to find out whether the affairs of the society are conducted in accordance with co-operative principles, and the audit extends somewhat beyond the bare requirements of the Act and embraces an enquiry into all the circumstances which determine the general position of a society. It is, for instance, in such the duty of the auditor to notice any instances in which the Act, or bye-laws have been infringed to verify the cash balance and certify the correctness of the accounts, to ascertain that loans are made fairly, for proper periods and objects, and on adequate security, to examine repayment in order to check book-adjustments or improper extensions, and generally to see that the society is working on sound lines and that

change has come over in some provinces in the method of business, and the accommodation given to the various apex banks on the strength of co-operative paper has either been withdrawn fully or is to be withdrawn by stages as regards the Punjab, the arrangement whereby the apex bank can borrow against co-operative paper is still in force, and has not been altered in any way. The security upon which the accommodation allowed is the Government of India Promissory Note. Owing to the curtailment of accommodation on the strength of co-operative paper, the ease with which the seasonal demands of the affiliated central banks is no longer there. What repercussions this will make on the movement has yet to be seen as the curtailment has taken effect only recently. The apex banks, like all co-operative societies, enjoy the facilities of free transfer of funds from one place to another by means of remittance transfer receipts. This concession is granted for transfer for genuine co-operative purposes, but it has recently been ruled by the Government of India that it may be remittance represents a transaction on which exchange has been earned, the facility of free transfer of funds will not be made available. Co-operative banks, however, claim the continuance of the concession on the ground that they are rendering a public service by dispensing the cost of transfer of funds from the metropolises to a petty trade centre or vice versa, places where no other organised banking agencies are available. It is only if some concessional treatment is shown by Government—there being no other arrangement for transfer of funds—that they will be able to extend their operations in centres of agricultural trade, develop banking facilities in rural areas, and spread the knowledge and use of cheques and other instruments of credit among the rural population.



Bible or some portion of it is now to be had in over 100 different Indian languages and dialects and the circulation throughout India and Burma reached 1,238,436 sales in 1933. The Bibles, Testaments, and Portions in the various vernaculars are sold at rates which the very poorest can pay, and at considerable loss to the Society. Grants of English Scriptures are made to Students who pass University examinations, as under —

The New Testament and Psalms to Matri- culates and the Bible to Graduates

The following table shows the growth in the British and Foreign Bible Society's work during the past few years in India and Burma :—

TABLE OF GRADUATION OF THE B. F. B. S. IN INDIA.

Anxieties.	1933	1932	1931.	1930	1929.	1928.	1927.
Calcutta	230,657	250,744	211,040	174,833	204,336	230,496	174,924
Bombay	214,544	206,019	185,720	197,193	191,151	197,049	169,593
Madras	301,396	254,504	261,649	264,675	272,403	239,852	223,125
Bangalore	26,077	26,624	18,007	22,179	36,355	29,251	68,936
North India	236,800	203,756	153,403	212,457	193,539	198,996	154,272
Punjab	84,605	89,696	90,212	173,020	120,721	162,660	106,628
Burma	134,357	90,079	85,973	79,506	79,140	74,988	78,613
Total	1,238,436	1,120,422	1,005,904	1,123,868	1,097,645	1,133,004	976,091

BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION (Bombay Branch)—Founded 1886, to promote Medical and Allied Sciences and the maintenance of the honour and interests of the Medical Profession. Secretary Dr B B Yodh, Bawal Building, Lammington Road, Bombay.

GALATHEA CHINESE SOCIETY—To encourage Chinese and Chess contests, open to all Patrons J. R. Capablanca and Dr W E Graves, Kt, Lt D. President. The Hon. Mr Justice M I Mukerji, M.A., B.L. Vice-President. Dr H W B Moreno, Hon. Secretary G Dharm, Hon. Treasurer. B B Gosh, 83, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY was established in 1927 to help forward the operation of the Bombay Children Act by taking over responsibility for the maintenance of the Un- kind Children's Remand Home, for the or- ganisation of inquiry work regarding cases of boys and girls dealt with by the Ju- venile Court, for the upkeep of a Junior Re- formatory School for boys under 12, and for the co-ordination of work done by voluntary supervision workers appointed by the Court. The Society is a private charitable organisation with a grant-in-aid from Government. Its work lies amongst destitute children hailing from all parts of India, juvenile offenders less than 16 years of age and children offended against by adult persons. President. H B The Rt Hon Lord Bradbourne, G.C.I.E., K.O. Vice-President. The Hon. Mr B D Bell, C.I.E., J.C.S. Chairman. Mr C P Bramble, Adv. Hon. Treasurer. Mr Meyer Nissim, Secretary. Miss M K Davis.

EMPLOYERS' FEDERATION OF INDIA—The early in 1933 with the following among its main objects—To promote and protect the interests of employers engaged in the trade, commerce, industries and manufactures of India, to promote or oppose legislation or other measures affecting their interests, to collect and circulate statistics and other

General Secretary for India and Ceylon The Rev J S M Hooper, M.A., Mayo Road, Nagpur, C.P. These returns do not include the copies which any Auxiliary has supplied to London or to any other Auxiliaries during the year.

The fall in tea prices greatly affected the profits of tea companies. The following table which shows the profit per acre of 65 tea companies gives an idea of the effect on profits of the fall in prices.—

Profit per Acre of 65 Indian Tea Companies.

	1913	1921	1924	1929.
Average profit per mature acre	£ 6-10-7	£ 15-2-0	£ 10-0-0	£ 6-0-0
Average profit in pence per lb.	2.6	6.1	5.51	2.26
Average crop per mature acre	599 lbs	569 lbs.	625 lbs	631 lbs

It is quite clear from the above table that, although the yield per acre has considerably increased, the profits per acre are actually lower than in 1913.

The main reasons of the slump in the tea industry are over-production and intense competition, particularly from Java and Sumatra. In order to counteract the adverse influence of the former, an agreement to restrict output, was reached early in 1930 by associations of tea-growers. For India and Ceylon the degree of restriction to be undertaken varied according to the quality of the tea produced, being greater for the lower qualities than for the finer.

According to the latest agreement between the Indian, Ceylon and Netherlands East Indies produces, for five years from 1933 onwards exports are to be restricted and extension of cultivation not to be permitted beyond 1 per cent of the present planted area.

During the year 1932-33 there was a considerable fall in the wages of workers on tea plantations. The average wages of men, women and children in the Assam Valley were Rs 10-10-4, 7-14-6 and 5-11-0, respectively, as compared with Rs 12-8-5, 9-8-7 and 6-15-8, respectively, in 1931-32.

Under the Ottawa agreement Indian Tea has been granted preference by Great Britain.

The following are the important recommendations made by the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in regard to the Tea Industry. The recommendations contained therein are very vital to the future welfare of the industry and the principal amongst them have therefore been reproduced below—

(1) No further legislation making a breach of contract of service a criminal offence should be countenanced.

(2) The power conferred by section 3 of the Assam Labour and Emigration Act to prohibit recruitment in Assam in particular localities should be withdrawn immediately and no barrier

should be set up to prevent free movement of labour from one part of India to another.

(3) The Assam Labour and Emigration Act should be repealed and a new measure set up in its place.

(4) The Assam Labour Board should be abolished.

(5) The Government of India should appoint a Protector of Immigrants in Assam to look after the interests of emigrants from other Provinces who have not yet settled in Assam.

(6) Every future assisted emigrant to an Assam tea garden should have right after the first three years to be repatriated at the employers' expense.

(7) A worker dismissed before the expiry of the three years should be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the employer dismissing him, unless it is established that the dismissal was due to wilful misconduct.

(8) The establishment of statutory wage-fixing machinery, if practicable, is desirable, and there are reasons for believing that, if proper methods are adopted, a practicable scheme can be devised.

(9) Before legislation is undertaken, one enquiry should be undertaken as to the most suitable form of machinery, the actual rates paid and the variation in these rates between district and district and garden and garden.

(10) Maternity benefits should be provided for by legislation.

(11) The employment, either directly or with their parents, of children before the age of 10 years should be prohibited by law.

(12) Boards of Health and Welfare should be established under statute for convenient planting areas.

These recommendations have generally been implemented by the Tea Districts Emigration Labour Act (XXII of 1932) which came into force on 1st October 1933.

Coffee.

Such historical evidence as is available on the subject shows that coffee was first introduced into India from Mecca as early as the 16th century. The first coffee garden was planted by a European about 1840 but the industry thus started did not flourish till 1860.

The production of coffee in India is mostly confined to the South. The area under coffee in 1932-33 (including plantations of less than 10 acres) was 1,77,000 acres, an increase of 19 per cent over the figures for 1925-26.

The total exports of coffee increased from 1,50,000 cwts in 1926-27 to 2,77,000 cwts in 1927-28. In 1928-29 and 1929-30 the shipments declined and amounted to 1,98,000 cwts and 1,84,000 cwts respectively, but exports again rose in 1930-31 and amounted to 2,98,000 cwts. In 1931-32 the shipments declined to 1,56,000 cwts, but in 1932-33 exports again

rose and amounted to 1,73,000 cwts. The principal destinations of Indian coffee are the United Kingdom and France. Shipments to the United Kingdom rose from 44,000 cwts in 1931-32 to 52,000 cwts in 1932-33 and those to France from 43,000 cwts to 54,000 cwts while there was a slight increase of 900 cwts in the exports to Norway. Other European countries, namely, Germany and Italy reduced their demands from 18,000 and 6,000 cwts to 12,000 and 5,000 cwts, respectively. Shipments to Iraq and Australia (including New Zealand), showed an increase, while there was a decrease in the shipments to Bahrain Islands.

Not only does India export coffee in large quantities but it also imports it chiefly from Java, Ceylon and the Straits Settlements which it re-exports to Mascat Territory, Iraq and the Bahrain Islands.

The following table gives the figures of the production and exports of Indian coffee —

Production and Export of Indian Coffee in thousands cwts.

12 Months ending June 30th.	Production	Export	Surplus available for Home consumption
1925	272 1	251.9	20 2
1926	317.5	260 9	56 5
1927	247.8	142.6	105 2
1928	352.0	243 0	109.0
1929	294 4	208 4	86 0
1930	300 1	162 0	138 1
1931	289 4	168 7	120 7

Making allowance for the re-exports from India of imported coffee, the consumption of Coffee in India in 1933 was approaching six times the amount consumed in 1925.

The total production of cured coffee in India during the season 1932-33 was nearly 82½ million lbs as compared with 34 million lbs during the previous season. Exports declined from 293,000 cwts in 1930-31 to 156,000 cwts in 1931-32. The pre-war and post-war averages were 255,000 cwts and 216,000 cwts respectively. Local consumption of Indian coffee which has been expanding expanded still further owing to the restrictions on imported coffee. As regards exports, the United Kingdom and France which constitute the principal markets, both increased their respective off-takes very considerably and required 52,000 cwts and 54,000 cwts as against 44,000 cwts and 43,000 cwts respectively in 1931-32. The total value of the exports of coffee was 1,10 lakhs in 1932-33 as against Rs 94 lakhs in 1931-32.

The daily average number of persons employed in the plantations during 1932-33 was returned

at 1,01,174 of whom 61,336 were permanently employed (namely, garden labour 48,126 and outside labour 21,210) and 39,838 temporarily employed (outside labour), as compared with 96,706 persons (89,157 garden and 17,153 outside labour permanently employed and 40,396 temporary outside labour) in 1931-32.

The general trade depression did not fail to affect the coffee industry but in addition to the general slump in trade there was an additional factor which depressed coffee prices and this was the exceptionally heavy crops of Brazilian coffee. Since the year 1925 there has been a general downward trend in coffee prices. Until the end of 1929 the fall was comparatively slow, but since then it has been very rapid. This will be clearly seen from the fact that while the average wholesale price of Indian coffee in London was 140s in 1923 and 127s in 1929 it fell to 86s. in 1930.

The declared value per cwt of coffee was Rs 60-11-9 in 1931-32 as against Rs 63-8-1 in 1930-31. It rose to Rs. 63-6-7 in 1932-33. The wholesale price in India per cwt in April 1933 was Rs. 72-0-0.

From the forecast above, prepared by Mr R C Srivastava, Sugar Technologist, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, India, it appears that home production in 1936-37 should outstrip consumption unless internal demand materially expands. During the three years ended 1933-34, sugar consumption in India has appreciably gone down by about 19 per cent per year. Stimulating consumption is, therefore, one of the pressing problems facing the industry at present. Another problem before the industry is the need for a thorough overhauling of the existing machinery of distribution. Some believe that the problem is not so much of over-production as of an equitable distribution between the various parts of the country. Excess production in

areas like the U P and Bihar, the sugar belt of India, has yet to be tackled by the industry.

During the latter part of 1934, a conference of Indian sugar-mill owners was held at Calcutta to discuss the question of a marketing organization. In order to eliminate as far as possible imports of foreign sugar the problem of disposing of the surplus production of the sugar belt at various port towns at competitive prices was discussed. The proposal to form a central marketing board was mooted in the conference and though tentative agreements were arrived at regarding certain problems immediately facing the industry, the proposed board was not set up by the end of the year 1934.

INDIAN TOBACCO.

The tobacco plant was introduced into India by the Portuguese about the year 1605. As in other parts of the world, it passed through a period of persecution, but its ultimate distribution over India is one of the numerous examples of the avidity with which advantageous new crops or appliances are adopted by the Indian agriculturist. Five or six species of *Nicotiana* are cultivated, but only two are found in India, namely, *N. Tabacum* and *N. rustica*. The former is a native of South or Central America, and is the common tobacco of India. About the year 1829 experiments were conducted by the East India Company towards improving the quality of leaf and perfecting the native methods of curing and manufacturing tobacco. These were often repeated, and gradually the industry became identified with three great centres, namely, (1) Eastern and Northern Bengal (more especially the District of Rangpur), (2) Madras, Trichinopoly, Dindigul, Coconada and Calcutt in Southern India, and (3) Rangoon and Moulmein in Burma. Bengal is the chief tobacco growing Province, but little or no tobacco is manufactured there. The chief factories are near Dindigul in the Madras Presidency, though, owing to the imposition of heavy import duties on the foreign leaf used as a cigar wrapper, some cigar factories have been moved to the French territory of Pondicherry.

The question of improving the quality of Indian tobaccos has received the attention of the Botanical section of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, and three memoirs have been published recording the results of investigations in that direction. The immediate problem at Pusa is the production of a good cigarette tobacco. Many attempts have been made in the past to introduce into India the best varieties of cigarette tobacco from America, but the results have been disappointing. It is now hoped to build up by hybridization new kinds of tobacco suited to Indian conditions of growth, which possess in addition the qualities necessary to obtain a better price.

Area under Cultivation.—The cultivation of tobacco is very widespread in Burma. The two main varieties are called "Burmese tobacco" and "Havana tobacco." Of the Burmese tobacco there are two main varieties "Seywet-gyi," the large-leaved variety and "Seywet-gyun," a smaller-leaved variety with pointed leaves. The former yields a heavier

crop, but the latter gives better quality. There is always a great demand on the market for both the Havana and the Burma tobacco. The smooth leaves of the Havana plant are used for the wrappers and the coarser Burmese leaf for the filling.

The most important tobacco tracts in British India are—(i) the Coimbatore and Dindigul tract of Madras, where the *Uss-Kappal* and *Para Kappal* varieties are largely grown, the former supplying the Trichinopoly cigar, (ii) the Godavari Delta of Madras; (iii) the Rangpur tract of Bengal, (iv) the Districts of Bihar and Orissa, (v) Guzerat in Bombay and (vi) the delta tract of Burma.

The season for harvesting varies in different localities ranging from December to June, but the bulk of the crop is harvested during the months of February, March and April. The leaves when quite dry, are assorted and placed in heaps in stacks to ferment. They are then tied into bundles of 25 or 30, a useless leaf being employed for tying each bundle. The leaves are laid perfectly flat, the bundles being fan-shaped. In this condition they are baled, the broom-like ends projecting outwards. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves, different qualities of tobacco are obtained. A black variety is used in India for cake tobacco, and this is the most common product, but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Exports.—The shipments of unmanufactured tobacco rose from 21,000,000 lbs. to 29,000,000 lbs in quantity and from Rs 73 lakhs to Rs 90 lakhs in value. The most important outlet for Indian tobacco was, as usual, the United Kingdom which took 13,000,000 lbs. as compared with 9,000,000 lbs. in 1932-33. Among the other important markets, Aden and Dependencies took 5.4 million lbs. as against 4.4 million lbs., Japan 3.3 million lbs. as against 3.1 million lbs. and the Netherlands 3.5 million lbs. as against 1.7 million lbs. in 1932-33. Shipments to the Straits Settlements amounting to 1.2 million lbs. showed an increase of 0.4 million lbs. or of 50 per cent. There were also concurrent increases in the shipments to the Federated Malay States and Hongkong. Except for Hongkong, China practically withdrew from the market, her output amounting to only 2,000 lbs. as against 72,000 lbs. in 1932-33 and 2,16,000 lbs. in 1931-32.

The Opium Trade.

Mention opium and half the Western world directs its thought to India, as though India were a most unscrupulous producer of the most noxious drug on earth. Refer to the League of Nations' proceedings in regard to opium and again, mainly under the leadership of American representatives, one finds India and the Government of India held up to humanity as traffickers in opium and as thereby obstacles to making the world a better place to live in. In fact, neither India nor the Government of India has anything to be ashamed of in its opium history. Whatever may be the case in other countries, centuries of inherited experience have taught the people of India discretion in the use of the drug and its misuse is a negligible feature in Indian life. Abuse of its properties is rarer in India than the abuse of alcohol in Western countries. So much for the internal position.

The record as regards exports is equally clean. India has never driven hard bargains to secure the sale of the product overseas. Where it has been bought the reason is its superiority over other supplies, because of the stringent regulations by which its manufacture has always, under the British authorities, been regulated in India, in order to secure the purity and cleanliness of the finished product. Directly any importing country has expressed a desire to have the trade reduced, the Government of India have responded by stiffening their restrictions on export. There have, in recent years, mainly at the instance of America, been numerous international conferences with a view to making opium and drugs derived from it more difficult to obtain and in every case it has been found that India had already given the lead in the special regulations which it was proposed to lay down.

The China Trade—The classic base of Indian restriction of her export opium trade is provided by China. There is a long history of Indo-Chinese negotiations on the subject, but it is unnecessary to go further back into these than 1911. On 8th May of that year, there was drawn up between India and China an agreement under which the Government of India assented to (1) the payment of an import duty three times the existing amount in return for the promised abolition of provincial taxes, (2) the partial closure of China to Indian opium by provinces, including not only stoppage of transit passes, but also treaty port closure, Shanghai and Canton excepted, (3) the total extinction of trade before 1917 on proof of total cessation of opium production in China, and (4) revision of the agreement on due notice by either party. This agreement, as its terms indicate, was on the side of China the outcome of a professed desire to stamp out the opium trade and opium consumption in her midst. And on her side China, in the agreement, undertook, among other things, to reduce production in China *pari passu* with the reduction of exports from India.

In addition to the limit to the China trade imposed by the agreement, the Government of India undertook in order to lessen the danger of smuggling into China, and as an earnest of their desire to assist that country, strictly to confine the remainder of Indian opium export

to the legitimate demands of the non-China markets. A figure was elaborately calculated for these markets and India drastically cut her non-China exports down to it in 1911. In subsequent years, she progressively reduced the permissible export limit and in 1913 she stopped exports to China altogether.

The financial sacrifice thereby undertaken by India in order to help the Chinese in their professed desire for reform amounted to many millions sterling a year. China never carried out her side of the bargain. She is still demonstrably the greatest opium producing country in the world and the only effect of the reduction, and eventual abolition, of imports from India is better trade for Chinese opium producers and merchants and largely increased imports of opium into China from Persia and Turkey.

Agreements observed by India—The Government of India have carried out to the letter their side of the 1911 agreement. They have gone further. Not only were exports to China stopped and exports to non-China countries in the East limited in accordance with the agreement with China, but exports to non-China countries have, on the voluntary initiative of India, been subjected to successive restraining agreements with the countries concerned. The Government of India introduced, with effect from 1st January 1923, a certificate system recommended by the League of Nations, whereby all exports of opium must be covered by certificates from the Government of the importing country that its consignment is approved and is required for legitimate purposes. The pressure exerted by the League of Nations in this regard was not pressure upon the Government of India but upon the Governments of the importing countries and, so far as India was concerned, the new system was welcomed because it removed from the shoulders of the Government of India all responsibility in regard to opium consumption in the importing countries and laid it upon their own respective Governments. In 1926, in order to fulfil the spirit of her international agreements, India decided, though she was in no way bound by their letter to do so, to reduce her exports to Far Eastern countries for other than medical and scientific purposes by 10 per cent yearly, so as to extinguish them altogether by December 1935, and effect has been given to that policy at considerable financial sacrifice. India is the only country that has made any considerable sacrifices of the kind.

International Aspect of the Problem—It was only during the processes and negotiations by which the Indian opium export trade to China was being suppressed that the Opium question began to assume a wider international aspect. This happened on the initiative of the U.S.A., at whose instance an International Opium Commission met at Shanghai in 1909 and formulated a series of recommendations for the suppression of opium smoking and the regulation of the use of opium and morphia. The United States thereafter advanced a further proposal for an International Conference at The Hague. This met on 1st December 1911, and finally drew up a convention on the subject, the terms of this document presented no new

ideas to the Government of India. Their provisions India had long observed. As regards morphia and cocaine, with which the Hague Conference concerned itself, the uses of these drugs in India had long been subject to exceedingly strict regulations. But these two drugs, the use of which for other than medical purposes invariably takes the form of dangerous vice, were becoming a menace to the world. They were not included within the scope of the proposals submitted by the U.S.A. for the consideration of the Conference. It was mainly owing to pressure by the Government of India that they were included within the terms finally signed and the rigid and universal application of the articles of the Convention which apply to them would rid the world of the drug evil.

As regards prepared opium, that is to say smoking opium, India does not and never has exported it and the sale of it in India is prohibited. No opium is exported from India to the United States of America. None has been exported to Great Britain by private merchants since 1916. Exports to Great Britain are strictly limited to medicinal requirements and go officially from the Government of India to the British Government. Nor is Indian opium exported to any other country in Europe.

Indian Uses of Opium.—There is a fundamental difference between the problem in India and that in foreign countries, particularly in America and Europe. America and Europe are principally concerned with the problem of the vicious consumption of cocaine and morphia and it is on the experience of the abuse of these drugs in those countries that much of the condemnation of Indian policy is based. It is accepted that the consumption of opium in America and Europe is in effect hardly less disastrous than that of morphia and cocaine. And the reason is that to Americans and Europeans opium is an unaccustomed drug. The habit of its use being both new and strange to them, it is never used to moderation but always abused, and the results have no relation to the result of moderate opium eating in India. The fact appears to be that peoples acquire a tolerance to drugs to the use of which they are long habituated. Opium has been used in India since the 16th century at least. The method of use is eating and in India, generally speaking, eating seems to do little, if any, harm. Smoking, which is the habit of the Far Eastern races, rather than of the Indian races, seems to do much more harm in India than eating, while on the other hand where smoking is in ordinary use competent authorities (e.g., the Royal Commission on opium in Malaya) think eating to be more harmful than smoking.

The Government of India have fully participated in the different International Conferences on the drug question and responded to the obligations which her assent to their conclusions has placed upon her in regard to home consumption. But the principal effect upon India of these International discussions has been to draw the fresh attention of her Government and people to the opium situation in her midst, to cause consultations on the subject between the Government of India and the Indian Legislature and to produce what may be described as considerable intelligent progress in the development of those regulations upon the use of opium which are time-honoured.

The Commission of 1893.—Despite all this, the principles of Indian internal opium policy essentially remain, subject to certain changes of scientific opinion in regard to medicinal uses, those laid down by a Royal Commission which was appointed by His Majesty's Government, mainly as a result of the activities of the Society for the Suppression of the Opium Trade, in 1893, to inquire into all the circumstances connected with the production and sale of Indian opium. The Society which was largely instrumental in bringing about the institution of the inquiry, recorded its opinion that the appointment of the Commission constituted "the greatest and most solid forward step that the movement for the suppression of the opium trade has yet made" and considered that the Royal Commission was "as fair-minded and impartial a tribunal as the Society could have desired to hear its case". The results of the enquiry were published in 1895 in seven volumes.

The Royal Commissioners examined with the greatest care the problem of opium consumption in India and in brief they found that it was not only subject to careful regulation but was governed by longstanding and admirable disciplinary habits among the people. Excessive use, they found, was exceptional, and condemned by public opinion. As regards the legal restriction of its use to medical needs, they advised that Government could do no more than limit the extent of cultivation and hold a monopoly of manufacture and wholesale supply and that to draw a line in popular opinion between medical uses and those not strictly so describable would be impracticable. They agreed that the mass of Indian opinion was opposed to prohibition as an unnecessary restriction on individual liberty and interference with established customs and habits. Apart from the religious question they found Indians generally to consider the use of alcohol to be more objectionable, more injurious and more disgraceful.

The Government of Lord Hardinge, in a Despatch to His Majesty's Government in 1911, and that of Lord Reading, in a despatch dated 24th March, 1921, both in the same words took their stand on the conclusion of the Royal Commission "that the opium habit as a vice scarcely exists in India, that opium is extensively used for non-medical and quasi-medical purposes, in some cases with benefit and for the most part without injurious consequences, that the non-medical uses are so interwoven with the medical uses that it would not be practicable to draw a distinction between them in the distribution and sale of the drug and that it is not necessary that the growth of the poppy and the manufacture and sale of opium in British India should be prohibited except for medical purposes." The despatch of Lord Hardinge's Government was approvingly quoted by Lord Reading's Government a few years ago. It has long been recognised that any attempt to eradicate by law the use of opium would be open to all the objections involved in bureaucratic interference with popular custom. Eating it is largely quasi-medical, it is used for the prevention, cure and alleviation of disease, as a prophylactic as an anodyne and as the commonest and most treasured household medicine of the people, to whom qualified medical assistance is inaccessible. It is also taken as a solace, as a tonic and as a

restorative to lessen or avert fatigue and in other ways in which, when moderately used, it is relatively innocuous

Present Policy—The current attitude and policy of the Government of India were lately explained in their behalf to the League of Nations at Geneva. Their representative declared that any genuine measure of reform initiated by a Provincial Minister in connection with it would receive encouragement and support from the Central Government and showed that the policy of that Government is, and has been, one of non-interference with the moderate use of raw opium, whether the object of the consumer be some real or supposed physical benefit or merely the indulgence of the almost universal desire of human beings, particularly those whose occupations involve exposure or severe bodily exertion, for a stimulant or narcotic. Excessive indulgence it is and always has been the desire of Government to express

Opium is under the current Indian constitution a Provincial Transferred Subject. Nevertheless, owing to the jealous watching and criticism by observers in every continent, the Government of India called an official All-India Conference, which was opened at Simla by Lord Irwin, on 5th May 1930, to consider the question of certain areas where opium consumption was alleged to be unduly high. This followed on the prosecution of special provincial inquiries by committees set up by the Local Governments at the special instance of His Majesty's Government. The Conference, after an exhaustive discussion of the phenomena presented by the various areas selected for investigation, and in the light of the personal knowledge of the representatives of the different Provinces and of the reports of the local committees, concluded that it appeared that certain parts of Assam and Calcutta might correctly be regarded as having excessive consumption and that Orissa and the Ferozepore District of the Punjab might be held to provide cases for further inquiry. In other cases the Conference considered that there was no evidence of prevalent excess. But they gave a series of examples to show that there were simple explanations showing harmless causes for what appeared to be excessive consumption in many places.

While speaking at the Second Geneva Opium Conference on 15th January 1925, Lord Cecil stated that he had seen figures, apparently taken from a report made by the United States Treasury, to the effect that consumption was greater in America than in India. The estimate framed by the Advisory Committee of the League of the annual requirements of opium for strictly medicinal and scientific purposes is 300 milligrammes or 9.25 grains per capita which is roughly equivalent to 6 Indian seers per 10,000. The Health Committee of the League opined that this could be reduced to 150 milligrammes, or 6.94 grains in countries possessing a well developed medical service. The consumption per capita in British India during 1924-25 worked out at 17.2 grains per head. The rate of consumption has certainly fallen since the compilation of this published figure. The amount includes veterinary uses and these are extensive, though to secure statistics of the quantity of opium given to animals is impossible. Allowance also has to be made for the poor morphine con-

tent of Indian opium, which is about 9 per cent at 90 deg constance, and the limited number of medical practitioners trained on Western lines to administer strictly measured doses. Lord Cecil's statement at the League of Nations was received with extreme criticism by Mr Porter of the American delegation. Mr Porter said the American statistics cited had been disavowed and that Lord Cecil's observations were a "vile slander upon the people of the United States." Lord Cecil apologised and withdrew his statement. But Mr Frederick Wallis, Commissioner of Correction, New York, writing in the Current History Magazine for February, 1925, showed the annual per capita consumption in Italy to be one grain, in Germany 2 grains, in England 3 grains, in France 4 grains and in the United States 36 grains. In "Current History" for March, 1925, Mr Wallis defended this last figure and said that in view of the smuggling into the United States "it would appear to me that the consumption would be much larger than the Government officially gave as 36 grains." It appears now to be recognised by all sane opinion throughout the world that India has the cleanest sheet if any in regard to opium control and export. Even the former ill informed sentimental attacks upon the Government in these respects have almost stopped.

Opium policy has on several occasions during the past few years come under discussion in the Central Indian Legislature and in regard to it the Government of India and the non-official members of the Legislature have been in accord. Cultivation of the poppy in British India is confined, except for a few wild and inaccessible regions, to the area that supplies the Government of India Factory at Ghazipur in the United Provinces where it can only be cultivated under license. Importation into British India from the Indian States is controlled by prohibition of imports except on Government account and by agreement with the States concerned that they will not allow exports to British India except by arrangement. Cultivation in British India is progressively and rapidly being reduced. The sown area in British India which produced the crop of 1931-32 was 37,012 acres, i.e., 26.3 per cent of the area in 1922-23, and 20 per cent of that in 1912-13. The process of reduction was stayed in 1931-1932 because it was found that the rate before 1931 had been too rapid so that stocks were brought to a dangerously low level. Progressive and rapid reduction was resumed in 1933. The consumption of opium in the different provinces in India in 1932 is approximately as follows—

	lbs
Madras	62,568
Bombay (including Sind)	51,090
Bengal	64,135
United Provinces	39,880
Punjab	62,210
Burma	41,330
Bihar & Orissa	37,724
Central Provinces and Berar	26,416
Assam	30,512
Administered Areas (a)	14,445
Total for British India	4,28,340
Aden	90
(a) North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan, Ajmer-Merwara and Delhi.	

But beyond these there are certain real and special causes that contributed to the failure of some of these and hinder the progress of the rest. Chief among them are (1) The Industry is in its infant stage and hence such failures are but incidental. (2) No expert guidance in this line, there is a lack of men and good literature (3) Paucity of skilled labour of higher type

The present Indian workmen in this line and blowers are few in number and illiterate. They, therefore, master the situation and are unamendable to management (4) Heavy cost of good fuel, the works usually being situated where good sand and quartz can be obtained, and consequently, in most cases, at a great distance from the coal-fields. (5) To a certain extent, competition from Japan and European countries.

The Indian Industrial Commission say in their Report (Appendix E), viz "The Glass Industry, even in its simplest form is highly technical and can be efficiently carried on only by scientifically trained managers and expert workmen. The present stage has been reached by importing men, only partially equipped with the necessary qualifications, from Europe and Japan, and by sending Indian students abroad to pick up what knowledge they can. The glass industry is a closed trade and its secrets are carefully guarded, so that the latter method has not proved conspicuously successful"

Bibliography—Indian Industries Commission Report (Appendix), Indian Munitions Board, Industrial Handbook, etc. "Notes on Glass Manufacture" By C. S. Fox. (Bulletin No 29 of Indian Industries and Labour, 1922)

HIDES, SKINS AND LEATHER.

India's local manufactures of skins and leather have steadily increased in recent years. Previous to the outbreak of war, the trade in raw hides in this country was good; there was a large demand for hides, and prices ruled high. On the declaration of war, the trade which had up till then been brisk was seriously dislocated. Exports to enemy countries, especially to the great emporium of Indian hides, Hamburg, were stopped, and exporters had to find new markets for the raw material. The raw hide business of India had up to that time been largely, if not quite entirely, in the hands of German firms or firms of German origin and Germany had the largest share of India's raw hides. In the four months before the outbreak of war she took 39 per cent. of the total exports. In 1912-13 she took 32 per cent and in 1913-14, 35 per cent. Germany still takes the major share of India's raw hides while America takes the bulk of goat skin exports. Shipments of tanned hides go mostly to Great Britain.

The exports of hides and skins, tanned or dressed, amounted to 19,700 tons valued at Rs 565 lakhs as compared with 14,500 tons valued at Rs 466 lakhs in 1932-33.

Conditions of the Trade.—The trade in hides and skins and the craft in leather manufacture are in the hands either of Mahomedans or of low caste Hindus, and are on that account participated in by a comparatively small community. The traffic is subject to considerable fluctuations concomitant with the vicissitudes of the seasons. In famine years for instance the exports of untanned hides rise to an abnormal figure. The traffic is also peculiarly affected by the difficulty of obtaining capital and by the religious objection which assigns it to a position of degradation and neglect. It has thus become a monopoly within a restricted community and suffers from the loss of competition and popular interest and favour.

Uses of Indian Hides.—The fifteenth report of the Imperial Economic Committee states that Indian hides, both raw and partially tanned, are largely used for the upper leather of boots, partially tanned skins are used for fancy leather articles, bookbinding and for covering the small rollers used in cotton mills for drawing the thread. Raw sheepskins are used for similar

articles and also for gloves. They are exported mostly to Germany, France and Italy. Raw goatskins are used almost entirely in the manufacture of glove kid, of which commodity the United States is the chief producer.

The chief markets for Indian raw hides are in Central and Southern Europe, Hamburg being an important distributing centre. Directly after the war an effort was made to direct more of this trade to the United Kingdom, but it has drifted back to Germany. The assortment and grading of raw hides exported from Calcutta before the war, largely the result of the work of German firms established there, had reached a high standard. After the war the trade became somewhat disorganised from a variety of causes, among which may be cited fiscal changes, the entry into the trade of new and at first inexperienced firms, the increased cost of arranging for supervision at up-country points. It has, however, been recovering its reputation.

Protecting the Industry.—The report of the Industrial Commission pointed out that the principal difficulty at present in the hides and leather industry was the lack of organisation and expert skill. Government action to foster the industry was first taken in September 1919, when a Bill was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council further to amend the Indian Tariff Act, 1894. The effect of this Bill was officially described as follows: "It is to impose an export duty of 15 per cent. on hides and skins with a rebate of 10 per cent. on hides and skins exported to other parts of the Empire, and there tanned. Its object is to ensure that our hides and skins shall be converted into fully tanned leather or articles of leather so far as possible in India and failing this in other parts of the Empire, instead of being exported in a raw state for manufacture in foreign countries." Sir George Barnes who was in charge of the Bill and described the tanning industry as one of the most promising Indian industries explained that "the present position is that we have in India at the present time some hundreds of tanneries for the tanning of hides, a large number of which have come into existence in order to satisfy military requirements during the war. We have in fact the foundations of a flourishing tanning industry, but there is reason to fear that it may tend to dwindle and disappear

gave further protection both to the inventor by providing that his application should be kept secret until acceptance, and to the public, by increasing the facilities for opposition at an effective period. At the same time a Controller of Patents and Designs was established, with power to dispose of many matters previously referred to the Governor-General in Council, and provision was made for the grant of a sealed "patent" instead of for the mere recognition of an "exclusive privilege." The provisions of the Act follow with the necessary modifications those of the British Inventions and Designs Act of 1907.

New Legislation —Part I (Patents) of the Act of 1911 has been further amended by Act VII of 1930 and includes the following —

If an Application comprises more than one invention the additional inventions may be made the subject matter of additional applications bearing the same date as the original application.

The term of the Patent will be 10 years instead of 14 years

Patent of Addition will be granted on the original patent without the payment of additional renewal fees but the additional patent will expire with the date of the original patent

Fresh provisions are made for the use of an invention by Government

Government will grant licences to the public on application if the Patentee refuses to do so on reasonable terms

Several other facilities are given under the Indian Amended Act of 1930 on the lines of the present British Patent Act.

The period of opposition to the grant of a patent has been extended to 4 months from the date of the notification of the "Acceptance" of the application, instead of 3 months. The provisions contained in the Indian Patents and Designs Rules, as regarded divisional applications in respect of inventions covered by the original application and divided therefrom, have been amplified and embodied in the Act itself. Section 10 has been amended to empower the Controller to decide disputes about proceeding with the applications for patents, that may occur between the applicants and third parties, or between joint applicants among themselves

The time for appeal to the Governor-General in Council has been extended to 3 months, instead of 2 months from the date of the decision appealed against. A new Section 21A has been provided relating to secret patents. A new Section 35A has been provided for giving relief in suits for infringement of patents in respect of valid claim, despite the existence of invalid claims in the specification

The definition has been altered as to the person entered on the Register as the grantee or proprietor of the patent. Section 78A (4) has been amended to enable British India to enter into reciprocal arrangement with the Indian States.

The definition of the term "Design" has been altered, and the time for applying to secure for the registration in India, the priority date of the application in the United Kingdom or other parts of the British Empire, has been extended to 6 months

Printed Specification of applications for patents, which have been accepted (One Rupee per copy), may be seen free of charge, together with other publications of the Patent Office at the following places —

AMMUNDAHAD.	R. C. Technical Institute.
ALLAHABAD.	Public Library.
BANGALORE	Indian Institute of Science.
BARODA	.. Department of Commerce and Industry
BOMBAY	.. Record Office
"	.. Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Matunga.
"	.. The Bombay Textile and Engineering Association, No. 1A, Sussex Road, Parel.
CALCUTTA	.. Patent Office, No. 1, Council House Street.
"	.. Bengal Engineering College, Sidpur.
CANPORE	.. Office of the Director of Industries, United Provinces
CHINSURAH	.. Office of the Commissioner, Burdwan Division.
CHITTAGONG.	Office of the Commissioner, Chittagong Division.
DACCA	.. Office of the District Board, Dacca.
DELHI	.. Office of the Deputy Commissioner
HYDERABAD	Industries and Commerce Department of His Highness the Nizam's Government.
KARACHI	.. Office of the City Deputy Collector
LAHORE	.. Punjab Public Library.
LONDON	.. The Patent Office, 25, Southampton Buildings, W. C.
MADRAS	.. Record Office, Egmore.
"	.. College of Engineering.
MYSOBE	.. Office of the Secretary to Government, General and Revenue Department.
NAGPUR	.. Victoria Technical Institute.
POONA	.. College of Engineering.
RANCHI	.. Office of the Director of Industries, Bihar & Orissa.
RANGOON	.. Office of the Revenue Secretary, Government of Burma.
ROORKEE	.. Thomason College.
SHOLAPUR	.. Office of the Collector.

According to the report by Mr. N. Mukarji, Actuary to the Government of India, contained in the Indian Insurance Year Book, 1932, the number of companies subject to the provisions of the Indian Life Assurance Companies Act of 1912 and the Indian Insurance Companies Act of 1928 is 282 of which 130 companies are constituted in India and 146 companies are constituted outside India. Of the 130 Indian companies, 60 are established in the Bombay Presidency, 25 in Bengal, 21 in the Madras Presidency, 14 in the Punjab, 8 in Delhi, 2 each in the Central Provinces, Ajmer and Burma and 1 each in Burma and the U. P. Of the 146 non-Indian companies 71 are constituted in the United Kingdom, 31 in the British Dominions and Colonies, 18 in the Continent of Europe, 12 in the United States of America, 9 in Japan and 5 in Java.

Most of the Indian companies carry on life assurance business only. They are 103 in number and of the remaining 33 Indian companies, 20 carry on life business along with other insurance business and 13 carry on insurance business other than life.

Besides the Indian life offices, there are some pension funds, mostly connected with Government offices, which are exempt from the operation of the Act and the Indian Post Office Insurance Fund is also exempt. As regards non-Indian companies, most of them carry on insurance business other than life. Out of the total number of 146 non-Indian companies, 122 carry on insurance business other than life, 10 carry on life business only and 14 carry on life business along with other insurance business. Of the latter 24 companies, 16 are constituted in the United Kingdom, 6 in the British Dominions and Colonies and 1 each in Germany and Switzerland.

The total new life assurance business effected in India during 1931 amounted to 125,000 policies assuring a sum of nearly 26½ crores and yielding a premium income of 1½ crores, of which the new business done by Indian companies amounted to 97,000 policies assuring a sum of 17 crores and having a premium income of ¾ crore. The share of the British companies in respect of new sums assured is 8½ crores, of the Dominion and Colonial companies about 6 crores and of the single German company ¼ crore.

The average sum assured under the new policies issued by Indian companies is Rs. 1,764 and under those issued by non-Indian companies Rs. 3,400.

The total life assurance business effected in India and remaining in force at the end of 1931 amounted to 714,000 policies assuring a total

sum of 168 crores including reversionary bonus additions and having a premium income of very nearly 8½ crores. Of this the share of Indian companies is represented by 502,000 policies assuring a sum of 94 crores and having a premium income of 4½ crores.

Most of the Indian companies now transact life assurance business on the scientific principle but there are still some which carry on business on the dividing plan under which the sum assured is not fixed but depends on the division of a portion of each year's premium income amongst the claims arising in that year. The Government of India Actuary says in his latest annual report that the main defect of dividing insurance business is that policy-holders in each class are charged the same rate of premium of subscription irrespective of their age on admission ranging even in some cases from 18 to 60 years. "Business of this nature is not only unsound but is apt to lend itself to the practice of fraud on the part of policy-holders and agents and later on by the company. It has been declared to be the curse of insurance enterprise in India." Before the Act of 1912 was passed there were numerous companies which transacted life assurance business on the dividing plan and most of them came to grief. Of such companies which were in existence at the time of the passing of the Act the majority have disappeared and some have stopped issuing policies on the dividing plan. A few new companies have taken up this dividing insurance business and it will not be long before they realise their mistake.

Some Indian life offices have extended their operations outside India, mostly in British East Africa and in the Near East. The total new sums assured by these offices outside India in 1931 amounted to 66 lakhs yielding a premium income of 4 lakhs and the total sum assured including reversionary bonus additions in force at the end of 1931 amounted to 4 crores, having a premium income of 21½ lakhs.

The total new annuity business effected during 1931 was for the amount of about ½ lakh per annum, which was equally shared by Indian and non-Indian companies. The total annuity, business remaining in force at the end of the year was for the amount of 8½ lakhs per annum, of which the amount payable by Indian companies was a little over 1½ lakhs per annum.

The life assurance business of Indian companies which steadily increased during 11 years up to 1929 received a setback in 1930 owing to the general financial depression. The following table shows the new business effected since 1921 in each year and the total business remaining in force at the end of the year.

Year	New business written during the year	Total business remaining in force at the end of the year
1921	5.47 lakhs	84 crores
1922	5.64 "	87 "
1923	5.85 "	89 "
1924	6.89 "	42 "
1925	8.15 "	47 "
1926	10.35 "	53 "
1927	12.77 "	60 "
1928	15.41 "	71 "
1929	17.29 "	82 "
1930	16.50 "	89 "
1931	17.76 "	98 "

A large portion of the net income of the Indian companies is derived from the sale of policies and the proceeds of total losses. In the first six months of the year, the volume of new business insured in each year. The total business insured during 1931 was 1,41,111, which is 10 per cent of the total new business.

The net income of the Indian companies under their life insurance business for the year 1931 was 1,41,111, which is 10 per cent of the total new business. The net income of the Indian companies under their life insurance business for the year 1931 was 1,41,111, which is 10 per cent of the total new business.

Year ending 31st March	New business effected during the year		Total business effected during the year		Total business effected during the year	
	Number of policies	Sum insured	Number of policies	Sum insured	Number of policies	Sum insured
1930	7,552	1,41,111	61,171	1,41,111	61,171	1,41,111
1931	8,834	1,41,111	71,171	1,41,111	71,171	1,41,111
1932	9,710	1,41,111	79,654	1,41,111	79,654	1,41,111
1933	6,484	1,41,111	8,175	1,41,111	8,175	1,41,111

Fire, Marine and Miscellaneous Insurance Business.—The net Indian premium income of all companies under insurance business other than life insurance during 1931 was 21 crores in which the Indian companies have been 11 crores and that of the non-Indian companies 11 crores. The total amount is composed of—

- 1,28 lakhs from fire
 - 43 lakhs from marine, and
 - 77 lakhs from miscellaneous insurance business.
- The Indian companies received—
- 28 lakhs from fire,

The net income of the Indian companies under their life insurance business for the year 1931 was 1,41,111, which is 10 per cent of the total new business. The net income of the Indian companies under their life insurance business for the year 1931 was 1,41,111, which is 10 per cent of the total new business.

The total assets of Indian companies are about 10 crores, which is 10 per cent of the total assets of all companies. The total assets of Indian companies are about 10 crores, which is 10 per cent of the total assets of all companies.

Customs Tariff.

General Import duties are levied for fiscal purposes and not for the protection of Indian industries. Any duties imposed for protective purposes are on the recommendations of the Tariff Board, as accepted or amended by Government. Under the terms of the Ottawa Agreement a large range of British and Colonial goods received a preferential rate of duty from January 1, 1933. But the tariff has been modified with a view to admitting free or at favourable rates articles, the cheap import of which was considered necessary in the interests of the country. Thus certain raw materials, manures, agricultural implements and dairy appliances are admitted free. Machinery, printing materials, etc., are assessed at 10 per cent. and iron and steel railway material and ships at 15 per cent.

- Re-Imports—Articles of foreign production on which import duty has been once paid, if subsequently exported, are on re-import exempted from duty on the following conditions:—

The Collector of Customs must be satisfied—

- (1) of the identity of the articles;
- (2) that no drawback of duty was paid on their export;
- (3) that the ownership has not changed between the time of re-export and subsequent re-import;
- (4) that they are private personal property re-imported for personal use, not merchandise for sale;
- (5) that not more than three years have passed since they were re-exported.

Duty is, however, charged on the cost of alterations, additions, renovations and repairs, involving the substitution of new parts, done to the articles while abroad, which should be declared by the person re-importing the articles in a form which will be supplied to him at the time of re-importation.

To facilitate identification on re-importation an export certificate giving the necessary particulars should be obtained from the Customs Department at the time of shipment of the articles which should be tendered for examination.

This concession of free entry on re-importation is not extended for the benefit of Companies or Corporate Bodies.

Drawbacks—When any goods, capable of being easily identified which have been imported by sea into any Customs port from any foreign port, and upon which duties of Customs have been paid on importation, are re-exported by sea from such Customs port to any foreign port, or as provisions or stores for use on board a ship proceeding to a foreign port, seven-eighths of such duties shall, except as otherwise hereinafter provided, be repaid as drawback.

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Customs Collector at such Customs port and that the re-export be made within two years from the date of importation, as shown by the records of the Custom House, or within such extended

term as the Chief Customs Authority, or Chief Customs Officer on sufficient cause being shown in any case determines, provided further that the Chief Customs Officer shall not extend the term to a period exceeding 3 years.

When any goods, having been charged with Import duty at one Customs port and thence exported to another, are re-exported by sea as aforesaid, drawback shall be allowed on such goods as if they had been so re-exported from the former port:

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Officer-in-Charge of the Custom House at the port of final exportation, and that such final exportation be made within three years from the date on which they were first imported into British India.

No drawback shall be allowed unless the claim to receive such drawback be made and established at the time of re-export.

No such payment of drawback shall be made until the vessel carrying the goods has put out to sea, or unless payment be demanded within six months from the date of entry for shipment.

Every person, or his duly authorised agent, claiming drawback on any goods duly exported, shall make and subscribe a declaration that such goods have been actually exported, and have not been re-landed and are not intended to be re-landed at any Customs port, and that such person was at the time of entry outwards and shipment, and continues to be, entitled to drawback thereon.

Merchandise Marks.—Importers into India especially from countries other than the United Kingdom, would do well to make themselves acquainted with the law and regulations relating to merchandise marks. In Appendix II will be found the principal provisions of the Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889, and connected Acts and the notifications issued thereunder. The following summary of the regulations in force does not claim to be exhaustive. For those seeking more complete information a reference is suggested to the Merchandise Marks Manual which is published under the authority of the Government of India and obtainable of all agents for the sale of Indian Government publications.

Infringements or offences may be classified conveniently under four heads:—

- 1 Counterfeit trade marks;
- 2 Trade descriptions that are false in respect of the country of origin;
- 3 Trade descriptions that are false in other respects; and
- 4 Lengths not properly stamped on piece-goods.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*conca*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION I— <i>contd.</i>						
Live Animals and Products of the Animal Kingdom— <i>contd.</i>						
3 (2)	FISH, SALTED, dry	Preferential revenue	Rs 3-8 per cwt		Rc 1-8 per cwt	
3 (3)	FISH, UNSALTED, dry	Preferential revenue	30 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>		20 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	
	<i>Tariff value—</i> Bombas		Rs. 1 p Per cwt 7 0 0			
3 (4)	FISHWIVES, including singly and sofile and sharkskins	Revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			
	<i>Tariff values—</i> Sharkfins, loose or in bundles from Arabian and Persian Gulf ports		Rs 4 p Per cwt 4 0 0			
	Sharkfins, loose or in bundles from China and the Straits		Per lb 2 14 0			
4	BUTTER, CURRIE AND GHEO	Revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			
	<i>Tariff values—</i> Butter ..		Rs 1 p Per lb. 0 14 0			
	Gheo ..		Per cwt 41 0 0			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—con.

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION II.—contd						
Products of the Vegetable Kingdom—contd						
11	Flour not otherwise specified Tariff value— Cassava or Tapioca Flour Rs a p 5 8 0	Revenue	25 per cent ad valorem			March 31st, 1936
11 (1)	Wheat Flour	Protective	Rs 1-8 per cwt			
11 (2)	Sago Flour		Free			
11 (3)	Sago and Tapioca Tariff value— Cassava, Tapioca of Sago Rs a p 7 8 0	Preferential revenue	30 per cent ad valorem		20 per cent ad valorem	
11 (4)	Starch and Farina	Revenue	15 per cent ad valorem			
12	Seeds, all sorts not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent ad valorem			
12 (1)	Oilseeds imported into British India by sea from the territories of any Prince or Chief in India	Preferential revenue	30 per cent ad valorem		20 per cent ad valorem	
12 (2)	Oilseeds, non-essential, all sorts not otherwise specified, including copra or coconut kernel Tariff value— Copra or coconut kernel Rs a p 6 0 0		Free			

36
11
18
171
104
523
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810
28
85
802
45
425
163
1
4
1
5

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff.—contd

Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the pro- duce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
			The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION II—contd					
Products of the Vegetable Kingdom—contd					
RUBBER SEEDS					
HOPS		Free			
FODDER, BRAN AND POLLARDS	Revenue	2½ per cent ad valorem			
DYING AND TANNING SUBSTANCES, all sorts not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent ad valorem			
Tariff values—					
Cochineal					Rs a p Per lb 0 14 6
Galnuts, Persian					Per cwt 51 0 0
BARKS for tanning		Free			
CUTCH AND GAMBIE, all sorts	Preferential re- venue	30 per cent ad valorem		20 per cent ad valorem	
Tariff values—					
Gambier, block and cube					Rs a p Per cwt 11 4 0
Gambier in flakes or circular pieces					53 0 0

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION II—<i>contd</i>						
Products of the Vegetable Kingdom—<i>contd</i>						
13 (3)	GUMS, RESINS AND LAC, all sorts not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	<i>Tariff values—</i>					
	Rs a p					
	Per cwt					
	Gum Ammoniac					
	25 0 0					
	Gum Bysabol (coarse myrrh)					
	16 12 0					
	Gum Olibanum or Frankincense					
	9 8 0					
	Gum Persian (false)					
	9 0 0					
	Myrrh					
	20 8 0					
13 (4)	GUMS, ARABIC, BENJAMIN (ras and cowrie) and DAMMER (including unrefined batu) and ROSIN	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
	<i>Tariff values—</i>					
	Rs a p					
	Per cwt					
	Dammer batu, unrefined					
	5 8 0					
	Gum Arabic, other than ground					
	21 0 0					
	Gum Benjamin, ras					
	19 0 0					
	Gum Benjamin, cowrie					
	45 0 0					
	Gum Dammer (or Copal)					
	19 8 0					
	Rosin					
	8 8 0					
13 (5)	STICK OF SEED LAC		Free			
13 (6)	OPPIUM	Revenue	Ra 30 per seer of 80 tolas or 18½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
13 (7)	SECTION II— <i>contd</i> Products of the Vegetable Kingdom— <i>contd</i> CINCHONA BARK	Revenue	Free			
14	CANES AND RATTANS Tariff values— Canes— Malacca Chinty Tries Root moonah Mannu Polo, all kinds— Not exceeding 10 feet in length Exceeding 10 feet in length Tohite Rattans— Chair Basket Outers Inners	Rs a p Per 100 pieces 25 0 0 10 0 0 5 4 0 19 8 0 14 0 0 55 0 0 70 0 0 Per cwt 18 0 0 13 12 0 5 8 0 50 0 0 33 0 0	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd						
Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce of manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom.	A British Colony	
SECTION IV.						
Products of the Food-preparing Industries, Beverages, Alcoholic Liquors and Vinegars; Tobacco.						
10	Canned or bottled BACON, HAM AND LARD	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	March 1938
10 (1)	FISH, canned	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
10 (2)	ISINGLASS, canned or bottled	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
17	SUGAR excluding confectionery*	Protective	Rs 9-1 per cwt			
17 (1)	MOLASSES	Revenue	31½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
17 (2)	CONFECTIONERY	Preferential revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	40 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
17 (3)	SUGAR-CANDY	Revenue	Rs 10-8 per cwt.			
18	COCOA AND CHOCOLATE other than confectionery	Preferential revenue	130 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			

January, 1935, and until further notice, on sugar produced in any factory in British India and otherwise issued as *khandsara* Sugar and (ii) No 1-5 per cwt on all other Sugar except *Salmiya* Sugar

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January, 1935, and until further notice, on sugar produced in any factory in British India and either issued out of, or used within, such factory is (1) 10 annas per cwt on *Khandasari* Sugar and (2) Rs 1-5 per cwt on all other Sugar except *Salmiya* Sugar

THE FIRST SCHEDULE. - Import Tariff *contd*

H. No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Percentage of duty if the article is imported from the United Kingdom or the Colonies	Percentage of duty if the article is imported from other countries.
SECTION IV—<i>contd</i>					
	Products of the Food-preparing Industries. Beverages, Alcoholic Liquors and Vinegars; Tobacco—<i>contd</i>				
11(1)	All sorts of liquor not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		...
22	All sorts of liquor not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>		
22(1)	All and liquor—				
	(a) In barrels or other containers containing 27 or more,	Preferential revenue	Re 1-2 per Imperial gallon	Fourteen annas per Imperial gallon	
	(b) In bottles containing less than 27 oz, but not less than 20 oz	Preferential revenue	Three annas per bottle	Two annas and four ples per bottle	
	(c) In bottles containing less than 13½ oz but not less than 10 oz.	Preferential revenue	One anna and six ples per bottle	One anna and two ples per bottle.	
	(d) In bottles containing less than 6½ oz, but not less than 5 oz.	Preferential revenue	Nine ples per bottle	Seven ples per bottle	
	(e) In other containers	Preferential revenue	Re 1-8 per Imperial gallon	Re. 1-2-8 per Imperial gallon	

THE FIRST SCHEDULE—Import Tariff.—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of— The United Kingdom A British colony	Duration of preferential rate of duty
22 (2)	<p>SECTION IV—<i>contd</i> Products of the Food-preparing Industries: Beverages, Alcoholic Liquors and Vinegars; Tobacco—<i>contd</i> PORTER, CIDER AND OTHER FERMENTED LIQUORS EXCEPT ALE AND BEER— (a) In barrels or other containers containing 27 oz or more (b) In bottles containing less than 27 oz but not less than 20 oz (c) In bottles containing less than 13½ oz but not less than 10 oz (d) In bottles containing less than 6½ oz but not less than 5 oz (e) In other containers</p>	Revenue	Fifteen annas per Imperial gallon	.	.
		Revenue	Two annas and ¼ pie per bottle	.	.
		Revenue	One anna and three pies per bottle	.	.
		Revenue	Seven and half pies per bottle	.	.
		Revenue	Rs 1-4 per Imperial gallon	.	.
22 (3)	<p>WINES, not containing more than 42 per cent of proof spirit— (a) Champagne and other Sparkling Wines (b) Other sorts</p>	Revenue	Rs 13-2 per Imperial gallon	.	.
		Revenue	Rs 7-8 per Imperial gallon	.	.

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Proviso, if the duty is the duty of an article of the United Kingdom	Proviso, if the duty is the duty of an article of the United Kingdom	Purification of protective rates of duty
SECTION IV.—<i>contd</i>						
Products of the Food Preparing Industries ; Beverages, Alcoholic Liquors and Vinegars; Tobacco—<i>contd</i>						
22 (5)	SPRINGS—					
	(a) BITTERS—					
	(1) entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested	Preferential revenue	Rs. 50 per Imperial gallon.		Rs. 45 per Imperial gallon	
	(11) not so entered	Preferential revenue	Rs. 37-8 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof		Rs. 34-12 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof	
	(b) Drugs and medicines containing spirit—					
	(1) entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested	Preferential revenue.	Rs. 10 per Imperial gallon		Rs. 36 per Imperial gallon	
	(11) not so entered	Preferential revenue	Rs. 29 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof		Rs. 26 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof	
	(c) Perfumed spirits	Preferential revenue	Rs. 60 per Imperial gallon		Rs. 52-8 per Imperial gallon	
	(d) Rum	Preferential revenue	Rs. 37-8 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof		Rs. 33-12 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof	

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rates of duty If the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
22 (5)	SECTION IV— <i>contd</i> Products of the Food Preparing Industries ; Beverages, Alcoholic Liquors and Vinegars; Tobacco— <i>contd</i>					
	SPRITS—					
	(a) BITTERS—					
	(i) entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested	Preferential revenue	Rs 50 per Imperial gallon	.	Rs 45 per Imperial gallon.	.
	(ii) not so entered	Preferential revenue	Rs 37-8 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof		Rs 33-12 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof	.
	(b) Drugs and medicines containing spirit—					
	(i) entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested.	Preferential revenue	Rs 40 per Imperial gallon	Rs 36 per Imperial gallon	Rs 36 per Imperial gallon	.
	(ii) not so entered	Preferential revenue	Rs 29 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof	Rs 26 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof	Rs 26 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof	.
	(c) Perfumed spirits	Preferential revenue	Rs 60 per Imperial gallon	Rs 52-8 per Imperial gallon		.
	(d) Rum	Preferential revenue	Rs 37-8 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof		Rs 33-12 per Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof	.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufactures of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
22 (6) — <i>contd</i>	SECTION IV Products of the Food-preparing Industries : Beverages, Alcoholic Liquors and Vinegars, Tobacco— <i>contd</i>					
	SPIRITS— <i>contd</i> PROVIDED THAT— (a) on any article chargeable under this item with the lower rate of duty, the duty levied shall in no case be less than 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , and on any article chargeable under this item with the higher rate of duty, the duty levied shall in no case be less than 30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> (b) where the unit of assessment is the Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof, the duty shall be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength is greater or less than London proof					
22 (6)	DENATURED SPIRIT <i>Tariff value—</i> Is a p Per Imperial gallon 0 15 0 Spirit from Java denatured before clearance	Revenue	9½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
22 (7)	VINEGARS IN CASKS	Revenue	2½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
23	OILCAKES	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
24	TOBACCO, manufactured, not otherwise specified	Revenue	Rs 3-12 per lb			
24 (1)	CIGARS	Revenue	112½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony.	
SECTION IV						
Products of the Food-preparing Industries; Beverages, Alcoholic Liquors and Vinegars; Tobacco— <i>contd.</i>						
24 (2)	CIGARETTES	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> and in addition either Rs 8-2 per thousand or Rs 3-1 per lb, whichever is higher		Rs 2-12 per lb	
24 (3)	TOBACCO, unmanufactured*	Preferential revenue	Rs 3-1 per lb.			
SECTION V.						
Mineral Products						
25	CHINA CLAY		Free			
25 (1)	SALT, excluding salt exempted under Item No. 25 (2)	Revenue	The rate at which excise duty is for the time being leviable on salt manufactured in the place where the import takes place †			

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues). Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, tobacco leaf for the manufacture of cigars when proved to have been imported for use in a cigar factory is liable to duty at Rs 2 per lb (standard) and Rs 1-8 per lb (preferential)

† The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice is Rs 1-0-0 per maund of 82½ lbs. avoizt. Under the Salt (Additional Import Duty) Act, 1931, as amended subsequently, salt imported into any port in British India except Aden and Perim is liable to an additional duty of custom at the rate of 2½ annas per maund upto the 30th April 1935

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Sl. No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Rate of duty	If the article is the property of or manufactured in the United Kingdom or British Colony	Duty if of protective rates of duty
SECTION V—<i>contd</i>					
23 (2)	Mineral Products—<i>contd</i>.				
23 (1)	SALT imported into British India and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, for use in any process of Manufacture also salt imported into the port of Calcutta and issued with the sanction of the Government of Bengal to manufacturers of glazed stoneware, also salt imported into any port in the provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council for use in curing fish in those provinces	Revenue	Free		
23 (1)	The following building and engineering materials namely, chalk, lime and clay	Revenue	23 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
23 (1)	CEMENT not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
23 (5)	PORTLAND CEMENT, excluding white Portland cement	Preferential revenue	Rs 18-4 per ton	Rs 13-12 per ton	
23 (6)	STONE prepared as for road metalling	Revenue	Free		
23 (7)	MARBLE AND STONE not otherwise specified*		25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
26	METALLIC ORFS, all sorts except others and other pigment ores		Free		

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, sandstone is exempt from payment of import duty.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd

Item No	Name of article.	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony.	
SECTION V—contd.						
Mineral Products—contd.						
7 (1) 27 (2)	COAL, COKE AND PATENT FUEL	Revenue	Ten annas per ton			
	ASPHALT	Preferential revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		15 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
	PITCH AND TAR	Revenue	25 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>			
	<i>Tariff values—</i>	<i>Rs a p. per cwt.</i>				
	Coal pitch	2 8 0				
	Stockholm pitch	12 4 0				
3)	ALL SORTS OF MINERAL OILS not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	<i>Tariff values—</i>	<i>Rs a p. Per Imperial gallon.</i>				
	Mineral Colza oil	1 0 0				
	Transformer oil, including transit and switch oil, other than that assessed to duty under the proviso to Item No 72 (3) of the First Schedule of the Indian Tariff Act, 1934	1 5 0				
	KEROSENE,* also any mineral oil other than kerosene and motor spirit which has its flashing point below one hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer by Abel's close test	Revenue	Three annas and nine pies per Imperial gallon			
7 (4)						

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all kerosene produced in a manufactory in British India is 2 annas and 9½ pies per Imperial gallon

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony.	
27 (8)	SECTION V— <i>concd</i> Mineral Products— <i>concd</i> .					
	LUBRICATING OIL, that is, oil such as is not ordinarily used for any other purpose than lubrication, excluding any mineral oil which has its flashing point below two hundred degrees of the Fahrenheit thermometer by Abel's close test	Preferential revenue	Two annas and six ples per Imperial gallon	six ples per Imperial gallon		
28	SECTION VI					
	Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products; Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like; Glues and Gelatines; explosives; Fertilisers CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES, all sorts not otherwise specified.* <i>Tariff values—</i> Alkali, Indian (sajji-khar) Ammonia gas, anhydrous, including compressed or liquified gas Ammonium carbonate or bicarbonate Ammonium chloride— Murate of ammonia, crystalline Sal ammoniac, sublimed Other sorts, including compressed	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, calcium acetate and radium salts are exempt from payment of import duty.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff— <i>contd</i>						
Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of— The United Kingdom A British Colony	Duration of protective rates of duty	
SECTION VI— <i>contd</i>						
	Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products; Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like; Glues and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers— <i>contd</i>					
	CHEMICALS, Drugs and Medicines all sorts not otherwise Specified— <i>contd</i> <i>Tariff values—contd</i>					
		Rs a p				
		Per cwt				
	Tartaric acid in kegs or in bulk	69 0 0				
	Trona or natural soda uncalcined	4 0 0				
	Calumba root	4 0 0				
	China root (Chobechim) rough	10 0 0				
	China root (Chobechim) scraped,	19 0 0				
	Cubebbs	35 0 0				
	Galangal, China	11 0 0				
	Salap	98 0 0				
28 (1)	BLEACHING PASTE AND BLEACHING POWDER	Revenue	Free			
28 (2)	COPPERAS, GREEN (ferrous sulphate)	Revenue	2½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
28 (3)	SULPHUR	Preferential revenue	Free			
28 (4)	LIQUID GOLD for glass-making	Protective	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	15 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .		
28 (5)	HEAVY CHEMICALS, the following, namely —		Re 1-5 per cwt or 25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher		March 31st. 1939	
	MAGNESIUM CHLORIDE					
28 (6)	THE FOLLOWING CHEMICALS, NAMELY — (a) Alum (ammonia alum, potash alum and soda alum)	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Re 1-6 per cwt, whichever is higher			
	(b) Magnesium sulphate or hydrated magnesium sulphate	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Re 1-4 per cwt, whichever is higher			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd						
Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of preferential rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION VI—contd						
28 (9)	Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products, Colours and Varnishes, Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like, Glues and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers—contd	Revenue	Rs 6-4 per lb			
28 (10)	SACCHARINE (except in tablets) and such other substances as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the <i>Gazette of India</i> , declare to be of a like nature or use to saccharine	Revenue	18½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i> on Rs 6-4 per pound of saccharine contents, whichever is higher			
28 (11)	ALKALOIDS OF OPIUM and their derivatives	Revenue	Rs 30 per seer of 80 tolas or 18½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , which ever is higher			
28 (12)	ALKALOIDS extracted from Cinchona Bark including Quinine and alkaloids derived from other sources which are chemically identical with alkaloids extracted from cinchona bark		Free			
28 (13)	ANTI-PLAGUE SERUM		Free			
28 (14)	TOILET REQUISITES not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
29	CINEMATOGRAPH FILMS not exposed	Preferential revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	15 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.	
SECTION VI— <i>contd</i>						
Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products ; Colours and Varnishes, Perfumery ; Soap ; Candles and the like ; Glues and Gelatines ; Explosives ; Fertilisers— <i>contd</i>						
	Allazarine, dry—	Ra. a. p per lb				
	(a) not exceeding 40 per cent	1 10 0				
	(b) exceeding 40 per cent	3 8 0				
	Congo red	0 0 0				
	Coupling dyes of the naphthol group—					
	(a) Naphthols	4 0 0				
	(b) Rapid fast colours	7 12 0				
	(c) Bases	3 0 0				
	(d) Other salts	1 12 0				
	Vats—					
	(a) Indigo	1 10 0				
	(b) Carbazole blue	3 4 0				
	(c) Other sorts—					
	(s) Paste	4 14 0				
	(w) Powder	16 4 0				
	Sulphur black	0 5 0				
	Metanil yellow	1 0 0				
	Aniline salts	0 5 0				
	All others	1 10 0				

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION VI— <i>contd.</i>						
30 (2)	Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products; Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the Like; Glues and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers— <i>contd.</i>					
	PAINTS, colours and painters' materials, the following, namely—					
	(a) Red lead, genuine dry, genuine moist and reduced moist	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 1-12 per cwt., whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(b) White lead, genuine dry	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 5-12 per cwt., whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(c) Zinc white, genuine dry	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 6 per cwt., whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(d) Paints, other sorts, coloured, moist—					
	(i) in packing of 1 lb or over	Preferential revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 8-8 per cwt., whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(ii) in packing of $\frac{1}{2}$ lb and over but less than 1 lb	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 11-4 per cwt., whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(iii) in packing of $\frac{1}{4}$ lb and over but less than $\frac{1}{2}$ lb	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 17 per cwt., whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(iv) in packing of less than $\frac{1}{4}$ lb	Preferential revenue	70 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 21 per cwt., whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Ad valorem rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of a British Colony	Duration of protective rate of duty.
SECTION VI—<i>contd</i>						
	Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products; Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like; Glues and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers— <i>contd</i>					
	PAINTS, colours and painters' materials, the following, namely—					
30 (3)	(a) Red lead, reduced dry	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 4 4-12 per cwt whichever is higher			
	(b) White lead, genuine moist, and reduced dry or moist	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 5-12 per cwt, whichever is higher			
	(c) Zinc white, genuine moist	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 6 per cwt, whichever is higher			
	(d) Zinc white, reduced dry or moist	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 1-1 per cwt, whichever is higher			
30 (4)	The following PAINTS, colours and painters' materials, namely, barytes, turpentine, turpentine substitute, and varnish not containing dangerous petroleum within the meaning of the Indian Petroleum Act, 1934	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
30 (5)	PLUMBAGO AND GRAPHITE	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
30 (6)	PRINTERS' INK	Revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
30 (7)	LEAD PENCILS	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or one anna per doz, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective duties of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION VI.— <i>contd.</i>						
Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products; Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like; Gums and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers— <i>contd.</i>						
30 (8)	SHATH PINGOLA	Revenue ..	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>
31	NATURAL ESSENTIAL OILS, all sorts and others who specified. <i>Tariff value—</i> Cassia oil natural from Ceylon, Siam, China, Japan and the Far East Rs. a. p. Per lb. 0 11 0	Revenue .. Proportional income.	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>
31 (1)	The following NATURAL ESSENTIAL OILS, namely, citronella, cinnamon and cinnamon leaf <i>Tariff value—</i> Citronella oil, natural, from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East. Rs. a. p. Per lb. 1 0 0	Proportional revenue.	30 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .	20 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>	..
31 (2)	The following NATURAL ESSENTIAL OILS, namely, almond, bergamot, gajapatti, camphor, clove, eucalyptus, lavender, lemon, okoro-ro and pepper mint <i>Tariff value—</i> Gajapatti oil, natural, from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East. Peppermint oil, natural, from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East Rs. a. p. Per lb. 1 2 0	Revenue ..	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION VI— <i>contd</i>						
Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products; Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like; Glues and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers— <i>contd</i>						
31 (3)	ESSENTIAL OILS, Synthetic	Preferential revenues	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
31 (4)	CAMPHOR	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	<i>Tariff values—</i>					
	Camphor, refined, other than powder	Rs a p Per lb				
	Camphor, powder, other than synthetic	0 14 0				
	Camphor, synthetic, tablets and slabs	1 4 0				
31 (5)	Camphor, synthetic, powder	0 13 0				
	PERFUMERY, not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	<i>Tariff values—</i>					
	Gowla, husked and unhusked	Rs a p Per cwt				
	Kapurkachi (zedoary)	52 8 0				
	Patch leaves (patchouli)	12 8 0				
	Rose-flowers, dried	13 8 0				
		14 0 0				
32	SOAP, not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
32 (1)	SOAP, Toilet	Preferential revenue	35 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 20 per cwt., whichever is higher	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION VI— <i>contd</i>						
	Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products; Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like; Glues and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers— <i>contd</i>					
32 (2)	SOAP, household and laundry— (a) in plain bars of not less than one pound in weight (b) other sorts	Revenue	Rs 4 per cwt			
32 (3)	POLISHES AND COMPOSITIONS	Revenue	Rs 0.8 per cwt			
32 (4)	CANDLES	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
33	GLUE, not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
33 (1)	GLUE, CLARIFIED, liquid	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
34	GUNPOWDER for cannons, rifles, guns, pistols and sporting purposes	Revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
34 (1)	EXPLOSIVES, namely, blasting gunpowder, blasting gelatine, blasting dynamite, blasting roborite, blasting tonite, and all other sorts, including detonators and blasting fuze *	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
34 (2)	FIREWORKS specially prepared as danger or distress lights for the use of ships	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
34 (3)	FIREWORKS, not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
		Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No. 1000 of 1913, frequently, certain specified explosive specially adapted for use in dangerous places.

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, certain specified explosive specially adapted for use in dangerous coal mines are exempted from payment of import duty

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article.	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
34 (4)	SECTION VI— <i>contd</i> Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products, Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like; Gases and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers— <i>contd</i>					
	MATTRESSES, undipped splints and veneers— (a) MATTRESSES— (1) In boxes or booklets containing on an average not more than 40 matches	Protective	The rate at which excise duty is for the time being leviable on such matches manufactured in British India* plus ten annas per gross of boxes or booklets			
	(2) In boxes or booklets containing on an average more than 40 but not more than 60 matches	Protective	The rate at which excise duty is for the time being leviable on such matches manufactured in British India† plus fifteen annas per gross of boxes or booklets			
	(3) In boxes or booklets containing on an average more than 60 but not more than 80 matches	Protective	The rate at which excise duty is for the time being leviable on such matches manufactured in British India‡ plus Re 1-4 per gross of boxes or booklets			

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice is Re 1 per gross of boxes or booklets
† The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice is Re 1-8 per gross of boxes or booklets.
‡ The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice is Rs 2 per gross of boxes or booklets

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
34 (4) — <i>contd</i>	SECTION VI— <i>contd</i>					
	Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products; Colours and Varnishes; Perfumery; Soap; Candles and the like; Gums and Gelatines; Explosives; Fertilisers— <i>contd</i>					
	MANURES, undipped splints and veneers— <i>contd</i>					
	(a) MANURES— <i>contd</i> (4) All other matches	Protective	The rate at which excise duty is for the time being leviable on such matches manufactured in British India* plus one pie for every 48 matches or fraction thereof			
35	(b) Undipped splints such as are ordinarily used for match-making	Protective	Five annas and seven and a half ples per lb			
	(c) Veneers such as are ordinarily used for making boxes, including boxes and parts of boxes made of such veneers.	Protective	Seven annas and six ples per lb			
	MANURES, all sorts, including animal bones and the following chemical manures:—Basic slag, nitrate of ammonia, nitrate of soda, muriate of potash, sulphate of ammonia, sulphate of potash, kainit salts, carboline, urea, nitrate of lime, calcium cyanamide, ammonium phosphates, mineral phosphates and mineral superphosphates		Free ..			

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice is 4 annas for every 1,140 matches or fraction thereof.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—could

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty If the article is the pro- duce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION VII						
	Hides, Skins, Leather, Fur Skins and Manufactures of these Materials					
36	HIDES AND SKINS, not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
36 (1)	HIDES AND SKINS, raw or salted		Free			
36 (2)	SKINS (other than Fur Skins), tanned or dressed, and unwrought leather	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
37	The following LEATHER MANUFACTURES, namely, saddlery, harness, trunks and bags	Revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			
37 (1)	LEATHER CLOTH INCLUDING ARTIFICIAL LEATHER, and other manufactures of leather, not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
38	FUR SKINS, dressed	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
SECTION VIII						
	Rubber and Articles Made of Rubber					
39	RUBBER, raw		Free			
39 (1)	RUBBER TYRES AND TUBES AND OTHER MANUFACTURES OF RUBBER, not otherwise specified, excluding apparel and boots and shoes	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	<i>Tariff values—</i>					
	Cycle tyres (pneumatic) from Japan and the Far East					Rs a p per dozen 10 8 0
	Cycle tubes from Japan and the Far East					3 0 0
	Solid rubber tyres for carriages and trucks					per lb 0 7 6

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION IX						
	Wood and Cork and Wares of these Materials; Goods Made of Plating Materials					
40	WOOD AND TRUNK, all sorts, not otherwise specified, including all sorts of ornamental wood	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
40 (1)	FIRE WOOD	Revenue	2½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
40 (2)	FURNITURE, AND CABINETWARE, not otherwise specified, including mouldings	Preferential Revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
40 (3)	TRUNKS AND PARTS and fittings thereof	Revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			
41	CORK MANUFACTURES not otherwise specified	Preferential Revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
42	FURNITURE OF WICKERWORK OR BAMBOO	Preferential Revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
SECTION X						
	Paper and its Applications.					
	WOOD PULP	Protective	Rs 58-4 per ton			March 31st 1939
	PAPER, INCLUDING CHROME, MARBLE, FLINT-FOSTER AND STEREO PRINTING PAPER, articles made of paper and paper maché, pasteboard, millboard and cardboard, all sorts, other than straw board	Preferential revenue	30 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	Tariff values—					
	Packing and wrapping paper—					
	Machine-glazed pressings					
	Manilla, machine-glazed, or unglazed, and sulphite envelope					
	Kraft and imitation kraft					

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article.	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION X— <i>contd.</i>						
Paper and its Applications— <i>could</i>						
41 (1)	PRINTING PAPER (EXCLUDING CHROME, MANILA, FLINT, POSTER AND STEREO), all sorts which contain no mechanical wood pulp or in which the mechanical wood pulp amounts to less than 70 per cent. of the fibre content.	Protective	One anna and three pies per lb	.	..	March 31 st , 1930.
44 (2)	PRINTING PAPER, all sorts not otherwise specified which contain mechanical wood pulp amounting to not less than 70 per cent of the fibre content and strawboard, all sorts <i>Tariff values—</i> Rs. a p per lb 0 1 1 Printing paper, not on reels, (excluding chrome, marble, flint, poster and stereo) in which the mechanical wood pulp amounts to not less than 70 per cent of the fibre content, glazed or unglazed, white or grey per cwt 1 4 0 Straw boards (not lined)	Revenue	25 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>
41 (3)	WRITING PAPER— (a) Inked or printed forms (including letter paper with printed headings) and account and manuscript books and the binding thereof	Protective	One anna and three pies per lb, or 187 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher	March 31 st , 1930
	(b) All other sorts	Protective	One anna and three pies per lb	March 31 st , 1930.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION X— <i>contd</i>						
Paper and its Applications— <i>contd</i>						
44 (4)	TRADE CATALOGUES and advertising circulars Imported by packet, book, or parcel post	.	Free
44 (5)	PAPER MONEY		Free			..
44 (6)	NEWSPAPERS, OLD, in bales and bags	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>
	<i>Tariff value—</i>					
	Old newspaper in bale and bags.	Rs a p per cwt 3 10 0				
45	STATIONERY including drawing and copy books, labels, advertising circulars, sheet or card almanacs and calendars, Christmas, Easter and other cards, including cards in booklet forms; including also waste paper but excluding paper and stationery otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	30 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.
45 (1)	Books, printed, including covers for printed books, maps, charts, and plans, proofs, music, manuscripts, and illustrations specially made for binding in books	Free	
45 (2)	Prints, Engravings and Pictures (including photographs and picture post cards) on paper or cardboard *	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 6th April 1932, as amended subsequently, wall pictures and diagrams such as are ordinarily used for instructional purposes are exempt from payment of Import duty.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd.

Item No.	Name of article.	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.	
46	SECTION XI Textile Materials and Textile Goods. SILK, RAW (excluding silk waste and noils), and silk cocoons <i>Tariff value—</i> Rs. a. p. Per lb Silk, raw— Chinese— Waste products, including Dupion all kinds. Hand reeled All other sorts	Protective	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> plus 14 annas per lb	March 31st, 1930.
46 (1)	SILK WASTE AND NOILS	Protective	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	March 31st, 1930.
46 (2)	WOOL, RAW, AND WOOL-TOPS	Revenue	Free
46 (3)	COTTON, RAW	Revenue	Six ples per lb.
46 (4)	TEXTILE MATERIALS, the following —	Revenue	Raw hemp—18½ per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> , all others—25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>
	Raw flax, hemp, jute and all other unmanufactured textile materials not otherwise specified <i>Tariff value—</i> Rs a. p. Per cwt. Hemp, raw and undressed					

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XI—contd						
Textile Materials and Textile Goods—contd						
SISAL AND ALON FIBRE						
46 (5)		Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	..
47	SILK YARN including thrown silk warps but excluding sewing thread and yarn spun from silk waste or noils	Protective	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> plus 14 annas per lb		..	March 31st, 1939
47 (1)	SILK yarn spun from waste or noils and silk sewing thread	Protective	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			March 31st, 1939.
47 (2)	ARTIFICIAL SILK yarn and thread	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or 3 annas per lb, whichever is higher			
47 (3)	WOOLLEN YARN not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	35 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
47 (4)	WOOLLEN YARN for weaving and knitting wool	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
47 (5)	COTTON THREAD other than sewing or darning thread	Revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			..
47 (6)	COTTON TWIST AND YARN, and cotton sewing or darning thread—					
	(a) of counts above 50's—					
	(i) of British manufacture	Protective	5 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			March 31st, 1939
	(ii) not of British manufacture	Protective	6½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			March 31st, 1939

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom.	A British Colony	
SECTION XI— <i>contd</i>						
	Textile Materials and Textile Goods— <i>contd</i>					
	(b) of counts 50's and below—					
	(a) of British manufacture	Protective	5 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or 1½ annas per lb, whichever is higher	.	.	March 31st, 1939.
	(1a) not of British manufacture	Protective	0½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or 1½ annas per lb, whichever is higher	.	.	March 31st, 1939.
47 (7)	TWIST AND YARN of flax or jute	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>
47 (8)	YARN (excluding cotton yarn) such as is ordinarily used for the manufacture of belting for machinery	Revenue	0½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.	.
48	FABRICS, not otherwise specified, containing more than 90 per cent of silk, including such fabrics embroidered with artificial silk—					
	(a) Pongee	Protective	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> plus Re 1 per lb			March 31st, 1939
	(b) Tuni, Boseki and corded (excluding white cord)	Protective	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> plus Re 1-8 per lb	March 31st, 1939.
	(c) Other sorts*	Protective	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> plus Rs. 2 per lb	March 31st, 1939.
48 (1)	FABRICS not otherwise specified containing more than 90 per cent of artificial silk—					
	(a) of British manufacture	Protective	30 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> or 2½ annas per sq yard, whichever is higher	.	..	March 31st 1939

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, (1) Chinese silk piece-goods, the following, namely, Ghat-Pote, plain and flower, and Gauze, plain and flower, are liable to duty at 50 per cent *ad valorem* plus Rs. 1 per lb., and (2) Paj, all sorts, are exempt from so much of the duty as is in excess of 75 per cent *ad valorem*.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XI— <i>contd.</i>						
Textile Materials and Textile Goods— <i>contd.</i>						
48 (2)	(b) not of British manufacture	Protective ..	50 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> or 4 annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	March 1939. 31st ..
	WOOLLEN FABRICS, not otherwise specified, containing more than 90 per cent. of wool, excluding felt and fabrics made of shoddy or waste wool	Proportional revenue.	35 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 1-2 per lb., whichever is higher	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>
48 (3)	COTTON FABRICS not otherwise specified containing more than 90 per cent. of cotton—					
	(a) Grey piece-goods (excluding bordered grey chaddars, dhoties, saris and scarves)—					
	(i) of British manufacture	Protective ..	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> or 4½ annas per lb., whichever is higher	March 1939. 31st ..
	(ii) not of British manufacture	Protective ..	50 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> or 5½ annas per lb., whichever is higher	March 1939. 31st ..
	(b) Cotton piece-goods and fabrics not otherwise specified—					
	(i) of British manufacture	Protective ..	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	March 1939. 31st ..
	(ii) not of British manufacture	Protective ..	50 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	March 1939. 31st ..

THE FIRST SCHECULE.—Import Tariff—could

Item No	Name of article	Nature or duty.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.	
48 (4)	<p align="center">SECTION XI—<i>contd</i></p> <p>Textile Materials and Textile Goods—<i>contd.</i></p> <p>FABRICS, not otherwise specified, containing more than 10 per cent and not more than 90 per cent silk—</p> <p>(a) containing more than 50 per cent of silk or artificial silk or of both</p> <p>(b) containing not more than 50 per cent of silk or artificial silk or of both—</p> <p>(i) containing more than 10 per cent artificial silk *</p> <p>(ii) containing no artificial silk or not more than 10 per cent artificial silk *</p>	Protective	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> plus Rs. 2 per lb	March 1939.
		Protective	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Re 1-8 per lb, whichever is higher	March 1939
		Protective	50 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	March 1939.
		Protective	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or 2 annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	March 1939
48 (5)	<p>FABRICS, not otherwise specified, containing not more than 10 per cent silk but more than 10 per cent and not more than 90 per cent artificial silk—</p> <p>(a) containing 50 per cent or more cotton—</p> <p>(i) of British manufacture</p> <p>(ii) not of British manufacture</p>	Protective	50 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> or 3½ annas per square yard, which ever is higher	March 1939.

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, woolen all-over embroidered with artificial silk are exempt from so much of the duty as is in excess of 35 per cent *ad valorem* or Rs 1-2 per lb whichever is higher (standard) and 25 per cent *ad valorem* (preferential).

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the articles the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
8 (6)	SECTION XI—<i>contd.</i> Textile Materials and Textile Goods—<i>contd.</i> (b) containing no cotton or containing less than 30 per cent cotton— (f) of British manufacture	Protective	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or 2½ annas per square yard, whichever ever is higher			March 31st 1939.
	(14) not of British manufacture	Protective	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or 4 annas per square yard, whichever ever is higher			March 31st 1939
	FABRICS, not otherwise specified, containing not more than 10 per cent silk or 10 per cent artificial silk, but containing more than 10 per cent but not more than 90 per cent wool	Preferential revenue	35 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
8 (7)	FABRICS, not otherwise specified, containing not more than 10 per cent silk or 10 per cent artificial silk or 10 per cent wool, but containing more than 50 per cent cotton and not more than 90 per cent cotton— (e) of British manufacture	Protective	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			March 31st 1939.
	(b) not of British manufacture	Protective	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			March 31st 1939
	FABRICS, not otherwise specified, containing not more than 10 per cent silk or 10 per cent artificial silk or 10 per cent wool or 50 per cent. cotton	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
8 (8)	THE FOLLOWING CORTEX FABRICS, namely, Satens including Italians of Saten weave, velvets and velveteens and embroidered all-overs— (e) of British manufacture	Protective	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			March 31st 1939

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XI— <i>contd</i>						
Textile Materials and Textile Goods— <i>contd</i>						
(b) not of British manufacture						
48 (10)	FABRICS CONTAINING GOLD OR SILVER THREAD	Protective	35 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			March 31st, 1939.
49	TEXTILE MANUFACTURES, the following articles when made wholly or mainly of any of the fabrics, specified in Item No 48, 48(1), 48 (3), 48(4), 48(5), 48(7), 48(9) or 48(10) — Bed sheets, Bed spreads, Bolster cases, Counterpanes, Cloths, table, Cloths, tray, Covers, bed, Covers, table, Dusters, Glass-cloths, Handkerchiefs, Napkins, Pillow cases, Pillow slips, Scarves, Shirts, Shawls, Sacks (cotton), Towels; Umbrella Coverings	Protective	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			March 31st, 1939
		Protective	The <i>ad valorem</i> rates of duty applicable to the fabric of which the article is wholly or mainly made			March 31st 1939
49 (1)	FURTS, not exceeding 4 yards in length, being <i>bona-fide</i> remnants of piece-goods or other fabrics	Preferential revenue	35 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
49 (2)	RIBBONS	Preferential revenue	150 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	40 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
49 (3)	BLANKETS AND RUGS (other than floor rugs), excluding blankets and rugs made wholly or mainly from artificial silk	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of— The United Kingdom (above)	Duration of preferential rate of duty
SECTION XI— <i>contd.</i>					
Textile Materials and Textile Goods— <i>contd.</i>					
49 (4)	WOOLEN CARPETS, floor rugs, shawls and other manufactures of wool, not otherwise specified including felt *	Preferential revenue.	15 per cent ad valorem	25 per cent	March 1929
49 (5)	COTTON BRAIDS OR CORDS, the following, namely — Ghooneje and Muktakees.	Protective	25 per cent per lb
50	JUTE MANUFACTURES not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent per lb
50 (1)	SECOND-HAND OR USED GUNNY BAGS or cloth made of jute	...	Free
50 (2)	HEMP MANUFACTURES	Revenue	25 per cent per lb
50 (3)	COTTON, hair and canvas ply binding for machinery	Revenue	6½ per cent per lb
50 (4)	ROPES, cotton	...	Free
50 (5)	OIL CLOTH AND FLOOR CLOTH	Preferential revenue	20 per cent ad valorem	25 per cent	...
50 (6)	CORDAGE, rope and twine of vegetable fibre other than jute and cotton, not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue.	10 per cent ad valorem	25 per cent	...
50 (7)	MATS AND MATTINGS, not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent per lb

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue), Notification No 14, dated the 17th April 1912, as amended subsequently, woollen waste and rags are exempt from payment of import duty.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No.	Name of article.	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XI— <i>contd</i>						
Textile Materials and Textile Goods— <i>contd</i>						
50 (8)	COTTON FIBRE, cotton yarn and cotton mats and matting	Preferential revenue.	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.
	<i>Tariff values—</i> Rs a p					
	Cotton fibre	Per cent				
	Cotton yarn	10 0 0				
51	SOCKS AND STOCKINGS made wholly or mainly from silk or artificial silk	Preferential revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.
51 (1)	WOOLLEN HOSIERY AND WOOLLEN KNITTED APPAREL, that is to say, all hosiery and knitted apparel containing not less than 16 per cent of wool by weight.	Preferential revenue	35 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs. 1-2 per lb, whichever is higher	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	.	.
51 (2)	COTTON HOSIERY, the following, namely — Cotton undervests, knitted or woven, and cotton socks or stockings	Protective	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or 12 annas per lb, whichever is higher	.	..	March 31st, 1930.
51 (3)	COTTON KNITTED FABRIC	Protective	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or 12 annas per lb, whichever is higher	.	..	March 31st, 1930.
52	APPAREL, HOSIERY, haberdashery, millinery and drapery, not otherwise specified.	Preferential revenue	35 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	..

THE FIRST SCHEDULE—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No.	Name of article.	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
52 (1)	SECTION XI—<i>contd</i> Textile Materials and Textile Goods—<i>contd</i>. SILK OR ARTIFICIAL SILK GOODS used for required for medical purposes, namely—Silk or artificial silk ligatures elastic silk or artificial silk bow-ty, elbow pieces, thigh pieces, knee caps, leggings, socks, anklets, stockings, suspensory bandages, silk or artificial silk abdominal belts, silk or artificial silk web catheter tubes, and oiled silk or artificial silk	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
52 (2)	UNIFORMS AND ACCOUTREMENTS appertaining thereto, imported by a public servant for his personal use		Free			
52 (3)	INSIGNIA AND BADGES of official British and Foreign Orders		Free			
53	TEXTILE MANUFACTURES, not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	35 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
53 (1)	RAGS AND OTHER PAPER-MAKING MATERIALS excluding wood pulp		Free			
SECTION XII						
54	Footwear, Hats, Umbrellas and Parasols, Articles of Fashion.	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or six annas per pail, whichever is higher			
54	BOOTS AND SHOES not otherwise specified		30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or six annas per pail, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or six annas per pail, whichever is higher		
54 (1)	BOOTS AND SHOES composed mainly of leather	Preferential revenue				

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	<div> <div> Preferrential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of— The United Kingdom. </div> <div> A British Colony </div> </div>	Duration of protective rates of duty
54 (2)	SECTION XII.—<i>contd</i> Footwear, Hats, Umbrellas and Parasols, Articles of Fashion—<i>contd</i>.				
55	Uppers for boots and shoes unless entirely made of leather	Revenue.	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> or three annas per pila, whichever is higher.		.
56	Hats, caps, bonnets and hatters' ware, not otherwise specified Parasols and sunshades and fittings for umbrellas, parasols and sunshades <i>Tariff values—</i>	Preference revenue Preference revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> 30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.
	<i>Tariff values—</i> Umbrella ribs other than nickel-plated, brass-plated, fluted or metal tipped— Solid Fibres, 23, 25 and 27 inches— From Japan 1 3 0 From other countries 2 4 0 Solid Fibres, 10, 10 and 21 inches— From Japan 0 13 0 Per dozen sets of 12 Solids, 23, 25 and 27 inches— From Japan 1 4 0 From other countries 2 0 0 Per dozen sets of 8 Solids, 10, 10 and 21 inches— From Japan 0 14 0 From other countries 1 4 0				.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article.	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XII— <i>contd</i>						
	Footwear, Hats, Umbrellas and Parasols, Articles of Fashion— <i>contd</i>					
56 (1)	UMBRELLAS	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or eight annas each, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>
57.					.	..
SECTION XIII.						
	Wares of Stones and of other Mineral Materials, Ceramic Products, Glass and Glassware.					
58	ARTICLES MADE OF STONE OR MARBLE	Revenue	2½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>
58 (1)	ASBESTOS MANUFACTURES, not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue.	30 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	..
58 (2)	PACKING—ENGINE AND BOILER—all sorts not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	...	
59	BUILDING AND ENGINEERING MATERIALS, all sorts not of iron, steel or wood not otherwise specified, including tiles other than glass, earthenware or porcelain tiles, and firebricks not being component parts of any articles included in Item No 72 or No 74 (2) *	Preferential revenue.	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		..
59 (1)	BUILDING AND ENGINEERING BRICKS ..	Revenue.	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No 11, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, and is exempt from payment of import duty.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article.	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XIII— <i>contd.</i>						
59 (2)	Wares of Stone and of other Mineral Materials; Ceramic Products; Glass and Glassware— <i>contd.</i> EARTHENWARE, china and porcelain, all sorts not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue.	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
59 (3)	EARTHENWARE pipes and sanitary ware .	Revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			
59 (4)	TILES of earthenware and porcelain	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or two annas per square foot, whichever is higher.	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
59 (5)	DOMESTIC EARTHENWARE, china and porcelain, the following, namely — (a) Tea cups and coffee cups— (1) having a capacity of more than 7½ ozs (11) having a capacity of not more than 7½ ozs (b) Saucers— (1) for use with tea cups or coffee cups having a capacity of more than 7½ ozs (11) for use with tea cups or coffee cups having a capacity of not more than 7½ ozs	Preferential revenue Preferential revenue Preferential revenue Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or ten annas per dozen, whichever is higher 30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or four annas per dozen, whichever is higher 30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or five annas per dozen, whichever is higher. 30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or two annas per dozen, whichever is higher.	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
59 (5) — <i>contd</i>	SECTION XIII.— <i>contd</i>					
	Wares of Stone and of other Mineral Materials; Ceramic Products; Glass and Glassware— <i>contd</i>					
	DOWNSIDE ENTHENWARD, china and porcelain, the following, namely— <i>contd</i>					
	(c) Tea-pots— (i) having a capacity of more than 20 ozs	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 3 per dozen, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(ii) having a capacity of more than 10 ozs and not more than 20 ozs	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 1-8 per dozen, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(iii) having a capacity of not more than 10 ozs	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or twelve annas per dozen, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(d) Sugar-bowls	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 1-8 per dozen, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(e) Jugs having a capacity of over 10 ozs	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or twelve annas per dozen, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(f) Plates over 5½ inches in diameter— (i) over 5½ inches in diameter	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or Rs 1 per dozen, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
	(ii) not over 5½ inches in diameter	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or ten annas per dozen, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XIII— <i>contd</i>						
59 (b)	Wares of Stone and of other mineral Materials; Ceramic Products, Glass and Glassware— <i>contd</i>	Preferential revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	15 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
60	COVERED CRUCIBLES for glass-making	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	..		
	GLASS AND GLASSWARE not otherwise specified, and lacquered ware	Rs a p Per gross				
	<i>Tariff values—</i>					
	Aerated water bottles, empty—					
	Codd's pattern—	22 0 0				
	Under 10 ozs	23 0 0				
	10 ozs	25 0 0				
	Over 10 ozs					
	Crown cork pattern—	13 0 0				
	7 ozs and under	14 0 0				
	Over 7 ozs up to and including 10 ozs					
	Over 10 ozs	15 8 0				
11 (1)	GLASS GLOBES AND CHIMNEYS for lamps and lanterns—	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or four annas and six ples per dozen, whichever is higher	..		
	(a) Globes for hurricane lanterns	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> or three annas per dozen, whichever is higher	..		
	(b) Other globes and chimneys having an external base diameter of over one inch	Preferential revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	40 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
60 (2)	ELECTRIC LIGHTING BULBS					

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration or protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
60 (3)	SECTION XIII—<i>contd.</i> Wares of Stones and other Mineral Materials, Ceramic Products, Glass and Glasswares —<i>contd</i> GLASS BANGLES, glass beads and false pearls <i>Tariff values—</i> Rs & p per 100 pairs Glass bangles— <i>China—</i> Nimuchi and pasalai 2 0 0 Bracelet, Jadi and fancy, all kinds 4 0 0 Rajawarakh, all kinds 4 0 0 <i>Japan—</i> per doz. pairs Reshmi or lustre, all colours— Fancy (including all kinds of Vakmal or zigzag but excluding hexagonal bangles) 0 1 2 Fancy hexagonal 0 0 8 All others 0 0 7 Hollow or tube, all colours 0 1 3 Sonchikada (golbala)— Containing gold in their composition 0 12 0 All others 0 1 9	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty If the article is the pro- duce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective tariff of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony.	
SECTION XIV.						
	Real Pearls, precious Stones, Precious metals and wares of these Materials; Coin (Specie).					
61	PRECIOUS STONES, unset and imported uncut, and Pearls, unset	Free
61 (1)	PRECIOUS STONES, unset and imported cut	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
61 (2)	SILVER BULLION and silver sheets and plates which have undergone no process of manufac- ture subsequent to rolling *	Revenue	Two annas per ounce			.
61 (3)	GOLD BULLION and gold sheets and plates which have undergone no process of manufacture subsequent to rolling	.	Free
61 (4)	SILVER PLATE and silver manufactures, all sorts not otherwise specified	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>
61 (5)	SILVER THREAD and wire (including so-called gold thread and wire mainly made of silver) and silver leaf including also imitation gold and silver thread and wire, lametta and metallic spangles and articles of a like nature, of what- ever metal made †	Protective	52½ per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>		..	March 31st, 1941.

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all silver produced in silver works in British India is 5 annas per ounce.

† Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, all the articles included in this item are liable to duty at 50 per cent *ad valorem*

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	British Colony	
SECTION XIV— <i>contd.</i>						
01 (6)	Real Pearls, precious stones, precious metals and wares of those materials, coin (specie)— <i>contd.</i>	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
01 (7)	GOLD OR GOLD-PLATED pen nibs ..	Preferential revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	40 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
01 (8)	ARTICLES, other than cutlery and surgical instruments, plated with gold or silver *	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
01 (9)	CUTLERY plated with gold or silver	Preferential revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	40 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
01 (10)	JEWELLERY AND JEWELRY ..	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
02	CURRENCY COIN of the Government of India	Revenue	Free ..			
02 (1)	SILVER COIN, not otherwise specified	Revenue	Two times per cent			
02 (2)	GOLD COIN	Revenue	Free			
SECTION XV.						
03	Base metals and articles made therefrom. IRON OR STEEL, old ..	Revenue	15½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	Tariff value—					
	Iron or steel, old					

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenue), Notification No. 11, dated the 24th April 1922, as amended, it is provided that, subsequently, articles of imitation jewellery (including buttons and other fasteners) which consist of, or imitate, base metal plated with gold or silver, and in which the proportion of precious metal to total metallic contents, is less than 1 per cent, are liable to duty as 'hardware, other than tools', at the standard rate of 50 per cent *ad valorem* or the preferential rate of 40 per cent *ad valorem*, as the case may be under Item No. 71.

† The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1925, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is 14s. 4 per ton.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article.	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom.	A British colony	
	SECTION XV—<i>contd</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd</i>					
03 (1)	IRON ALLOYS, viz, ferro-manganese, ferro-silicon, ferro-chrome, spiegelstein and the like as commonly used for steel making	Preferential	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.
03 (2)	IRON or steel angle, channel, tee, flat, beam, zed, trough and piling— (a) not fabricated— (i) of British manufacture— not coated with other metals	Protective	1½ times the <i>ex-esse</i> duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher		.	March 31st, 1911
	coated with other metals	Protective	1½ times the <i>ex-esse</i> duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	March 31st, 1911.

* The rate of *ex-esse* duty on the 1st January, 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 1 per ton.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article.	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate or duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of— the United Kingdom A British Colony	Duration of protective rates of duty
SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i>					
61 (2) — <i>contd.</i>	Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i> Iron or steel angle, channel tee, flat, beam, rod, trough and piling— <i>contd.</i> (a) not fabricated— <i>contd.</i> (i) not of British manufacture .. .	Protective	13 times the ex-manufacture duty payable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs. 11 per ton	..	March 11 th , 1911.
	(b) fabricated— (i) of British manufacture .. .	Protective	13 times the ex-manufacture duty payable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs. 10 per ton	..	March 11 th , 1911.
	(ii) not of British manufacture .. .	Protective	13 times the ex-manufacture duty payable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs. 10 per ton	..	March 11 th , 1911.
63 (2)	Iron or steel bar and rod— (i) of British manufacture .. .	Protective	13 times the ex-manufacture duty payable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs. 10 per ton, or 10 per cent ad valorem, whichever is higher	..	March 11 th , 1911.

*The rate of ex-manufacture duty on the 1st January, 1925, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs. 4 per ton.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article.	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XV— <i>contd.</i>						
Base Metals and Articles made therefrom— <i>contd.</i>						
	(1) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the <i>ad valorem</i> duty payable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs 30 per ton, or 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	.	.	March 31st, 1941
63 (4)	IRON, PIG <i>Tariff value—</i> Iron, pig IRON rice bowls	Preferential revenue	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.
63 (5)	CAST IRON PIPES AND TUBES also cast iron fittings therefor, that is to say, bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, plugs, valves, cocks and the like— (3) of British manufacture	Preferential revenue	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.
63 (6)	(4) not of British manufacture	Protective	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> Rs 57-8-0 per ton	.	.	March 31st, 1941. March 31st, 1941

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates, if duty
				The United Kingdom	British Colony	
63 (7)	SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i>					
63 (8)	CAST IRON PLATES STEEL INgot IRON OR STEEL blooms, billets and slabs, provided that no piece less than 1½ inches square or thick shall be included in this item.	Preferential revenue Preferential revenue	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> (b) per cent The exclusive duty for the time being on steel blooms for the time produced in British India or steel India, or 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> direct in India, whichever is higher, plus 10 per cent, if <i>valorem</i> , whichever is higher.			
63 (9)	IRON OR STEEL structures, fabricated partially or wholly, not otherwise specified, if made in slabs or wholly of iron or steel bars, sections, plates or sheets, for the construction of buildings, bridges, tanks, well casings, trunks, towers and similar structures or for parts thereof but not including builders' hardware or any of the articles specified in Item No 72, 72(1), 74(1), 75(3), 75(4) or 76(1)— (a) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the <i>ad valorem</i> duty leviable for the time being on steel Ingots produced in British India or 10 per cent			March 1911.

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, Circular Revenue No. 11, dated the 26th April 1912, as amended subsequently, iron or steel billets are exempt from payment of the alternative *ad valorem* duty.

† The rate of excise duty on the 1st January, 1915, and until further notice, on all steel Ingots produced in British India is Rs. 6 per ton.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd.						
Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferred rate of duty if the article is the produce of manufacture of—	Duration of protective rate of duty	
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
63 (10)	SECTION XV—contd Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—contd (b) not of British manufacture STEEL, templates and tinned sheets, including tin taggers, and cuttings of such plates, sheets or taggers— (i) of British manufacture (ii) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* plus Rs 40 per ton		March 31st, 1911	
		Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* plus Rs 35 per ton		March 31st, 1911	
		Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* plus Rs 30 per ton		March 31st, 1911	
		Preferential revenue	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
63 (11)	IRON OR STEEL ANCHORS AND CABLES					
63 (12)	A IRON OR STEEL bolts and nuts, including hook-bolts and nuts for roofing but excluding fish bolts and nuts— (i) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher		March 31st, 1911	

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 4 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Customs Tariff.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff— <i>contd</i>						
Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty in the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
63 (12)	SECTION XV— <i>contd</i>					
	Base Metals and Articles made therefrom— <i>contd</i>					
	A IRON OR STEEL bolts, and nuts— <i>contd</i>					
	(i) not of British manufacture					
		Protective	If three times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India, plus Re. 1.00 per cent			March 1911
63 (13)	B IRON OR STEEL fish bolts and nuts—					
	(i) of British manufacture					
		Protective	If three times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India, plus Re. 1.00 per cent			March 1911
		Protective	If three times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India, plus Re. 1.00 per cent			March 1911
63 (14)	(ii) not of British manufacture ..					
		Protective	If three times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India, plus Re. 1.00 per cent			March 1911
63 (13)	IRON OR STEEL expanded metal					
		Preferential revenue	20 per cent, ad valorem.			
63 (14)	IRON OR STEEL hoops and strips					
		Preferential revenue	20 per cent ad valorem.			

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Re. 1 per ton.

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1931, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Re. 1 per ton.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony.	
	SECTION XV—<i>contd</i>					
	"Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd</i>					
	IRON OR STEEL rivets—					
3 (15)	(a) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.			March 31st, 1911.
	(*) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* plus Rs 1-11 0 per cwt			March 31st, 1911
8 (16)	IRON OR STEEL nails and washers, all sorts not otherwise specified	Preferential	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> ,		
	Tariff values—					
	Nails, and washers—					
	Nails, rose and deck					
	Nails, bullock and horse-shoe.					
	Washers, black, structural					

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 1 per ton.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article.	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
03 (17)	SECTION XV— <i>contd</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom— <i>contd</i> IRON OR STEEL pipes and tubes and fittings therefor, if riveted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets— (1) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs 12 per ton, or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher			March 31st, 1941.
	(1a) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs 35 per ton			March 31st, 1941
03 (18)	IRON OR STEEL pipes and tubes, also fittings therefor, that is to say, bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, plugs, valves, cocks and the like, excluding pipes, tubes and fittings therefor otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		March 31st, 1941
03 (19)	IRON OR STEEL plates excluding cast iron plates— (a) not fabricated— (1) of British manufacture— not coated with other metals	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher			March 31st, 1941

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 4 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony.	
63 (19)	SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i> IRON OR STEEL plates— <i>contd.</i> (a) not fabricated— <i>contd.</i> (1) of British manufacture— <i>contd.</i> coated with other metals ..	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher			March 31st, 1911
	(11) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 25 per ton			March 31st, 1911
	(b) fabricated— (i) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 10 per ton			March 31st, 1911
	(11) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 40 per ton.			March 31st, 1911

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 1 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
63 (20)	SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i> IRON OR STEEL SHEETS— (a) not fabricated— (1) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the <i>ex-cise</i> duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 11 per ton, or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	.	..	March 31st, 1911.
	(1) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the <i>ex-cise</i> duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 72 per ton	.	.	March 31st, 1911
	(2) galvanized— (i) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the <i>ex-cise</i> duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 10 per ton, or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher	.	.	March 31st, 1911

* The rate of *ex-cise* duty on the 1st January 1911, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 1 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
63 (20) — <i>contd</i>	SECTION XV—<i>contd</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd</i> IRON OR STEEL sheets—<i>contd</i> (a) not fabricated— <i>contd</i> (1) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 40 per ton			March 31st, 1941
	(b) fabricated— (1) not galvanized— (1) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 12 per ton, or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	March 31st, 1941
	(11) not of British manufacture ..	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 35 per ton	March 31st, 1941
	(2) galvanized— (1) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 11 per ton or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.	March 31st, 1941

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1936, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs. 4 per ton.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate, or duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
63 (20) — <i>contd</i>	SECTION XV— <i>contd</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom— <i>contd</i> IRON OR STEEL SHEETS— <i>contd</i> (a) not fabricated— <i>contd</i> (2) galvanized— (i) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs 44 per ton	.	.	March 31st, 1961.
	IRON OR STEEL Railway Track Material— A. Rails (including tramway rails the heads of which are not grooved)— (a) 30 lbs per yard and over and slabs plates therefor— (i) of British manufacture					
63 (21)	(ii) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	March 31st, 1961
	(i) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* or 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	.	.	March 31st, 1961

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1955, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 4 per ton.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
36 (21) —	<p>'SECTION XV—<i>contd</i></p> <p>Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd</i></p> <p>IRON OR STEEL Railway Track Material—<i>contd</i></p> <p>A Rails (including tramway rails etc.)—<i>contd</i></p> <p>(b) under 30 lbs per yard and fish-plates therefor—</p> <p>(i) of British manufacture</p>	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 10 per ton, or 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	.	.	March 31st, 1911
	(ii) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 30 per ton	.	.	March 31st, 1911
	<p>B Switches and crossings including stretcher bars and other component parts, and switches and crossings including stretcher bars and other component parts for tramway rails the heads of which are not grooved—</p> <p>(a) for rails 30 lbs per yard and over—</p> <p>(i) of British manufacture</p>	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	March 31st, 1911

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1905, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 4 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature or duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
68 (21)	SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i> IRON OR STEEL RAILWAY ENG—<i>contd.</i> B Switches and crossings, etc—<i>contd.</i> (a) for rails 30 lbs per yard and over (11) not of British manufacture †	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher			March 31st, 1911.
	(b) for rails under 30 lbs per yard— (i) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* <i>plus</i> Rs 11 per ton, or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.			March 31st, 1911
	(11) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* <i>plus</i> Rs 13 per ton			March 31st, 1911
	C Sleepers, and sleeper bars, other than cast iron— (i) of British manufacture †	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher		March 31st, 1911

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India, is Rs 4 per ton

† Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenue), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April, 1932, is amended subsequently, iron or steel sleeper bars, other than cast iron are exempt from payment of the alternative *ad valorem* duty

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of	Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony
	SECTION XV—contd				
	Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—contd				
68 (21)	IRON OR STEEL Railway Track Material—contd				
	C Sleepers, and Sleeper bars, etc—contd				
	(11) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	.	March 31st, 1941
	D Spikes (other than dog-spikes) and tiebars—				
	(12) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 10 per ton; or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	.	March 31st, 1941
	(11) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* <i>plus</i> Rs 30 per ton	.	March 31st, 1941

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 4 per ton
† Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, iron or steel sleeper bars, other than cast iron are exempt from payment of the alternatve *ad valorem* duty

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				the United Kingdom	A British Colony	
	SECTION XV—contd					
	Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—contd					
	IRON OR STEEL Railway Track Material—contd					
	F Gills, cutters, etc.—contd					
	(a) not of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the ex-cise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs 2-15-0 per cwt			March 31st 1911
63 (22)	IRON OR STEEL Railway Track materials not otherwise specified, including bearing plates cast iron sleepers and lower boxes	Preferential revenue	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
63 (23)	IRON OR STEEL Tramway Track materials not otherwise specified, including rails, fishplates, tie-bars, switches, crossers and the like materials of shapes and sizes specially adapted for tramway tracks	Preferential revenue	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
63 (24)	IRON OR STEEL barbed or stranded wire and wire rope	Preferential revenue.	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
63 (25)	IRON OR STEEL wire, other than barbed or stranded wire, wire rope or wire netting, and iron or steel wire nails— (i) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the ex-cise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India* plus Rs 2½ per ton		..	March 31st 1911

* The rate of ex-cise duty on the 1st January 1936, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs 1 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
83 (28)	SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i> Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i> Provided that articles dutiable under this item shall not be deemed to be dutiable under any other item					
	ALL sorts of Iron and Steel and manufactures thereof not otherwise specified * <i>Tariff values—</i>	<i>Preferential revenue</i>	30 per cent and <i>inform</i>	20 per cent and <i>inform</i>		
	Iron and Steel cans or drums— When imported containing kerosene and motor spirit, namely —	Rs s. p. per can 0 6 0 per can or drum				
	Cans, tinned of four gallons capacity, Cans or drums, not tinned, of two gallons capacity— (a) with faucet caps (b) ordinary	1 8 0 0 6 0 per drum				
	Drums of four gallons capacity— (a) with faucet caps (b) ordinary	2 0 0 1 0 0				

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, iron or steel billets are exempt from so much of the customs duty as is in excess of the excise duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India. The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice is Rs. 4 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of— The United Kingdom Colon	Duration of preferential rate of duty
SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i>					
Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i>					
ENAMELLED IRONWARE, the following, namely:—					
(a) Sign-boards		Preferential	20 per cent.		
(b) Domestic hollow-ware, the following, namely: basins, bowls, dishes, plates and trays, including rice-cup, rice bowls and rice plate		Preferential	20 per cent.		
(i) having no diameter exceeding 19 centimetres		Preferential	20 per cent.		
(ii) having any diameter exceeding 19 centimetres		Preferential	20 per cent.		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
64	<p>SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i></p> <p>Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i></p> <p>Copper wrought, and manufactures of copper, all sorts not otherwise specified</p> <p><i>Tariff values—</i></p> <p>Rs a p Per cwt 28 8 0</p> <p>Copper, braziers, sheets plates and sheathing</p> <p>33 8 0</p> <p>Per hundred leaves</p> <p>1 2 0</p> <p>Copper, foil or danksana, plain, white, 10 to 11 in × 4 to 5 in</p> <p>1 2 0</p> <p>Copper, foil or danksana, coloured, 10 to 11 in × 4 to 5 in</p>	<p>Preferential: nil revenue</p>	<p>30 per cent ad valorem</p>	<p>20 per cent ad valorem</p>		
64 (1)	<p>Copper, scrap</p> <p><i>Tariff value—</i></p> <p>Rs a p Per cwt 19 0 0</p> <p>Copper, old</p>	<p>Revenue</p>	<p>25 per cent ad valorem.</p>			
65	<p>GERMAN SILVER including nickel silver</p>	<p>Preferential revenue</p>	<p>30 per cent. ad valorem</p>	<p>20 per cent ad valorem</p>		
66	<p>ALUMINIUM—circles, sheets and other manufactures not otherwise specified</p> <p><i>Tariff values—</i></p> <p>Rs a p Per lb 0 9 6</p> <p>Aluminium circles</p> <p>Aluminium sheets, plain</p>	<p>Preferential revenue</p>	<p>30 per cent. ad valorem</p>	<p>20 per cent ad valorem</p>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—contd

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty.
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XV— <i>contd</i>						
60 (1)	Base Metals and Articles made therefrom— <i>contd</i> UNWROUGHT INGOTS, blocks and bars of aluminium	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
67	LEAD, wrought—the following articles, namely, pipes and tubes and sheets other than sheets for tea chests	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
67 (1)	LEAD sheets for tea chests	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
68	ZINC OR SPELTER, wrought or manufactured, not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
68 (1)	ZINC, unwrought including cakes, ingots tiles (other than boiler tiles), hard or soft slabs and plates dust dross and ashes, and broken zinc.	..	Exco			
69	TIN, BLOCK	Revenue	Rs. 312-8 per ton			
70	BRASS, bronze and similar alloys, wrought, and manufactures thereof not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
<i>Tariff values—</i>						
	BRASS, patent or yellow metal, sheets and sheathing, weighing 1 lb or above per square foot, and braziers, and plates.	Rs a p Per cwt				
	BRASS, patent or yellow metal, circles weighing 1 lb or above per square foot	23 8 0				
		27 8 0				

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony.	
70 (1)	<p>SECTION XV—<i>contd.</i></p> <p>Base Metals and Articles made therefrom—<i>contd.</i></p> <p>ALL sorts of metals other than iron and steel and manufactures thereof, not otherwise specified *</p> <p><i>Tariff values—</i></p> <p>Rs a p Per cwt</p> <p>Brass, patent or yellow metal (including gun metal) ingots 10 0 0</p> <p>Brass, patent or yellow metal (including gun metal), old. 24 8 0</p> <p>Copper, pigs, tiles, ingots, cakes bricks and slabs 9 0 0</p> <p>Lead, pig Per lb 2 4 0</p> <p>Quicksilver</p> <p>HARDWARE, ironmongery and tools, all sorts not otherwise specified, including incandescent mantles but excluding machine tools and agricultural implements</p> <p><i>Tariff values—</i></p> <p>Rs a p per gross</p> <p>Crown corks 0 8 0</p>	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
71		Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
71 (1)	The following HARDWARE, ironmongery and tools, namely, agricultural implements not otherwise specified, buckets of tinned or galvanized iron, and pruning-knives	Revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			
71 (2)	OTHERS, all sorts not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, radium is exempt from payment of import duty.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—cont'd

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	<div> Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce of or manufactured in The United Kingdom </div> <div> A British Colony </div>	Duration of protective rates of duty
72 (1)	<p>SECTION XVI—cont'd</p> <p>Machinery and Apparatus; Electrical Material—cont'd</p> <p>(c) apparatus and appliances, not to be operated by manual or animal labour, which are designed for use in an industrial system as parts indispensable for its operation and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose,</p> <p>(d) control gear, self-acting or otherwise, and transmission-gear designed for use with any machinery above specified, including belting of all materials (other than cotton, hair and canvas ply) and driving chains, but excluding driving ropes not made of cotton,</p> <p>(e) bare hard-drawn electrolytic copper wires and cables and other electrical wires and cables, insulated or not, and poles, troughs, conduits and insulators designed as parts of a transmission system, and the fittings thereof.</p> <p>NOTE—The term 'industrial system' used in sub item (c) means an installation designed to be employed directly in the performance of any process or series of processes necessary for the manufacture, production or extraction of any commodity</p> <p>The following TEXTILE MACHINERY and apparatus by whatever power operated, namely, heads,</p>	Revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
72 (2)	SECTION XVI.— <i>contd</i> Machinery and Apparatus; Electrical Material— head cords and head knitting needles, reeds and shuttles, warp and weft preparation machinery and looms bobbins and pins, dobbies, Jacquard machines, Jacquard harnesses, Jacquard cards, punching plates for Jacquard cards, wringing mills, multiple box sleys, solid border sleys, tape looms, swivel sleys, tape looms wool carding machines, wool spinning machines, hosiers' machinery, coir mat sheering machines, coir fibre willowing machines, head knitting machines, dobby cards, lattices and lags for dobby, wooden winders, silk looms; silk throwing and reeling machines, cotton yarn reeling machines, sizing machines, doubling machines, silk twisting machines; cone winding machines, plano card cutting machines, harness balling frames, card reeling frames, drawing and denting hooks, sewing thread bails in baling machines, combi finishing machinery, hank boilers, cotton carding and spinning machines, mail oves lingoes, comb boards and comb board frames, take-up motions, temples, and pickers, picking bands, picking sticks, printing machines, roller cloth, clearer cloth, spring flannel, and roller skins	Revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	Printing and Lithographic Material, namely, presses, lithographic plates, composing sticks, chase, imposing tables, lithographic stones, stereo-blocks wood blocks, half-tone blocks, electrotypes blocks, process blocks and highly polished copper or zinc sheets specially prepared					

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	<div> <div> <div>Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of</div> <div>The United Kingdom</div> </div> <div> <div>A British Colony</div> </div> </div>	Duration of protective rate of duty
72 (3)	<p>SECTION XVI—<i>contd</i></p> <p>Machinery and Apparatus; Electrical Material—<i>contd</i></p> <p>for making process blocks, roller moulds, roller frames and stocks, roller composition, lithographic map rollers, standing screw and hot presses, perforating machines, gold blocking presses, galley presses, proof presses, arming presses, copper plate printing presses, rolling presses, ruling machines, ruling pen making machines, lead cutters, rule cutters, slug cutters, type casting machines, type setting and casting machines, paper in rolls with side perforations to be used after further perforation for type-casting, rule bending machines, rule mitering machines, bronzing machines, stereotyping apparatus, paper folding machines, paging machines but excluding ink and paper</p> <p>Component parts of Machinery as defined in Items Nos 72, 72(1) and 72(2), namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of the machine or apparatus and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose</p> <p>Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the machine to which they belong if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable</p>	Revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XVI— <i>contd.</i>						
Machinery and Apparatus: Electrical						
Material— <i>contd.</i>						
72 (4)	PASSAPARTS, TAPES and component parts and accessories thereon	Revenue.	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .			
72 (5)	DOUSTING REFRIGERATORS	Preferential Revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
72 (6)	MACHINERY and component parts thereof reaping machines or parts of machines to be worked by manual or animal labour, not otherwise specified, and any machines (except such as are designed to be used exclusively in industrial processes) which require for their operation less than one quarter of one horse-horse-power	Preferential Revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
72 (7)	WATERMILLS, sugar-mills, sugar centrifuges, sugar pug mills, oil-presses, and parts thereof, when constructed so that they can be worked by manual or animal power and power for rolling sugar cane juice	..	Free			
72 (8)	The following AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY, namely, winnowers, threshers, mowing and reaping machines, blading machines, elevators, seed and corn crushers, chaff-cutters, root-cutters, engine-cutters, horse and bullock gear, ploughs, cultivators, harrows, harrows, chod-crushers, seed-drills, hay tedders, hay presses, potato-diggers, late, mounds, spraying machines, powder blowers, whitto and exterminating machines, beet hullers, broadcast seeders, corn pickers, corn shellers, culti-packers, drag scrapers, stalk cutters, huskers and shuckers, potato planters, lime sowers, Manure spreaders,	..	Free			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff.—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
72 (8)— <i>contd</i>	SECTION XVI.— <i>contd</i> Machinery and Apparatus, Electrical Material.— <i>contd</i> listers, soil graders, and rakes, also agricultural tractors, also component parts of these implements, machines or tractors, provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the implements, machines or tractors for which they are imported, and that they cannot ordinarily be used for purposes unconnected with agriculture *		Free			
72 (9)	The following Dairy and Poultry Farming appliances, namely, cream separators, milking machines, milk sterilizing or pasteurizing plant, milk aerating and cooling apparatus, churns, butter dryers, butter workers, milkbottle fillers and cappers, apparatus specially designed for testing milk and other dairy produce, and incubators, also component parts of these appliances, provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the appliances for which they are imported, and that they cannot ordinarily be used for other than dairy and poultry farming purposes	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
73	ELECTRICAL INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances, not otherwise specified, excluding telegraphic and telephonic					

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, the following agricultural machines and implements, namely, flame throwers for attachment to spraying machines designed for the extermination of locusts, and latex cups are exempt from payment of import duty.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff.—*contd*

Item No	Name of article.	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce of manufacture of The United Kingdom A British Colony	Duration of protective rates or duty
73 (1)	SECTION XVI.—<i>contd</i> Machinery and Apparatus Electrical Material.—<i>contd</i> The following ELECTRICAL INSTRUMENTS, APPARATUS and Appliances, namely— Electrical Control Gear and Transmission Gear, namely, switches (excluding switchboards), fuses and current-breaking devices of all sorts and descriptions, designed for use in circuits of less than ten amperes and at a pressure not exceeding 250 volts and regulators for use with motors designed to consume less than 187 watts, bare or insulated copper wires and cables, any one core of which, not being one specially designed as a pilot core, has a sectional area of less than one-eighth of a square inch and wires and cables of other metals of not more than equivalent conductivity, and line insulators, including also electric connectors, leading in tubes and the like, of types and sizes such as are ordinarily used in connection with the transmission of power for other than industrial purposes, and the fittings thereof but excluding electrical earthenware and porcelain, otherwise specified	Preferential 30 per cent ad valorem revenue	30 per cent ad valorem	20 per cent ad valorem	..
73 (2)	The following ELECTRICAL INSTRUMENTS, APPARATUS and Appliances, namely, telegraphic and telephone instruments, apparatus and appliances not otherwise specified, flash lights, carbons, condensers, and bell apparatus and switchboards designed for use in circuits of	Revenue	2½ per cent ad valorem

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce of manufacture of— The United Kingdom A British Colony	Duration of protective Rates of duty
SECTION XVI—<i>contd</i>					
73 (2)— <i>contd</i>	Machinery and Apparatus. Electrical Material—<i>contd</i>				
73 (3)	less than ten amperes and at a pressure not exceeding 250 volts *†	Revenue	15½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
73 (4)	TELEGRAPHIC INSTRUMENTS and Apparatus and parts thereof imported by, or under the orders of, a Railway Administration WIRELESS RECEPTION INSTRUMENTS and Apparatus and component parts thereof, including all electric valves, amplifiers and loud speakers which are not specially designed for purposes other than wireless reception or are not original parts of and imported along with instruments or apparatus so designed *	Preferential revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

* Under Government of India Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, the following wireless apparatus is liable to duty at 2½ per cent *ad valorem*—
(a) apparatus for wireless reception (excluding apparatus specially designed for the reception of broadcast wireless and apparatus of the description specified in clause (b)) and component parts of such apparatus, when imported under cover of a certificate issued by the Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs to the effect that he is satisfied that the apparatus will not be used for the reception of broadcast wireless,

(a) apparatus for wireless reception incorporated in a single unit with transmitting apparatus,
(b) wireless transmission apparatus and component parts thereof
Provided that nothing shall be deemed to be a component part of apparatus for wireless telegraphy or telephony for the purpose of this exemption unless it is essential for the working of such apparatus and has been given for that purpose some special shape or quality that would not be essential for its use for any other purpose

† Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, telegraphic instruments and apparatus and parts thereof imported for supply from bond for use of a Railway Administration are liable to duty at 15½ per cent *ad valorem*, provided that, (a) at the time of delivering the bill-of-entry for warehousing a declaration is made thereon by the importer to the effect that the goods have been imported for supply from bond for the use of a Railway Administration, and (b) a certificate from an Officer of the Railway Administration, duly empowered in that behalf by the Agent, is produced along with the application for clearance out of bond that the goods in question are not merely guaranteed stock, but will be definitely appropriated for the use of such Railway on clearance from bond.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
72 (5)— <i>contd.</i>	SECTION XVI— <i>contd.</i> Machinery and Apparatus, Electrical Material— <i>contd.</i> (12) not fitted	Proportional revenue.	30 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> or 4½ times per dozen, whichever is higher	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		March 31-6, 1911
73 (6)	RUBBER-INSULATED COPPER WIRE AND CABLES, no core of which, other than one specially designed as a pilot core, has a sectional area of less than one-eighth of an inch, whether made with any additional insulating or covering material or not	Revenue	0½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
74	SECTION XVII. Transport Material COIL TRUS, tipping wagons and the like conveyances designed for use on light rail track, if adapted to be worked by manual or animal labour and if made mainly of iron or steel, and component parts thereof made of iron or steel— (a) of British manufacture	Protective	1½ times the <i>ad valorem</i> duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India,* or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher			

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India 1½ lbs. 1 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of	Duration of protective rates of duty
SECTION XVII— <i>contd</i>					
Transport Material— <i>contd</i>					
74 <i>contd</i>	(b) not of British Manufacture	Protective	13 times the value of duty leviable for the time being on steel ingots produced in British India, <i>per cent</i> Rs. 10 per ton or 20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher	The United Kingdom	March 31-3, 1911
74 (1)	TRUCKS and component parts and accessories thereof	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
74 (2)	RAILWAY materials for permanent way and rolling stock, namely, sleepers, other timbers of iron and steel, and fittings therefor, including plates, chairs, interlocking apparatus, brake-gear, shunting slides, couplings and springs, signals, turn-tables, wedge bridges, carriages, wagons, traversers, rail removers, scooters, trolleys, trucks, also cranes, litter-canes and water-tanks when imported by or under the orders of a railway administration	Revenue	15 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
Provided that for the purpose of this entry 'railway' means a line of railway subject to the provisions of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, and includes a railway constructed in a State in India and also such tramways as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, specially include therein.					

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1915 and until further notice, on all steel ingots produced in British India is Rs. 4 per ton

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
74 (2)— <i>contd</i>	<p>SECTION XVII—<i>contd</i></p> <p>Transport Material—<i>contd</i></p> <p>Provided also that articles of machinery as defined in Item No 72 or No 72(3) shall not be deemed to be included hereunder</p> <p>Component parts of Railway Materials, as defined in Item No 74(2), namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of railways and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose</p> <p>Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the railway material to which they belong if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable</p>	Revenue	15½ per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			...
74 (3)		Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
75		Revenue	37½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>
75 (1)	<p>MOTOR CARS including taxi cabs and articles (other than rubber tyres and tubes) adapted for use as parts and accessories thereof, provided that such articles as are ordinarily also used for other purposes than as parts and accessories of motor vehicles included in this item or in Items Nos 75(2) and 75(3) shall be dutiable at the rate of duty specified for such articles</p>	Preferential revenue				

SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No.	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty in the article is the produce or manufacture of	Duration of preferential rate of duty.
SECTION XVII—<i>contd.</i>					
Transport Material—<i>contd.</i>					
75 (2)	MOTOR CYCLES and motor scooters and articles (other than rubber tyres and tubes) adapted for use as parts and accessories thereof (except such articles as are also adapted for use as parts and accessories of motor cars)	Revenue	17½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	Fla. 1 and Kingdom	A British colony
75 (3)	MOTOR OMNIBUSES, chassis of motor omnibuses, motor vans and motor lorries, and parts or mechanically propelled vehicles and accessories not otherwise specified excluding rubber tyres and tubes and such parts and accessories of motor vehicles included in this item as are also adapted for use as parts and accessories of motor cars	Preferential revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	17½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
75 (4)	CARRIAGES and carts which are not mechanically propelled not otherwise specified, and cycles (other than motor cycles) imported entire or in sections and parts and accessories thereof, excluding rubber tyres and tubes	Preferential revenue	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	
76	AIRCRAFT, aeroplane parts, aeroplane engines, acroplane engine parts and rubber tyres and tubes and exclusively for aeroplanes	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
70 (1)	SHIPS and other vessels for inland and harbour navigation, including steamers, launches, boats and barges imported entire or in sections	Revenue	17½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenue) Notification No. 14, dated the 14th April 1912, as amended subsequently, wheels of motor cars fitted with pneumatic tyres and tubes respectively designed for use on motor cars, including such wheels fitted with pneumatic tyres and tubes, are liable to duty at the rate of 17½ per cent *ad valorem* when they are liable to a preferential rate of duty.

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protection of article of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British colony.	
	SECTION XVII—<i>concl</i> Transport Material—<i>concl</i> Provided that articles of machinery as defined in Item No 72 or No 72(3) shall, when separately imported, not be deemed to be included hereunder					
76 (2)	LIGHT SHIPS		Free			
76 (3)	FURNITURE TACKLE AND APPAREL, not otherwise described, for steam-sailing, rowing and other vessels	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	SECTION XVIII Scientific and precision instruments and apparatus, Watch-makers' and clockmakers' wares, Musical instruments					
77	INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances other than electrical, all sorts not otherwise specified, including photographic, scientific, philosophical and surgical *	Preferential revenue	30 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	20 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
77 (1)	INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances, imported by a passenger as part of his personal baggage and in actual use, by him in the exercise of his profession or calling	..	Free			
77 (2)	OPTICAL INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
78	CLOCKS AND WATCHES and parts thereof	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
79	MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS and parts thereof, all sorts not otherwise specified	Preferential revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	40 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, photo-litho films are liable to duty at 10 per cent *ad valorem*

Item No.

Item No	Name of article.	Nature of duty.	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony.	
80 (2)	SECTION XIX— <i>contd</i> Arms and Ammunition— <i>contd</i>					
	SUBJECT to the exemptions specified in Item No 80 (3)—					
	(a) Barrels, whether single or double for firearms, including gas and air guns, gas and air rifles, and gas and air pistols, not otherwise specified	Revenue	Rs 18-12 each			
	(b) Main springs and magazine springs for firearms, including gas guns, gas rifles and gas pistols.	Revenue	Rs 6-4 each			
	(c) Gun stocks and breech blocks	Revenue	Rs 7-12 each			
	(d) Revolver cyinders, for each cartridge they will carry	Revenue	Rs 2-8 each			
	(e) Actions (including skeleton and waster), breech bolts and their heads, cocking pieces, and locks for muzzle loading arms	Revenue	Rs 1-4 each			
80 (3)	(f) Machines for making, loading, or closing cartridges for rifled arms	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	(g) Machines for capping cartridges for rifled arms	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
	The following ARMS, AMMUNITIONS and Military Stores —					
	(a) Arms forming part of the regular equipment of a commissioned or gazetted officer in His Majesty's Service entitled to wear diplomatic, military, naval, Royal Air Force or police uniform		or 37½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher, plus 12½ per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom	A British Colony	
SECTION XIX— <i>contd</i>						
Arms and Ammunition— <i>contd</i>						
80 (3)	The following ARMS AND AMMUNITION— <i>contd</i> (c) Morris tubes and patent ammunition imported by officers commanding British and Indian regiments or volunteer corps for the instruction of their men *	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			
80 (4)	ORNAMENTAL ARMS of an obsolete pattern possessing only an antiquarian value, masonic and theatrical and fancy dress swords, provided they are virtually useless for offensive or defensive purposes, and <i>dolks</i> intended exclusively for domestic, agricultural and industrial purposes.	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>		
81	CARTRIDGE CASES, filled and empty	Preferential revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			...
SECTION XX.						
Miscellaneous Goods and products not elsewhere included.						
82	CORAL, prepared	Revenue	25 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>		
82 (1)	IVORY, manufactured, not otherwise specified	Revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>			...
82 (2)	BANGLES AND BEADS, not otherwise specified	Revenue	50 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i>			

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 11, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, 22 inch Adapters and aim teachers imported by officers commanding a unit of the Army in India for the instruction of their men are also exempt from payment of import duty

THE FIRST SCHEDULE.—Import Tariff—*contd.*

Item No	Name of article	Nature of duty	Standard rate of duty	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of:		Duration of protective rates of duty
				The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.	
85 (1)	SECTION XX.— <i>contd.</i> Miscellaneous Goods and products not elsewhere included.— <i>contd.</i> SMOKERS' requisites excluding tobacco and matches Provided that mechanical lighters as defined in the Mechanical Lighters (Excise Duty) Act, 1934, shall be liable in addition to a duty equal to the amount of the excise duty imposed by that Act, on mechanical lighters manufactured in British India *	Preferential revenue	50 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .	.	.
86	SECTION XXI. Works of Art and Articles for collections PRINTS, Engravings and Pictures (including photographs and picture post cards), not otherwise specified †	Revenue	50 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.	.
86 (1)	ART, works of, not otherwise specified	Revenue	25 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.	.
86 (2)	ART, the following works of —(1) statutory and pictures intended to be put up for the public benefit in a public place, and (2) memorials of a public character intended to be put up in a public place, including the materials used, or to be used in their construction, whether worked or not SPECIMENS, Models and Wall Diagrams illustrative of natural science, and medals and antique coins †	.	Free	.	.	.
86 (3)	POSTAGE STAMPS, whether used or unused	.	Free	.	.	.
86 (4)	ALL OTHER ARTICLES not otherwise specified, including articles imported by post. ‡	Revenue	25 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>	.	.	.

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1935, and until further notice is Re. 1-8 per lighter

† Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 11, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, wall pictures and diagrams such as are ordinarily used for instructional purposes are exempt from payment of import duty

‡ Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenues), Notification No 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended subsequently, unmanufactured mica and wreaths imported for being placed on graves are exempt from payment of import duty and stereo-long is liable to duty at 10 per cent *ad valorem*.

Finance.

The gradual evolution of the present financial organisation of India is in many respects a reflection of her constitutional development. Those who take a broad view of the history of Federal States—and by whatever name it may be called India must in its political structure be a Federal State—nothing is more impressive than the ebb and flow in what may be called the adjustment of Federal and State rights. There is a constant mutation in the powers of the central government and the federal components, though in India we use the terms "Government of India" and "Provincial Governments" to describe them. In the earliest days of British rule, the Provinces, and especially the older Presidencies, were for all practical purposes independent of the central government and responsible only to the authority sitting in London. After the middle of the nineteenth century the process was reversed, and the Government of India was all-powerful, controlling the Provinces down to the smallest items of their expenditure. This centralisation reached its highest point during the long Viceroyalty of Lord Curzon, who was so jealous of his supreme authority that he sought to deprive the Presidency Governors of their right to correspond direct with the Secretary of State for India. This system was found top-heavy in the days of his successors, and a continuous process of devolution set in. In the matter of finance the measures took the form of long-term "contracts" with the Provincial Governments, and later in the assignment of definite heads of revenue to the Provincial Governments, thus removing the dual authority and responsibility which had clogged progress. A much clearer cut was made when the great reform scheme embodied in the Government of India Act of 1919 was passed. Here, for all practical reasons, Provincial finance was entirely separated from the finances of the Government of India, and with one reservation the Local Governments were made masters in their own financial houses. The reservation arose from the circumstance that the funds of the Government of India did not then permit them to do entirely without contributions from the Provinces. These contributions were fixed in the shape of definite sums, which the Provincial Governments had to find from their own resources and pay to the Government of India in cash. They varied between Provinces and Provinces, on a scale which at first sight seemed inequitable, but which had a definite logical basis. The total of these contributions was a little less than ten crores of rupees. This was admittedly a temporary expedient, to last only so long as was necessary for the Government of India to reduce its post-war expenditure and develop its revenues to the point when they would balance without drawing from the Provinces. They were an open sore, each Province claiming that it paid an undue proportion of the total contribution, and that it was starved in consequence. There was no possibility of adjusting these differences, so the contributions were reduced as fast as the finances of the Government of India permitted. They finally disappeared from the Budget in 1928-29.

But this did not end the discussion. Indeed it was only the first phase. A large issue remains, and despite the extinction of the Provincial contributions the finances of some of the Provinces are in an unsatisfactory state. Broadly the issue may be put in this way. The Government of India has taken the growing heads of revenue those which issue from taxes on income and customs. The Provinces are left with resources which are either almost static, like land revenue, or which are actually declining, as with excise where steps are being taken to reduce the consumption of alcoholic liquor in response to the strong Indian sentiment towards prohibition. At the same time the Provinces are confronted with the great growing sources of expenditure, like those on education and sanitation which bulk largely in Provincial budgets. The burden is heaviest in the industrial provinces, such as Bombay and Bengal. The standard of living is high, wages and costs are a good deal above those of the agricultural provinces. This means an expensive administration. On the other hand the industrial progress which induces this costlier administration pours all its taxable product into the coffers of the Government of India. Rules made to give Bombay and Bengal some share in the Income Tax receipts have been inoperative in practice. Whilst therefore relief is felt at the abolition of the Provincial Contributions under the 1919 settlement, it is felt that this does not go far enough, and there is still this pressure for some share in the revenues from the taxes on income which, it is believed, alone can put the industrial Provinces on a satisfactory basis.

A Review.

The financial organisation was, of course, reviewed as part of the work of the Round Table Conference. A sub-committee of the Federal Structure Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Lord Peel to examine the question of federal finance and the principles embodied in the sub-committee's report were endorsed by the parent Committee as a suitable basis. A Federal Finance Committee with Lord Eustace Percy as Chairman was appointed at the end of 1931 to subject to the test of figures, the suggested classification of revenues by the Peel Committee and to estimate the probable financial position of the Federal and of the Provincial Governments under the proposed scheme. In the course of their report the Federal Finance Committee said that the transfer to the Provinces of taxes on income though defensible in principle would leave the Centre in deficit. Therefore the Peel Committee suggested a method of transferring to each Province a percentage of the share of income tax estimated to be attributable to it. But in view of the incomplete data on which the estimates were made a special review is said to be necessary at the time federation is established in order to fix the initial percentages. A strict allocation on a percentage basis would still leave some Provinces in deficit and so as to right their finances the committee suggested spreading the charge over the other Provinces by giving them back less in income tax than they were entitled to.

Regarding possible new sources of revenue, Federal or Provincial, the Federal Finance Committee reported as follows:—

Federal.

Excise on Tobacco—The present position in regard to this tax appears to be that a substantial revenue may be expected from a system of vend licences and fees, but that an excise duty imposed in the near future could not be relied on to yield a substantial revenue. There is general agreement that such a duty could not be imposed on the cultivator, and it is doubtful whether a duty on the manufactured product could be successful while manufacture continues to be so largely carried on in small establishments and even as a domestic industry. Vend licences and fees can obviously be imposed only by the Governments of the Units, and their imposition by the Provincial Governments is now being encouraged by the Government of India. The difficulties in the way of a federal excise may be overcome in course of time, but it would be unsafe for us to rely on this in the near future.

Excise on Matches—The imposition of an excise duty on matches is already under active consideration, and we feel justified in contemplating the existence of such a duty from the outset of federation. We are advised that the probable net yield of the tax for all-India at a reasonable rate, with due allowance for reduced consumption, would be about 3 crores, of which at least 2.50 crores would be raised in British India.

Other Excises—It is possible that other excise duties may occupy an important place in the fiscal Policy of India in the future, but we do not feel warranted in relying upon the introduction of such measures in the early years of federation.

Monopolies—We have examined the suggestion, made at the Round Table Conference, that federal revenues should be augmented by a few selected monopolies. From the fiscal point of view it is only in very special circumstances that a monopoly, whether of production, manufacture or sale, is to be preferred to an excise duty as a means of raising revenue. Except in so far as the proposals already noticed in regard to tobacco may be regarded as a monopoly, we can suggest no new commodity to which the monopoly method could be applied with advantage. The manufacture of arms and explosives, which has been suggested as a possible monopoly, is already subject to license. Public utility monopolies stand on rather a different footing, but the only new federal monopoly of this kind that has been suggested to us is broadcasting, the revenue from which must be entirely problematical.

Commercial Stamps—In the Peel Report it was observed that "There is much to be said for federalising Commercial Stamps on the lines of various proposals made in the past," but no definite recommendation was made. We have examined this suggestion, but on the whole we cannot recommend it, at least as an immediate measure.

The yield of certain stamp duties which might be placed in this category was, in 1930-31, slightly more than one crore. This was a

sub-normal year, and the normal yield should be somewhat higher. In 1930-31 about 40 per cent of the yield was received by Bombay (one-eighth of this being attributable to Sind), 27 per cent by Bengal and 12 per cent by Madras. The loss of revenue resulting from the federalisation of these duties would therefore be unevenly distributed, and their federalisation would not ease the problem of distributing income-tax.

Further, there are obvious difficulties in the way of separating stamp duties into two classes, commercial and non-commercial. It could only be done by means of a schedule, and a large element of purely arbitrary selection would be involved. The simple constitutional solution would be to class all stamp duties as provincial sources of revenue.

We have given some attention to the question considered by the Federal Structure Committee whether the Provincial Governments should be given power also to fix the rates of duty on all stamps, or whether legislation on this subject should be reserved, wholly or partially, to the Federal Government. We suggest that the Federal Government should retain the power to legislate on behalf of the Provinces in regard to those stamp duties which are the subject of legislation by the Central Government at the date of federation. The duties which are now the subject of central legislation are those on acknowledgments, bills of exchange, share certificates, cheques (not now datable), delivery orders in respect of goods, letters of allotment of shares, letters of credit, insurance policies, promissory notes, proxies, receipts and shipping orders. We understand that proposals have been under consideration for adding other duties to this list, and would suggest that, if any such additions are contemplated, that should be made before the establishment of the Federation.

We ought to add, in this connection, that difficulties already arise in estimating the share of each Province in the proceeds from the sale of postage stamps for use on taxed documents, and these difficulties may be expected to lead to considerable friction with the Provincial Governments unless a more satisfactory system can be devised.

Finally, in proposing that the proceeds of commercial stamps should be assigned to the Units, we have to some extent been influenced by a doubt whether the problems arising from the imposition of federal stamp duties in the States might not be disproportionate to the revenue involved. We do not, however, wish to prejudice the possibility that, as part of the general federation settlement with the States, it might be found desirable to include these duties among the sources of federal revenue. This consideration might well outweigh the reasons which have led us to recommend that commercial stamps should not be made a source of federal revenue.

Corporation Tax—From the financial point of view, it seems clear that, if a corporation tax were imposed on companies registered in the States on the same basis as the present super-tax on companies in British India, the yield at present would be negligible.

Provincial

Taxation of Tobacco—We have already dealt briefly with this question and have suggested that the taxation of tobacco, otherwise than by excise on production or manufacture, should rest with the Units, but that the Federal Government should be given the right to impose a general federal excise. This distinction is, we think, justified by the fact that *ex hypothesi* the introduction of excise duties on manufacture will be difficult, if not impossible, until manufacture becomes more highly industrialised, and as that development takes place an excise levied at the factory by one Unit of the Federation would be a tax on consumers in other Units. It will be seen from our later proposals in regard to powers of taxation that the federalisation of tobacco excise would not preclude the Federal Government from assigning the proceeds to the Units, if it so desired.

There is, unfortunately, no material which would enable us to estimate the yield of any of these forms of taxation. The provincial taxes will take some time to mature, but eventually they may be expected to form at least a very useful additional source of provincial revenue.

Succession Duties—Bombay is, we believe, the only Provincial Government which has attempted legislation for the imposition of succession duties, and the attempt was unsuccessful. We understand that even that Government would have preferred that legislation should have been undertaken by the Government of India. We propose elsewhere that succession duties should be classed among taxes leviable by the Federal Government for the benefit of the Units, but clearly the facts would not justify reliance on them as a source of revenue in the near future.

Terminal Taxes—We have been asked to weigh the issues which arise from the proposal to introduce terminal taxes generally as an additional source of revenue for the Provinces. As the arguments for and against this proposal have been so fully set forth in previous reports, it scarcely seems necessary to re-state them here. The feature of such taxation which has impressed us most seriously is its operation as, in effect, a surcharge on railway freights. Where municipal octrois are in force, there appears to be a tendency to substitute for the general levy of dues on all goods entering the municipal boundaries the simpler alternative of a terminal tax collected at the railway station, and there is already a danger that this habit may result in diversion of traffic to the roads. We therefore recommend that, if terminal taxes are to be regarded as a permanent part of the financial structure, they should be imposed by the Federal Legislature for the benefit of the Units. Such terminal taxes as are already in existence (mainly as municipal taxes) will fall into much the same category as other taxes classed as federal which, at the time of federation, are being levied by certain Units, but though it may be necessary for this reason to authorise the municipalities and Provinces concerned to continue to raise these taxes, they should be allowed to do so only within limits laid down by the Federal Legislature. Assam and Bihar

and Orissa are the two Provinces which, having few or no municipal taxes of the kind at present, are most desirous of deriving provincial revenue from this source. While we do not rule out the possibility of terminal taxes in these two Provinces and elsewhere as a temporary expedient, in view of the practice which has grown up in various parts of India, we are not prepared to regard terminal taxes as a normal source of revenue.

Taxation of Agricultural Incomes—We have not considered the broad issues of policy involved in the taxation of agricultural incomes, but we have considered, as we were commissioned to do, the more limited question of "the possibility of empowering individual Provinces, if they so desire, to raise, or appropriate the proceeds of a tax on agricultural incomes." In view of the close connection between this subject and land revenue, we agree that the right to impose such taxation should rest with the Provinces. For the same reason, we think that this right should be restricted to the taxation of income originating in the Province concerned. There will presumably be no difficulty in drafting into the constitution a definition of agricultural income which has so long been recognised in Indian income-tax law and practice.

We are not prepared to express a final opinion as to whether agricultural and non-agricultural income should be aggregated for the purpose of determining the right of the assessee to exemption and the rate of taxation to which he is liable on either section of his income; and we doubt whether any provision need be inserted in the constitution on this point since we are advised that, in practice, it would scarcely be possible for either the Federal or a Provincial Government to take into consideration income not liable to taxation by it, except with the consent and co-operation of the other Government.

We are aware of no reliable data for estimating the yield of such taxation.

Conclusion—In this survey of possible sources of additional revenue, we have deliberately left out of account the question whether or to what extent it would be possible to increase the yield of existing taxes. We have confined ourselves to an examination of new sources, and in this field the results of our survey are not encouraging. We have found that such provincial taxes as appear to be within the sphere of practical politics in the immediate future cannot be relied on to yield any substantial early additions to provincial revenues. In using the phrase "practical politics," we are not, of course, expressing an opinion as to whether this or that tax ought or ought not to be imposed, or even as to whether it is or is not likely to be imposed by the legislatures of autonomous Provinces when these are constituted. We are only noting the fact that the opposition to certain forms of taxation, or the difficulty of their imposition, is still so great that they are not likely to be adopted soon enough to influence the financial situation at the time when the Federation comes into being. In the federal sphere, the excise on matches is the only tax which we feel justified in taking into account as an immediate reinforcement of federal revenues.

Railway Finance—The year 1921-25 was marked by a step of great importance in the better organisation of Indian finance. As is explained in detail under the section Railways (g.r.) the Government of India is a great railway owner. It owns and operates itself a very large proportion of the railway system through what are called State Railways. It is the principal shareholder in other lines which are leased to Companies which operate them. Prior to the year in question, the railway finances were incorporated in the general finances of the country. The effects of this were unfortunate. As the finances of a State are not managed on commercial principles. Then the annual allotments to railway expenditure were not determined by the needs of the railways themselves, but by the amount at the disposal of the Government of India. The evil effects of this policy were forcibly exposed in the report of a strong committee of investigation, usually called after the name of its chairman, the Acworth Committee, which recommended the entire separation of the Railway Budget from the general finances. Some delay incurred in giving

effect to this recommendation, but it was carried out in the year 1921-25. The bases of the settlement were complete separation of finance; a definite annual contribution from the railway revenues to the general revenues; and the creation of a Standing Finance Committee of the Legislative Assembly to review estimation of railway expenditure before they are placed before the Assembly. The railway contribution was settled on the basis of one per cent. on the capital at charge, plus one-fifth of the surplus profits; further, if after the payment of the contributions so fixed the amount available for transfer to Railway Reserves exceeds the sum of Rs. 3 crores, one-third of the excess should be paid to the General Revenues. The effects of this change are expected to yield to the General Revenues a fixed contribution from the railway property instead of a varying figure destructive of accurate budgeting, and to give to the railways the management of their operation and secure management and development on commercial principles.

In the past few years, owing to the economic depression, the railways have been unable to make the contribution to general revenues.

I RECENT INDIAN FINANCE.

The year 1924 marked a distinct and very important stage in the finances of India. Those who have studied the history of Indian finance will remember the general trend of the country's balance sheet. Up to the outbreak of the war it was a record of very careful finance, with a general surplus of revenue over expenditure, all such surpluses, save when they were in the nature of "windfalls" going to the avoidance of debt. Throughout the war the finances were carefully handled and with certain moderate increases in taxation the accounts were made to balance. But commencing in 1919 a lamentable change came over the situation. The wanton invasion of India by Afghanistan meant a war which cost the exchequer directly some 34 crores of rupees. Nor was this all. Whilst the military resistance of Afghanistan to the Indian forces was contemptible, and Kabul lay open to easy seizure if it had been thought worth while to occupy it, the effect of this attack was to set a large part of the North-West Frontier ablaze and to thrust on the Government of India a series of costly expeditions. When these were completed, there remained the necessity of establishing a new Frontier system to take the place of that which collapsed in 1919. This especially in the notoriously troublesome country of Waziristan, (i.e. Frontier) involved the occupation of certain dominating peaks and of connecting them with each other and with the advanced military stations of India by a series of very expensive roads. This abnormal expenditure disturbed the financial equilibrium of the whole country. Nor is it possible to acquit the Finance Department of the Government of India in the difficult pre-war period of a relaxation of that close control of expenditure which in previous years had balanced the accounts even in the face of famine and plague. The result was that the accumulated deficits of the Government of India reached the very high figure of Rs. 100 crores. This led to two

Retrenchment and Taxation.—Owing to the insistent demand for retrenchment the Government of India appointed in 1922 a retrenchment committee, on the model of the Geddes Committee which overhauled the extravagant post-war expenditure of the British Government. This committee is generally called after its chairman, the Indicaque Committee. It sat in 1923, and presented a report which recommended reductions in expenditure which amounted in the aggregate to Rs. 18 crores.

Financial equilibrium was established and a surplus realised in the Budget of 1923-24.

Statement comparing the actual Revenue and Expenditure of the Central Government since 1921-22.

In lakhs of Rupees.			
Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	(Surplus +) or (Deficit -)
1921-22	1,15,21	1,22,49	-27,65
1922-23	1,21,41	1,31,28	-19,82
1923-24	1,32,17	1,27,16	+5,00
1924-25	1,38,04	1,22,53	+15,51
1925-26	1,39,23	1,27,97	+11,26
1926-27	1,31,70	1,22,77	+9,93
1927-28	1,25,04	1,22,22	+2,82
1928-29	1,22,24	1,22,22	0
1929-30	1,22,77	1,22,22	+5,55
1930-31	1,24,60	1,20,01	+4,59
1931-32	1,21,64	1,20,70	+9,94
1932-33	1,26,49	1,32,61	-6,12
1933-34	1,27,37	1,15,77	+11,60
1934-35	1,22,72	1,15,19	+7,53
(Revised)			
1921-22	1,21,67	1,15,61	+6,06
(Revised)			

(a) These figures relate to the period from 1921-22 to 1934-35.

(b) These figures relate to the period from 1921-22 to 1934-35.

II. THE PRESENT FINANCIAL POSITION.

India, in common with other countries of the world, felt the full force of the economic blizzard which began in 1930 and attained its maximum the following year. The net result from the Government of India's point of view was the introduction during 1931 of two Budgets, the ordinary Budget in the spring of the year and a supplementary Budget containing fresh taxation proposals in September. When Sir George Sclater-Boyle faced the Legislative Assembly at the end of February, he had a sorry tale to tell. Trade depression, coupled with civil disobedience movement, had completely vitiated the estimates made for 1930-31. These estimates showed a surplus of Rs. 80 lakhs; the revised estimates worked up a deficit of Rs. 13.50 crores, which the Finance Member said would remain uncovered and would be added to the unproductive debt. The main items of deterioration as compared with the Budget can be summarised as follows:—

Important revenue heads, viz.,	Lakhs.
Customs, Taxes on Income, Salt and Opium (net)	12.10
Posts and Telegraphs (including the Indo-European Telegraph Department)	80
Finance headings, viz., Debt services, Currency and Mint	1.38
Other heads	5
Total Rs.	14.42

Turning to the estimates for 1931-32, the Finance Member said they must face a fall in tax revenue, as compared with the current Budget estimates, of no less than Rs. 13.10 crores, including a drop of Rs. 8 crores in Customs and 4½ crores in Income tax. The total deterioration under Finance headings was Rs. 370 lakhs and on commercial departments Rs. 118 lakhs. This meant a total deterioration of Rs. 18.10 crores as compared with the Budget estimates for the current year, and as those provided for a surplus of Rs. 80 lakhs the net deficit would be Rs. 17.24 crores. To meet this deficit the Finance Member announced a cut of Rs. 175 lakhs in army expenditure and retrenchment to the extent of Rs. 98 lakhs in civil expenditure, making a total saving of Rs. 273 lakhs. The estimated deficit was reduced thereby to Rs. 14.51 crores, which he proposed to cover by fresh taxation

measures) will be raised by between 30 and 40 per cent. The duty on silver bullion I propose to increase from 4 to 6 annas per ounce. The other items mentioned will be transferred from the general rate of duty (now 15 per cent *ad valorem*) to the "luxury" rate at 30 per cent. Of the surcharges, we have at a stroke added to the 10 per cent schedule a surcharge of 2½ per cent, to the general or 15 per cent schedule one of 5 per cent, and to the "luxury" or 30 per cent schedule one of 10 per cent. By far the most important of these surcharges is that 5 per cent on the general revenue schedule of 15 per cent, and connected with this, I must mention a feature of particular importance. We propose for this purpose to treat the basic duty of 15 per cent on cotton piece-goods on the same lines as the general 15 per cent schedule and to place the surcharge of 5 per cent on these goods also. The surcharge on the 15 per cent schedule is expected to yield 90 lakhs for cotton piece-goods and 2.63 lakhs for other goods. Coming now to the schedule of non-protective special duties, here we have made additions appropriate to the general scheme, and I need only mention specially the surcharges that I propose to levy upon kerosene and motor spirit. Both customs and excise duty on kerosene are to be raised by 9 pias per gallon, while motor spirit is to bear a surcharge of 2 annas per gallon. Finally, I must explain my proposals as regards sugar. The position is special, because, while I am now proposing an increase in the duty for revenue purposes, we had received, just when my budget proposals were on the point of completion, the recommendations of the Tariff Board for the protection of sugar. Summarised, the Board's recommendations are—(1) a basic duty of Rs. 6-4-0 per cwt on all classes of sugar, including sugar candy, to be imposed for 15 years, (2) an additional duty of Re. 1 per cwt on all classes of sugar to be imposed for the first 7 years, (3) power to be taken to add 8 annas per cwt to the duty at any time if the landed price of sugar at Calcutta ex-duty falls below Rs. 4 per maund, (4) no protective duty on molasses. My own proposals for revenue purposes had been very close to this, for I had actually contemplated an extra duty round about Re. 1 to Rs. 1-8-0 per cwt. What I have now included is an increase of Rs. 1-4-0 per cwt. on all grades of sugar. This, as I have said, must be regarded purely as a revenue measure pending consideration of the Tariff Board's recommendations. The combined effect of all these proposals as regards Custom duties will be to produce an additional revenue next year of 9.32 crores. We shall also obtain about 50 lakhs more from the increased import duties on galvanized pipes and sheets which the House discussed on 28th January last. This will raise the additional yield to 9.82 crores. Incidentally, the new duties, which will operate from 1st March, and the increased duties on galvanized pipes and sheets, which came into force on 30th December, will add to our revenue for the current year a sum estimated at 88 lakhs, thus reducing the current year's deficit to 12.68 crores."

New Taxation Proposals—His proposals were grouped under two heads, Customs and Income Tax. Referring to the first the Finance Member said: "The heads in respect of which I propose alterations of the substantive tariff itself, are liquors, sugar, silver bullion, betelnuts, spices and exposed cinematograph films. The liquor duties are to be enhanced appreciably, the duty on beer and the like is at present undoubtedly low relatively to those on other alcoholic beverages and will be raised by about 60 per cent above the present level, while those on wines and spirits (except denatured spirit and spirit used in drugs and

Increased Income Tax.—Dealing with his proposed new tax on incomes, the Finance Member said "The taxable minimum income for income-tax—Rs 2,000—will not be lowered. The rate of tax on the lowest zone up to Rs 4,999 will be raised by 4 pies. The rates on higher grades up to Rs 30,999 will be raised in some cases by 5 pies, in some cases by 6 pies, and in the highest of these grades by 7 pies. At present the highest rate is reached at Rs 40,000. It is now 19 pies. I propose a rate of 25 pies on incomes from Rs 40,000 to Rs 99,999, and a maximum rate of 26 pies on incomes of Rs 1 lakh and over. The estimated yield of these increases is 5,07 lakhs gross or, deducting 53 lakhs on account of increased refunds, 4,54 lakhs net. In addition to this, I propose certain changes as regards super-tax. At present all ~~residents~~ except Hindu undivided families are allowed a deduction of Rs. 50,000 in computing the income liable to super-tax. This will be lowered to Rs 30,000 except for Hindu undivided families and companies, which will be allowed, as at present, a deduction of Rs 75,000 and Rs 50,000 respectively. In the new zone,

Rs 30,001 to Rs 50,000 the super-tax rate will be 9 pies. Above Rs 50,000 the graduated scales will be increased by 2 pies throughout. The flat rate for companies will be 1 anna as at present. These changes will yield, it is estimated, 40 lakhs. Thus the total estimated additional net revenue from taxes on income will be 5 crores. Briefly they will add an extra charge of about 2 to 5 per cent on all incomes. The rates of additional tax have been so adjusted as to produce, in the final result, an evenly graduated scale of burden increasing as the income increases, and this object must be borne in mind in interpreting our proposals. The total yield from the proposed changes in Customs duties and taxes on income thus amounts to Rs 14.82 crores, as against which the gap to be filled is Rs 14.51 crores, so that I am left with a small surplus of Rs 31 lakhs.

Silver Duty.—Referring to silver, the Finance Member said the increase of two annas an ounce which we are proposing is estimated to produce 75 lakhs from the import duty and 7 lakhs from the excise or 82 lakhs in all.

WAYS AND MEANS.

The following is a summary of the estimates of ways and means in India during 1934-35 and 1935-36 —

(In crores of rupees)			
	Budget, 1934-35.	Revised, 1934-35	Budget, 1935-36
RECEIPTS.			
1. Excess of Revenue of the Central Government over Expenditure charged to Revenue.	35.87	31.08	32.29
2. Unfunded Debt incurred—			
(a) Post Office Cash Certificates (net) ..	5.50	2.78	2.75
(b) Post Office Savings Bank deposits (net)	6.00	7.10	8.75
(c) Other Savings Bank deposits (net) . .	6.99	5.87	6.42
3. Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	3.00	3.00	3.00
4. Railway and Posts and Telegraphs Depreciation Funds	— 35	1.49	2.08
5. Post Office Cash Certificate Bonus Fund	1.10	74	— .25
6. Miscellaneous Deposits and Remittances (net)	2.03	1.02	16.45
TOTAL RECEIPTS ..	55.78	55.67	69.57
DISBURSEMENTS.			
7. Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue—			
(a) State Railways	2.96	..	3.50
(b) Posts and Telegraphs	40	34	55
(c) Other items	1.29	1.42	6.23
8. Permanent Debt discharged (net)	13.24	32.95	27.61

(In crores of Rupees)

	Budget, 1931-36	Revised, 1931-36	Budget, 1935-36
9 Floating Debt discharged (net)	0.74	3 50
10. Loss on revaluation, sale transfer, etc., of assets of the Paper Currency Reserve (net)05	5.84	7.00
11. Loans by the Central Government—			
(a) To Provincial Loans Fund	6 00	1 00	10.25
(b) Other Loans	1.19	— .15	— .01
12. Remittances between England and India—			
(a) Remittance from India for financing Home Treasury	35 60	52 04	34 60
(b) Transfers through the Gold Standard Reserve and the Paper Currency Reserve	—17 87
(c) Sale of silver	3 87	4 00
(d) Other transactions (net)70	.90	.73
13. Balances of Provincial Governments . . .	—2 91	—2 91	—2 71
TOTAL DISBURSEMENTS	59.82	90 30	95 34
NET DISBURSEMENTS	3.04	34 63	25 77
New Loan	35 80	25 00
Reduction (+) or increase (—) of cash balance	43 04	—1.17	4 77
Opening Balance	13.44	11 80	13 06
Closing Balance	10.40	13.06	12.29

Reception by the Assembly—Strong opposition was manifested in the Assembly to the new income tax and super tax rates, and on the plea that Government's duty was to retrench expenditure still further, an amendment was passed reducing the proposed revenue from this source by Rs 240 lakhs. Government found themselves unable to accept this cut, and the Finance Bill was returned to the Assembly by the Governor-General with the recommen-

dation that it should be passed with an amendment to the Finance Member's original scheme involving a reduction in the lowest grades of income tax and leaving the higher grades untouched. The estimated decrease in revenue was about a crore of rupees compared with nearly two and a half crores created by the Assembly's vote. The following were the rates recommended by the Governor-General—

In the case of every individual, Hindu undivided family, unregistered firm and other association of individuals not being a registered firm or a company—

	Rate.
When the total income is less than Rs 2,000	Nil.
When the total income is Rs. 2,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 5,000	Six pias in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs 5,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 10,000	Nine pias in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs 10,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 15,000	One anna in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs 15,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 20,000	One anna and four pias in the rupee.

When the total income is Rs 20,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 30,000	Rate. One anna and seven pies in the rupee
When the total income is Rs 30,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 40,000	One anna and eleven pies in the rupee
When the total income is Rs 40,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 1,00,000	Two annas and one pie in the rupee
When the total income is Rs 1,00,000 or upwards	Two annas and two pies in the rupee
In the case of every company and registered firm, whatever its total income	Two annas and two pies in the rupee

The Bill in its recommended form was, however, rejected by the Assembly by 60 votes to 56, and was sent to the Council of State where it was passed. It became law on being certified by the Governor-General. The gap of Rs 105 lakhs caused by the amended income tax figures was partly filled by reduction of military expenditure to the extent of Rs 60 lakhs and by Rs 15 lakhs cut in civil expenditure.

Other cuts made by the Assembly and accepted by Government included token reductions of Rs 100 in the demands for Customs, Income Tax, Executive Council and Army Department. Two cuts of Rs one lakh and Rs 100 were made in the Railway Board demand and were accepted.

Supplementary Budget—It soon became evident that the worsening of the trade depression had seriously vitiated the revenue estimates in the February budget, and in September Sir George Schuster came before the Legislative Assembly with a Supplementary Finance Bill. The Finance Member said that the returns for the first five months indicated that they would fall short of their budget estimates for customs by at least Rs 10 crores, the heaviest reductions being under cotton piece-goods, sugar, silver, spirits and liquor, excise on motor spirit, iron and steel and in the jute export duty, while they expected a deficit of Rs 1½ crores on income-tax. Income from Railways and Posts and Telegraphs showed a similar decline. The total deterioration in income amounted to Rs 11.83 crores in tax revenue, Rs 5.48 crores on commercial departments, Rs 2.29 crores in general finance headings, Rs 23 lakhs under extraordinary receipts and Rs 23 lakhs under other heads. As the budget provided for a small surplus of Rs 1 lakh on the basis of the present estimates there would be a net deficit of Rs 19.55 crores. Putting the deficit for the current year and next year together they had a gap to fill of Rs 39.05 crores. He proposed to deal with the situation on three distinct lines, firstly, to reduce expenditure; secondly, to impose an emergency cut in salaries, and thirdly, to impose fresh taxation. Retrenchment measures in civil expenditure he estimated would save about Rs 30 lakhs in the current year, and Rs 250 lakhs next year, while military expenditure next year would be curtailed by Rs 450 lakhs,

A ten per cent cut in pay in both civil and military departments would lead to a saving of Rs 60 lakhs in the current year and Rs 190 lakhs next year. Turning to new methods of raising revenue the Finance Member said his first proposal would be an immediate increase in the salt revenue by abolishing the credit systems which would mean that the revenue would be increased by a crore of rupees each year on this account. The main plank of his new taxation proposals was to put a temporary surcharge on all existing taxes with the exception of Customs export duties, the surcharge being 25 per cent on the existing rates in each case. He proposed that the surcharge for the current year in income-tax should only be 12½ per cent, but it would be collected at this rate on the whole year's income. Government held that in the present emergency they were justified in reducing the income-tax exemption limit and imposing a small tax of four pies in the rupee on incomes between Rs 1,000 and Rs 2,000 per annum. Dealing with special increases and new taxes, the Finance Member said: "We propose to increase the import duty on artificial silk piece-goods from 20 to 40 per cent and on artificial silk yarn from 10 per cent to 15 per cent. We also propose to increase the duty on brown sugar from Rs.6-12-0 to Rs 7-4-0 per cwt. This follows the Tariff Board's recommendation. As regards boots and shoes, we propose that there should be imposed as an alternative to the 20 per cent duty a minimum of 4 annas per pair. The duty will thus be 20 per cent, or 4 annas a pair, whichever is the higher. We also propose to increase the duty on camphor and on electric bulbs from 20 to 40 per cent. As regards all these articles the surcharge will be levied on the increased duty."

"Then there are three items formerly on the free list on which we think it justifiable to impose a small duty on revenue grounds. The result of the surcharges imposed in last Budget and proposed now is that the level of the general revenue tariff has been increased from 15 to 25 per cent. There is, therefore, some justification for adding a 10 per cent duty to articles hitherto free. We propose to put duties of 10 per cent on machinery and dyes, and of ½ anna per lb on raw cotton. I must expect criticism of these duties especially from the cotton mills, and I must

acknowledge that their import on may, appear to be in some ways inconsistent with previous policy. The justification must be the need for revenue, while as regards the cotton mills we may claim that on balance their position will be improved by our surcharge proposals, for under these the import duties on cotton piece-goods will be increased by one quarter. This more than offsets the burden of a 2 anna per lb on goods made from imported cotton and affords an effective answer to possible criticisms on the grounds to which I have referred. I have one more word to say as regards the income-tax proposals. In considering the cut to be applied to the salaries of Government officials we considered what total reduction of their emolument could fairly be imposed. If the general rate of reduction is to be 10 per cent., that represents what we think fair, and if further increases of income-tax were to be added, that would go beyond the reasonable limit. We therefore propose that increases of income-tax both by way of surcharge on existing rates or by way of imposition of a tax for the first time on salaries from Rs 1,000 to Rs 2,000 should be merged in any general cut which we are imposing or which the Provincial Governments may impose."

The Finance Member's final proposal was to increase the postage for inland letters to 1½ annas instead of 1 anna and for postcards to 9 pies instead of 6 pies. That enhancement was expected to provide Rs 73 lakhs in a full year and go a long way to cover the deficit of Rs 92 lakhs in the working results of the Posts and Telegraphs Department which would be left even if the recommendations of the Posts and Telegraphs Accounts Enquiry Committee were accepted.

The net result for the current year was an estimated increase in taxation of Rs. 711 lakhs which, together with Rs. 27 lakhs from increased postal charges and Rs. 100 lakhs from salt revenue, meant, with retrenchment measures, an improvement of Rs. 925 lakhs as against an estimated deficit of Rs. 19.55 crores. They would thus close the year with a deficit of Rs. 10.17 crores. On the other hand, in 1932-33 they would feel the full benefit of the retrenchment measures and the extra taxation, making a total improvement of Rs. 24.73 crores against an estimated deficit of Rs. 19.59 crores. They should thus close the year with a surplus of Rs. 5.23 crores. The combined result of the two years would be a deficit of Rs. 4.94 crores, which they were justified in regarding as covered by making during this period of exceptional stress a reduction of about Rs. 247 lakhs in each year for the provision for reduction or avoidance of debt.

Assembly Opposition.—The Finance Member's statement and fresh taxation proposals came as a shock to the Assembly, and strong opposition to certain sections of the Bill was manifested from the start. Most of the non-official members maintained that larger cuts in expenditure should be made, increasing the need for still further retrenchment in the Army demands. When the Bill was discussed clause by clause, a motion was carried placing mill machinery, etc., again on the free import list and the proposal to increase postal rates was rejected. Amendments to the income tax

increases were carried omitting the reduction of the minimum taxable income from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 1,000, and making the 25 per cent surcharge levied during 1932-33 applicable only to incomes over Rs. 10,000 per annum. When the Bill was finished the Bill was returned to the Assembly with a recommendation by the Governor-General that it should be passed in its original form. Lord Willingdon pointed out that the amendments made by the Assembly would reduce the expected revenue by Rs. 4 crores over eighteen months, and added "I am satisfied that I cannot consistently with my responsibilities allow the amendment to remain unrecorded." The Bill as amended was, however, rejected by the Assembly by 63 votes to 45. It was taken to the Council of State where it was passed and was thereafter certified as law by the Governor-General.

The 1932-33 Budget.—Presenting the 1932-33 budget on March 7th, 1932 the Finance Member explained that the circumstances were somewhat unusual. The supplementary budget had been introduced only six months earlier. He did not, therefore, propose to ask the House at the present stage to approve any extensions or modifications of the plan for raising revenue put forward in September 1931. On the basis of the supplementary budget in September it was hoped to reduce the deficit for the current year to Rs. 10.17 crores and for the following year to realize a surplus of Rs. 5.23 lakhs but experience had made it necessary to revise these estimates. A deterioration in the figures by about Rs. 2 crores was to be allowed for each year and it was anticipated that the current year would close with a deficit of Rs. 13.6 crores and that the surplus for 1932-33 would be Rs. 2.15 crores. The Finance Member reminded the House that for the current year and the next year combined no less than Rs. 17.71 crores was being provided from revenue for reduction or avoidance of debt.

Revenue Estimates.—The budget estimates for customs receipts in 1932-33 were put at Rs. 415 lakhs less than in the previous year in spite of the increased duties imposed by the emergency budget and which were expected to bring in an additional revenue of Rs. 92 crores. The main deterioration occurred under the heads of sugar, silver, cotton piece-goods and liquor. Referring to the revenue from the commercial departments the Finance Member said that no contributions from the railways were expected either in the current year or the next. As regards Posts and Telegraphs the loss in working in the coming year was expected to be about Rs. 16 lakhs.

Expenditure Estimates.—The total civil and net military expenditure in 1932-33 was estimated at Rs. 67.39 lakhs which was Rs. 11.84 lakhs less than for 1930-31 and Rs. 7.85 lakhs less than the current budget. On the subject of retrenchment the Finance Member said:

"For the present I would remind Honourable Members of the following broad facts, when they compare what we have achieved with the recommendations of the various Retrenchment Committees. The total recommended by the four civil Sub-Committees was Rs. 4.99 lakhs, and we have against this achieved economies of

Rs. 4.33 lakhs or nearly 87 per cent—before allowing for terminal charges which, of course, the committees did not take into account."

"I would mention two other striking results in this connection. The first is the actual reduction in Expenditure. I have already given the figures from the accounts showing a reduction of 11.84 lakhs for Civil and Military Expenditure (excluding Posts and Telegraphs) since 1930-31. The position may also be stated in another way. If Honourable Members will look at the analytical table which is included in the Financial Secretary's memorandum (which is prepared now on a slightly different basis from that which I circulated in September) they will find that what I may describe as the net controllable administrative expenditure, civil and military (which excludes the cost of collection of taxes and of the administration of salt and Posts and Telegraphs expenditure) has been brought down from just over Rs. 76 crores in 1930-31 to just over Rs. 64 crores for 1932-33, a reduction of about 16 per cent."

The second fact is of a more distressing nature, but it indicates the magnitude of the effect which we have made. In pursuance of the retrenchment campaign the following appointments in the Civil Departments (including Posts and Telegraphs) have been or will shortly come under reduction so far as information is at present available—

Gazetted officers	209
Ministerial establishment and other superior establishment ..	5,279
Inferior establishment	1,485
Total ..	7,063

The 1933-34 Budget—In introducing the budget, the Finance Member summarised the results for the two previous years. The results for 1931-32 had turned out to be Rs. 2 crores better than anticipated in the budget speech and the account for the year showed a deficit after providing nearly Rs. 7 crores for the reduction of debt of Rs. 11½ crores. For the year 1932-33 the latest revised estimates indicated that the surplus would be Rs. 217 lakhs or Rs. 2 lakhs more than was estimated. He continued to estimate revenue for 1933-34—particularly customs revenue—is, in view of the completely uncertain and abnormal conditions, a task of quite unprecedented difficulty. Indeed I may say that accurate estimation is impossible in these circumstances and for the reasons which I have explained, we have thought that the most reasonable course is to assume that the general position next year will be the same as for the current year, neither better nor worse, and in particular that India will be able to maintain the same purchasing power for commodities imported from abroad.

Customs—The assumption, however, that the value of imports will be maintained does not necessarily imply that the value of the import duties will also remain the same.

I have already explained the special position as regards sugar, showing how the present development of the Indian industry is affecting

our revenue. On these considerations we think it necessary to allow for a drop of one crore in receipts from the sugar import duties which will not be offset by any increase under other heads.

In regard to cotton piece-goods also, for reasons which I have explained, we think it necessary to regard the revenue from import duties—at least on Japanese goods—as to some extent abnormal and not likely to be repeated. Here therefore we have allowed for a drop of 30 lakhs.

As against these reductions we have thought it safe to count on a small revenue (25 lakhs) from silver imports—because having closed the gap in our land customs line on the Burmese frontier, through which a large trade in silver from China was suddenly developing in the course of the last year, we think it reasonable to expect a moderate resumption of dutiable imports.

Making allowance for these and other minor variations, our customs revenue estimates for next year are put at 51.25 lakhs showing a reduction of 104 lakhs from the revised estimates of the current year.

The position as regards net receipts may be summarised as follows—

	Revenue (Lakhs).
Budget Estimate, 1932-33 ..	52.31 27
Revised Estimate, 1932-33 ..	52.28 55
Budget Estimate, 1933-34 ..	51.24 60

Civil Expenditure—"The budget estimate of Civil expenditure for the current year (1932-33), i.e., excluding military expenditure, expenditure on Commercial departments and Debt services, was 20.65 lakhs. Our revised estimate now gives the figure as 20.89 lakhs. There is thus an apparent increase of 24 lakhs. But a closer examination shows that this increase, does not denote any increase in real expenditure, and, indeed, that the economy in recurrent expenditure has been greater than that which we promised. The figure of expenditure as shown in our accounts has had to be increased because special items amounting in all to 68½ lakhs, but the great bulk of which do not denote real expenditure, have had to be included.

"Under the other heads of real expenditure we shall have achieved during this year economies of Rs. 45 lakhs more than we promised. It may be remembered that in my budget speech in March last I stated that, broadly speaking, against a total retrenchment in expenditure of Rs. 499 lakhs recommended by the four civil sub-committees, Government had achieved economies of 433 lakhs, or nearly 87 per cent, before allowing for terminal charges which the committees did not take into account. The results according to the revised estimate for the current year which I have just given show that the actual economies achieved in normal expenditure amount to 45 lakhs more than this, that is to say, to a total of 478 lakhs, or nearly 96 per cent of the amount recommended by the retrenchment committees.

"Turning to the estimates of expenditure under these civil heads for next year, I am glad to be able to report a still further improvement

As compared with the current year with its budget estimate of 20.65 lakhs and the revised estimate of 20.80 lakhs, the estimates for 1933-34 are 20.53 lakhs, that is to say, a reduction of 36 lakhs on the current year in spite of the following facts; first, that we have allowed for reducing the cut in pay to 5 per cent thereby incurring extra charges of 28 lakhs on these particular civil heads, secondly that we have to meet the normal increments in time scale pay which still involve an annual addition of something like 15 lakhs, and thirdly, that we have to meet new obligatory expenditure amounting to about 17 lakhs, the nature of which I shall shortly explain. If all these items are taken into account it will be seen that the total of the net reductions otherwise effected under the normal heads of expenditure amount to no less than 96 lakhs. Honourable Members may say that they are not concerned with this figure but only with the saving of 36 lakhs actually effected, but I have given these explanations in order to show how we are continuing the retrenchment effort and what a constant effort is required "merely to prevent expenditure from growing."

Military Expenditure—"When I turn to the provision for the Military or Defence Budget the results are equally, or even more, satisfactory. For the current year (1932-33) allowing for the full effects of the 10 per cent cut in pay, the net budgetary allotment was Rs 46.74 crores. For next year the net expenditure provided for in the estimates, after allowing for an extra charge of Rs. 52½ lakhs due to the reduction in the cut in pay to 5 per cent is Rs 46.20 crores. That is to say although the pay bill is increased by Rs 52½ lakhs the net expenditure is to be reduced by Rs 54 lakhs."

Financial Summary, 1933-34.

REVENUE—	Rs. lakhs Better. Worse
Customs —(Reduction due to fall allowed for in imports of sugar and cotton piece-goods) ..	1.04
Income-tax —(Increase due to removal of exemption from surcharge on Government servants) ..	53 ..
Excise —(Reduction mainly due to termination of temporary increase in receipts on termination of credit system) ..	1.03
Opium	25 ..
Finance heads —Net changes including additional expenditure of 1 on account of part restoration of cut in pay ..	15
Civil service departments —Net revenue	11
Miscellaneous —(Reduction of 30 due to provision being included in revised estimates for gain by Exchange)	45

EXPENDITURE—

Military: Civil heads —Net reduction effected in spite of part restoration of pay cut costing 79½ lakhs under these heads as compared with the revised estimates (This net reduction together with the reduction of 5 under Irrigation and Currency and Mint taken on the revenue side gives a total reduction of 90 as mentioned in para 61) ..	85 ..
Total ..	133 338

As a result of the changes thus summarised the net deterioration for next year is estimated at 175 lakhs, and thus the surplus of 217 lakhs shown in the revised estimate for the current year will be reduced to surplus of 42 lakhs.

The Cut in Pay—Concerning the Government's decision to restore half the cut in pay the Finance Member said that the total cost was Rs 108 lakhs.

As against this the Central budget will recover as a result of the withdrawal of the exemption of income-tax surcharges and the tax on incomes below Rs. 2,000 from Government officials—not only officials paid against the Central budget, but officials of the Railways and officials serving under the Provincial Governments—a net increase in income-tax receipts of 53 lakhs.

The net cost of the proposal to the Central Government is thus 55 lakhs.

Changes in Duties—The budget announced changes in the import duties on boots and shoes and artificial silk goods.

Decisions—The Assembly threw out the proposal for a stamp duty on cheques and by 59 votes to 33 carried a resolution to reduce the rate of income tax from 4 pias to 2 pias on incomes between Rs 1,000 and Rs. 1,500.

The 1934-35 Budget—Summing up the results for 1933-34 when introducing the 1934-35 budget the Finance Member said that with the arrangement to provide Rs 3 crores for debt reduction instead of the Rs 6.89 crores due under the debt reduction convention the year would close with a surplus of Rs 120 lakhs. This sum Government proposed to set aside as a special fund to cover relief measures in respect of earthquake damage. For 1934-35 Government were expecting a drop of Rs. 290 lakhs in revenue which was more than accounted for by the anticipated falling off in sugar import duties, while expenditure would be Rs 2 lakhs higher. In order to provide an even balance for 1934-35 it was necessary to find means of improving the position to the extent of Rs 153 lakhs.

A loss in import duties of 235 lakhs was anticipated.

Other Revenue—The changes in other heads of Revenue do not call for any detailed comment. We are allowing for a slight recovery of 12 lakhs in Taxes on Income to a total of 17½ crores, and we should have put this 25 lakhs higher if it had not been for the losses which must be anticipated from the earthquake. We are also allowing for an increase of 18 lakhs on salt and for a drop in the gross receipts from Opium of 64 lakhs. The declining revenue from the latter item owing to the policy adopted in 1925 has been another cause of budgetary difficulties. Altogether the total drop to be allowed for in Revenue as compared with the Revised estimates for the current year is 2,74 lakhs, which is more than accounted for by the loss on sugar.

Expenditure—On the subject of expenditure Sir George Schuster said —

So far as concerns expenditure, we are still searching for further economies, and have rigidly maintained our rule that no new item of expenditure shall be admitted unless it is absolutely obligatory or unless it is likely to be economically productive. We have also, as I have already announced, decided that the 5 per cent cut in pay ought to be retained for another year. As a result there is a very satisfactory reduction of 2,12 lakhs in the Budget provision for next year as compared with the Budget for the current year, and of 2,90 lakhs as compared with the actuals for last year (1932-33) for, while expenditure on Civil Administration has been kept practically unchanged in spite of the normal increments in pay, there is a substantial saving on interest charges due to conversion schemes and the improvement in Government credit, while the military contribution from His Majesty's Government means a big reduction in the Army Budget.

The demand under the Defence head stands for next year at 44.88 crores. This is 4 lakhs less than the Revised estimates for the current year and 1.82 lakhs better than the Budget estimate. The latter big reduction is of course due to the payment now made by His Majesty's Government as a result of the finding of the Capitulation Tribunal, to which I have already referred. The House is fully informed as to the facts in this case, and I need not add further explanations, but I wish to take this occasion to review the course of military expenditure during the period of my office as Finance Member. The salient fact is that the total demand has been reduced by no less than 10.72 crores, from 55.10 crores in 1929-30 to the present figure of 44.88 crores. This is a remarkable reduction and I venture to think that if I had prophesied its achievement in 1929, my prophecy would have been greeted either with incredulity or, among those who gave credence to it, with extreme satisfaction. In the debates at that time the great demand was always that we should get Defence expenditure down to the so-called Inchaape figure of 50 crores. Yet now we are nearly six crores below that.

Debt Services—Regarding the interest on debt, the Finance Member said.—It is a notable fact that the net figure for 1934-35 under Interest on Ordinary debt is less than

nothing—in fact a surplus balance of about 1 lakh. This is a reduction of 1.17 lakhs on the budget for 1933-34, though it is actually about the same as for the revised estimates. The comparison is complicated by the position as regards war debt payments. In the budget of 1933-34 we provided 88 lakhs against this liability, but as no payment was made this amount was saved, and, as I have already explained, is the main reason for the saving on the revised estimates. As regards 1934-35, His Majesty's Government has already agreed to the postponement of the instalment due in June 1934, but we have made provision for the second half year's instalment, and we have also assumed that the outstanding arrears, excluding the amount in suspense, will be capitalised and the total discharged by equated payments ending 1952 to cover principal and interest. On this basis we are making provision for 58 lakhs in the 1934-35 budget. Excluding these War Debt provisions the comparison between 1933-34 and 1934-35 works out as follows —

1933-34 Budget	..	28 lakhs.
1933-34 Revised	..	Nil.
1934-35 Budget	..	—59 lakhs (i.e., net surplus).

There is thus really an improvement of 87 lakhs on the budget for 1933-34 and of 59 lakhs on the Revised.

Under Interest on Other Obligations there is an increase in the budget provision for 1934-35 of 72 lakhs over the budget for 1933-34 and 68 lakhs over the Revised estimate. This is accounted for by an extra charge of 50 lakhs in respect of bonus on Post Office Cash Certificates, while the balance represents mainly interest on the increased amount of Post Office Savings Bank deposits.

I might sum up the result by saying that as regards interest charges, including both Interest on Ordinary Debt and Interest on Other Obligations, we have to provide next year 45 lakhs less than was allowed for in the budget of 1933-34, but 68 lakhs more than we are allowing in the revised estimates, and that as against the latter increase we are providing 58 lakhs more on War Debt and 50 lakhs more on Post Office Cash Certificates.

Changes in Duties—The Finance Member announced the imposition of an excise duty on sugar in the following words —

After careful consideration we have decided to propose a dual policy, on the one hand the imposition of an *excise duty on factory produced sugar*, and on the other hand the introduction of legislation by the Central Government which will enable the Provincial Governments to apply schemes for enforcing a minimum price for cane to be paid by the factory to the grower. As I have already stated, the present duty of Rs. 9-1-0 per cwt is Rs. 1-13-0 above the basic duty of Rs. 7-4-0 recommended by the Tariff Board. In their report, however, the Tariff Board recommended that there should be power for Government to increase the measure of protection by 8 annas per cwt when Java sugar was being imported at a price less than Rs. 4 per maund to Calcutta. We propose to

assume that the conditions justifying this extra margin of protection are likely to continue in existence for the present, and therefore to have a protective margin of Rs. 7-12-0 per cent. and to impose an excise duty of Rs. 1-5-0 per cent. We assume that this will yield Rs. 1,17 lakhs, and out of this we propose to set aside an amount equivalent to 1 anna per cent, representing about 7 lakhs, as a fund to be distributed among the Producers where white sugar is produced for the purpose of assisting the organisation and operation of co-operative societies among the cane growers so as to help them in securing fair prices, or for other purposes directed to the same end.

Tobacco Duties—The Finance Member said—

Under our present tariff, as modified by the two surcharges, the duty on cigarettes works out at something like double the duty on the tobacco used in making similar cigarettes in India and the result has been to divert the manufacture of the great majority of the leading brands of cigarettes to factories in India belonging to the same interests as previously imported these brands from abroad. Such an industrial development has never made a claim—and I do not think it could make a good claim—that it satisfies the principles of discriminatory protection and should therefore receive abnormal encouragement from the tariff. We have now decided to fix the relation between the duty on cigarettes and the duty on raw tobacco on a more rational basis, and we have considerable hopes that, while not depriving the interest concerned of reasonable assistance, it will bring back the class of cigarette concerned into the field of open competition between the imported and locally made article, and result, without detriment to the interest of the consumer, in some increase of revenue from import duties. We propose to take for cigarettes a specific duty roughly corresponding to the identical amount that would have been paid on the quantity of leaf contained in the cigarettes and to add to this specific duty the normal revenue duty of 25 per cent *ad valorem*, thus leaving the local industry with no more than the benefit which is enjoyed by every non-protected industry engaged in the manufacture of goods which are subject to our present normal revenue duty of 25 per cent. The details are as follows.

At present what I may call the basic rate of duty on cigarettes is Rs. 10-10 per thousand while there are smaller classes which are assessed at Rs. 15 and Rs. 8-8 per thousand, the division between these classes being dependent upon values. The present rate of duty on raw tobacco is Rs. 2 per lb standard and Rs. 1-8 preferential. (Imports entitled to the benefit of preferential duty are negligible). The revised rates that we propose are—

On raw tobacco 'Rs. 2-0-0 per lb. standard and Rs. 1-14-0 per lb. preferential.

On cigarettes 'Rs. 5-15-0 per thousand plus 25 per cent *ad valorem*

Silver.—A reduction in the silver import by 2½ annas to 5 annas per ounce.

The Finance Member said to-day we think we can lower the duty without risk of doing so

Taking the price of silver which have been ruling recently in London (about 19½ to 20½ per standard ounce), the price in Bombay have been ruling round about Rs. 65 per 100 tolas again at 19½ per ounce in London. On the basis of a London price of 19½ was calculated that the parity price in Bombay allowing for import duty and other charges, ought to be Rs. 61-11 per hundred tolas, so that it looks as if the Bombay prices have been keeping at a level at least Rs. 611-0 per 100 tolas below the full parity. The duty of 7½ annas per ounce is equivalent to Rs. 17-4-8 per 100 tolas. It appears therefore that we might reduce the duty by one-third, i.e. by 2½ annas per ounce without thereby seriously affecting the Bombay price at all, for it would still be somewhat below the London parity.

Export Duty on Hides—The export duty on raw hides was abolished by the 1971-72 budget.

Excise on Matches—Announcing that the Government intended to hand over half the future export duty to the Jute-producing Provinces, the Finance Member said that the Government of India would recoup their losses by imposing a levy on matches at the rate of Rs. 2-4-0 per gross of boxes on matches made in British India.

Decisions—The Assembly accepted the whole of the financial plan except to the extent that Government themselves accepted a change in the match excise duty. The changes assumed up by the Select Committee, which examined the Bill, were—"The most important question which confronted us was whether the duty as fixed by the Bill would so react on the retail selling price of matches as to bring about a very serious diminution of sales. In order to avoid this it seemed to us essential that the duty be so regulated as to make it possible a reasonable sized box of matches retailed singly in bazaris at the price of one pice.

After very careful consideration we have come to the conclusion that if this result is to be achieved and a sufficient margin of profit left for retailers and manufacturers, the rate of excise duty initially, at least, should not be fixed higher than our rupee per gross of boxes containing on average 10 matches.

We hold that the duty could be fixed at corresponding rates for matches in boxes of 60 or 80, and that the classification of matches according to these standards is most suitable and convenient from the administrative standpoint.

From matches packed otherwise we have left the duty to be fixed by the Governor-General-in-Council.

Posts and Telegraphs—The following changes in postal and telegraph charges were announced—

Postal.—(a) In the postal tariff we propose to lower the initial weight of inland letters from 2½ tolas to 1 tola coupled with a reduction in the charge from 1½ anna to one anna. For heavier letters the charges will continue to be 1½ anna for letters not exceeding 2½ tolas, with additional 1½ anna for successive weights.

of 2½ tolas or fractions. This change introduces a lighter unit of weight and will undoubtedly benefit the poor citizens and the business community. Allowing for a recovery of 10 per cent in traffic we estimate that in the first year this reduction will involve a loss in revenue of 27 lakhs, but we have good reasons to hope that in the second year this loss will practically disappear, and that thereafter there will be a gradually increasing net gain.

(b) As a second change in postal charges we propose the reimposition of the extra pice per five pice embossed envelope which was imposed in 1931 to recover the cost of manufacturing the envelope. This is more of the nature of an administrative reform considered necessary on general grounds than a regrading of the rate, but it is again a reform which will benefit the ordinary citizen. We estimate a loss of revenue of two and a half lakhs from this change.

(c) Thirdly, as regards Post-rates, we propose a small change in a contrary direction, namely, that the initial charge on inland book packets not exceeding 5 tolas in weight should be raised from 6 to 9 pias. The book packet method of transmission is undoubtedly being abused, and a change is urgently necessary to stop the diversion, with consequent loss of revenue, that is occurring of post card traffic to the book packet category. We estimate a gain of a little over 3 lakhs in revenue from this change.

Telegrams—The last change which we propose is as regards Telegrams. Instead of having, as at present, a minimum charge for ordinary telegrams of 12 annas with a surcharge of one anna for a message of 12 words, we propose to introduce a minimum charge for a telegram of 8 words of 9 annas, while that for an express telegram of the same length will be one rupee and two annas. For each additional word in the two classes of telegrams the additional charge will be one and two annas respectively. We estimate a loss during the first year of 3 lakhs from this change, but here also, as in the case of the postal rates, we hope that in the second year this loss will disappear, while without making this change we consider that there is a prospect of a continuous decline in telegraph receipts.

The 1935-36 Budget—This Budget is expected to show a surplus of Rs 150 lakhs available for tax reduction. Before dealing with this issue the Finance Member said that he must mention three items—

Additional Import Duty on Salt—The first of these is the additional import duty on salt. Personally I am very doubtful whether this duty can ever achieve the purpose for which it was designed. I have moreover a good deal of sympathy with the views which have in the past been expressed by Hon'ble Members from Bengal that an impost which has the effect of helping the producers of Aden at the expense of the consumers of Bengal is fundamentally unfair. In any case the duty will require consideration in view of the impending separation of Aden and Burma. Taking all these things into consideration I was disposed to think that the duty ought to be abolished at once but that would perhaps have been a little harsh to the vested interests which have

grown up and I shall therefore propose to the House that the duty shall be extended for one year, without prejudice to any action which Government may see fit to take at the end of that year. I hope that this extension will be accepted by the House though I should perhaps make it clear that, if it should prefer to remove the duty at once in this matter at any rate we should accept its decision. Incidentally we do not propose to make any change in the arrangements for the distribution of the proceeds of the duty.

Silver—The next is silver and here we propose to reduce the duty to 2 annas an ounce. This action is dictated by no theory as to the place to be taken by silver in the monetary economy of the world nor has it any connection with the view sometimes expressed that India should be encouraged to build up her hoards of the metal. It is simply a matter of business. There is no doubt at the present level the duty is encouraging smuggling, there is no doubt that the smuggling is extremely difficult to prevent and there is no doubt that the honest trader is being injured by the illicit trade which is being carried on. At the lower level which we now propose smuggling should become unprofitable and the honest trade will come into its own. I propose to assume that we shall get the same yield from the 2 annas as would have been obtained from the 5 anna duty which is, I think, fully justified by the circumstances in which the reduction is taken place. The reduction will take place immediately by notification.

Export Duty on Skins—The third change of a minor order is the abolition of the export duty on raw skins. During the eight months ending 30th November 1934 the export trade in raw skins declined in volume, as compared with the corresponding period of the previous year, from 13,133 tons to 8,938 tons and in value from Rs 2,24 lakhs to Rs 1,19 lakhs. We all believe of course that the most necessary factor in India's economic recovery is revival of her export trade. Many of us feel angry and humiliated at our inability to suggest any positive action designed to promote that end apart from international action of a kind which is not at present likely to be taken, namely, a general agreement to reduce tariffs and quotas. But here is one case, though unfortunately only a small one, where some action is possible within the bounds of our available resources and I think that it should be taken. The change will take place as from the 1st April and the loss of revenue will be Rs 8 lakhs.

Reduction of Taxes on Income—We still have Rs 1,42 lakhs left to dispose of and I propose to do this in accordance with the pledge of my predecessor in which he said "Relief must come first in restoring the emergence cuts in pay and secondly in taking off the surcharge on the income-tax now to be imposed."

Although the tax on smaller incomes was not strictly a surcharge, it does, I think, come within the spirit of the pledge and I propose to deal with it and the surcharges on income-tax and super-tax together. The removal of the surcharges altogether would cost Rs 2,34 lakhs a year.

while the removal of the tax on incomes between Rs 1,000 and Rs 2,000 would cost a further Rs 75 lakhs. Clearly with a surplus of Rs 1.42 lakhs only we cannot remove the whole of the two surcharges and the quasi-surcharge but what we can do is to reduce them by one-third and this is what I in fact propose. The cost will be Rs 1.36 lakhs leaving us with a purely nominal surplus of Rs 0 lakhs."

Treatment of 1934-35 Surplus—The surplus for 1934-35 turn out to be much larger than originally budgeted, totalling Rs 380 lakhs. Of this sum the Finance Member said—

"We consider that the needs of the rural areas should have the first claim on this and we have decided to set aside a sum of Rs 1,00 lakhs for distribution to the provinces to be spent on schemes for the economic development and improvement of such areas

Schemes have been examined and worked out but unfortunately many of them are still merely paper schemes, for even before the financial stringency of recent years some Local Governments could only devote very inadequate funds to those purposes and in the recent years of crisis and retrenchment it has been impossible for any Local Government to find money for new projects however likely they were to contribute to the prosperity of the province

I have used the expression economic development and improvement of rural areas and I have indicated that I use that expression in a wide sense to cover any measure which will conduce to the amelioration of the conditions of the cultivators and rural classes. One such measure is the Co-operative Movement and we have for the last 7 or 8 months had an expert on duty under the Central Government to examine how the movement stands. Mr Darling who has acquired great experience of the movement in the Punjab has been touring round the provinces discussing the question with Local Governments and Provincial Registrars. We propose to earmark a sum of Rs 10 to 15 lakhs out of the crore which I have mentioned and this, we hope, will enable governments to develop the movement on sound financial foundations. Details of the measures and the conditions on which the grants will be given will be settled after we have considered Mr Darling's Report

As regards the remaining Rs 85 to Rs 90 lakhs I do not propose at present to define very closely the terms on which it will be distributed to the Provinces or the purposes for which it will be used. I may, however, say that we shall probably adopt the basis of rural population for distribution and we shall certainly impose the two following conditions—

- (1) that the grant should be spent on schemes approved by the Government of India which will improve the economic position of the people, and
- (2) that it will be devoted only to schemes which the Local Government would not otherwise have been able to undertake in the immediate future

Roads—We also propose to make a special contribution of Rs 40 lakhs to the Government of India's reserve in the Road Development

Fund. There is obviously great scope for expenditure on road development, and I am very glad to be in a position to supplement the somewhat exiguous resources of the Road Development Fund reserve, which was designed, as I think Members are aware for the purpose of making grants towards works of special importance or to specially necessitous parts of India. The Government have drawn up a programme for the expenditure of the additional sum now available and in this prime consideration is being given to the needs of the Province of Assam, which seems to me to be about the most necessitous of all the provinces.

North-West Frontier Roads—A further sum of Rs 25 lakhs we propose to set aside for schemes of development in the North West Frontier Province. Most of this will be spent on the construction of roads in the tribal area and the remainder will be devoted to schemes of economic development in that area, I wish to make it clear that we have no intention of implementing this policy by force or without the consent of the tribes in whose territory the roads will be constructed

A petition has already been received from the Afridis asking that a road may be constructed through a small area in Tirah and it is hoped that this development may lead to a fuller recognition not only by this important tribe but also by others of how their true interests are served by improvement of their communications with British India

It is considered that from the point of view of Government this expenditure, which probably be spread over several years, is fully justified both on financial and political grounds. As the House is aware the relations between the Frontier tribes and Government have not always been peaceful and very large sums have been expended from time to time upon military operations of a punitive and wholly unproductive nature. We hope that by improving communications and by assisting the tribes to become economically self-supporting we shall not only avoid the necessity for such operations in future but shall transform in course of time a potential danger into a source of strength to India

Broadcasting—The last item of special expenditure which I have to mention in this connection is a provision of Rs 20 lakhs for the development of Broadcasting. As has already been announced, it is proposed shortly to construct a large transmitting station in Delhi, and we hope later to undertake the construction of a similar new station at Madras. The existing stations at Calcutta and Bombay are also in urgent need of improvement and extension. Broadcasting is of course an immensely important factor in the intellectual and cultural development of a country and India cannot afford to fall too far behind in this matter.

After these special grants have been made there should remain a balance of Rs 2.04 lakhs. A large part of this sum I propose to put aside for two schemes which it was provisionally decided to finance from capital. These are the civil aviation programme, which is expected to cost Rs 93 lakhs, and the transfer of the Pusa Institute to Delhi which will cost about

Rs 36 lakhs. I was not myself very happy about the decision to charge to capital these two schemes, which are certainly not in any strict sense of the word remunerative. And now that we have an accrued revenue surplus it seems to me sound policy to use part of it for those purposes and to avoid the criticism of what might have become an awkward precedent. The remainder of the surplus amounting to Rs 75 lakhs will now go as an additional allotment for the reduction of debt and this concludes the disposal of the sums which we expect to have in hand on the 31st March next."

Revenue in 1935-36—Concerning the revenue for 1935-36 the Finance Member said.

"The total revenue, excluding Railways, may be at Rs 90.19 lakhs or Rs 51 lakhs less than that in the revised estimate for the current year."

Customs, etc—Here I estimate for Rs 51.92 lakhs altogether or an increase of Rs 75 lakhs over the revised figures for the current year. The main variations are a decline of Rs 2 crores on the import duty on sugar combined with increases of Rs 35 lakhs on the sugar excise of Rs 65 lakhs on the match excise and of Rs 43 lakhs on kerosene and Petrol. It is of course a matter of great difficulty to frame an accurate estimate of customs, etc, revenue at a time when there are so many uncertain factors at work. This uncertainty applies in a particular measure to the sugar duties. As I have already stated, our estimates for the current year have been revised to show an increase of Rs 1.70 lakhs in the import duty and a decline of Rs 32 lakhs in excise—the original figures being Rs 2.05 and 1.47 lakhs respectively, and the revised Rs 3.75 and 1.15 lakhs. We cannot, however, anticipate that the revenue from the import duty will remain at so high a figure in 1935-36 and the increased revenue to be expected from the excise duty will by no means compensate for this inevitable reduction.

During the period when Indian factories were not working at their full strength, imports have been substantial, but when Indian production reaches its full level, imports of foreign sugar for ordinary consumption will almost disappear, and there will only be certain small imports of the finer varieties of sugar. This process may not, however, be completed during 1935-36 and the best forecast we can make is to assume an import revenue of Rs 1.75 lakhs and an excise yield of Rs 1.50 lakhs. The increase in petrol and kerosene is due to normal growth and that in the match excise merely represents a full instead of a part year's yield of the duty.

Taxes on Income—During the current year there has been an undoubted improvement in the financial position of some of the more important industries, but this improvement will only be partially reflected in our Income-tax returns for 1935-36. I therefore estimate for an improvement of no more than Rs 51 lakhs and of this Rs 16 lakhs is due to the additional tax recovered from Government servants on account of the restored pay-cut. The actual figures are Rs 17.25 lakhs for the current year and Rs 17.76 for 1935-36.

Opium—Our estimate under this head is Rs 61 lakhs as compared with Rs 71 lakhs for the current financial year. This is based on the assumption that only 257 chests of opium will be exported during 1935-36. As Hon'ble Members are aware this source of income will practically cease at the end of the present calendar year in accordance with the policy which was announced some years ago by the Government of India, and in future we shall recover only the cost of opium sold for consumption in India.

Interest—This shows a very large reduction amounting of Rs 1.29 lakhs which is of course due to the transfer of the currency function and, therefore the reserves, of the Government of India to the Reserve Bank. It is true that as against this we shall get the surplus profits of the Bank but in the first year instead of getting a full year's interest on the assets in our various reserves and balances we shall only get a part year's dividend from the profits of the Bank. We have included Rs 50 lakhs on this account under the head "Currency" but the receipts here still show a drop of Rs 11 lakhs owing to the lower rates prevailing for short term money."

1935-36 Expenditure—"Expenditure as a whole, again excluding Railways, stands at Rs 88.00 lakhs showing an increase of Rs 96 lakhs which is of course almost entirely due to the restoration of the pay cut."

The cost of restoration will be Rs. 55 lakhs for the Civil Departments, excluding the Railways, but including the Posts and Telegraphs Department, and Rs 53 lakhs for the Army, a total of Rs 1.08 lakhs, but there is, as I have said, a set off against this in the form of extra income-tax to the extent of Rs 16 lakhs.

Apart from the pay cut, there are only minor increases, most of them on new services, e.g., the marketing scheme, grants to the handloom and sericultural industries, the new Dairy Institute and the Institute of Industrial Research. There is also a small increase on Defence and a deficit on Posts and Telegraphs, which is however, more than explained by the abolition of the pay cut.

Defence—The Defence Budget shows an increase, leaving out of account the pay cut, of Rs 7 lakhs over the original estimate for this year but the partial restoration by His Majesty's Government of the pay cuts of British soldiers which has necessarily to be applied to British soldiers on the Indian establishment, amounts for Rs 5 lakhs of this. The purely nominal increase of Rs 2 lakhs which remains conceals however a considerably increased provision for necessary services and re-equipment which had to be postponed during the financial emergency.

In his budget speech last year my predecessor again communicated to the House a warning previously given that the large reduction in Defence expenditure in recent years had been secured to some extent by emergency measures of a temporary character and that the figure of Rs 44.38 crores could not be regarded as

representing a new permanent level of Defence expenditure. The contingency then foreseen has become a fact and now or rather postponed services amounting to Rs. 67 lakhs have had to be provided for. This sum has been found as to Rs. 20 lakhs by closer estimating for grain and other foodstuffs and as to the remainder by economies in other directions.

My predecessor also stated that His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief had undertaken that he would not relax his search for further economies and I think it will be agreed that the figures I have given demonstrate that this undertaking has been amply fulfilled.

Honourable Members will remember that I said we now expected a surplus on the Posts and Telegraphs accounts for 1931-32 amounting to Rs. 14 lakhs but that this result, was only achieved in consequence of a raid of about Rs. 27 lakhs on the Depreciation Fund. At the time of this raid my predecessor explained that this could not be repeated in toto but that the whole question of the amount of the annual contribution to the Fund was under review. The final results of this review are not yet available but it is clear that the amount to be provided need not be so high as under the old rules by something like Rs. 10 lakhs. There is here therefore a deterioration in the estimate for 1935-36 as compared with 1931-32 and it is one of Rs. 19 lakhs and not one of Rs. 27 lakhs. When we add to this the cost of restoring the payment for the Posts and Telegraphs Department viz., Rs. 27 lakhs, we get an initial disadvantage of Rs. 46 lakhs to be made up. We are however estimating for a deficit not of Rs. 22 lakhs but of Rs. 13 lakhs which means that comparing like with like we reckon a net improvement of Rs. 19 lakhs.

Reduction of Debt—There is only one other item which I wish specifically to mention at this stage and that is the provision for the reduction and avoidance of debt. As Hon'ble Members are aware, our revised estimates for 1933-34 and those for the current financial year included only Rs. 3 crores for this purpose. It is of course a matter of common knowledge that 60 per cent of the Government of India debt is attributable to the Railways and it seems to me that it would be imposing too heavy a burden on the general Budget to revert to the Sinking Fund arrangements in force prior to 1934-35 before the Railways have resumed the practice of making a contribution to the General Revenues. I therefore accept as reasonable for the time being the provision of Rs. 3 crores now prevailing but I should like to make it clear that, in my view, an increased provision for debt reduction ought to be a first charge on any contribution from the Railways in the future.

Borrowing—On this subject the Finance Member said

"We have issued two loans in India during the current year. The first was a re-issue of 3½ per cent loan 1947-50 at 98/38 per cent and the amount subscribed was approximately Rs. 25.13 lakhs. A few months later owing to the continued improvement in our credit

we were able to issue a rupee loan at a nominal rate of 3 per cent for the first time since 1898. The 3 per cent bonds 1951 were issued at 99 per cent and the amount subscribed was Rs. 16.67 lakhs. As a result of these new loans we have been able to repay Rs. 19.18 lakhs of 4 per cent loan 1931-37 and Rs. 12.91 lakhs of 4½ per cent bonds 1931. Both of the new loans stand well above their original price.

Next year we shall have to provide for the repayment of Rs. 10 crores of 6½ per cent Treasury Bonds, 1937, and Rs. 11.4 crores of 5 per cent Bonds 1935. We have also the option of repaying £11.5 millions of 6 per cent Sterling Bonds 1937-37 and £3½ millions of East Indian Railway 1½ per cent debenture stock 1935-55. The total amount of loans which we can repay or convert is thus approximately Rs. 19 crores. In addition to this we are, as I have just said, providing for the repayment of the Bombay Development Loan, 1935, and we expect to reduce the total amount of treasury bills outstanding by a further Rs. 3½ crores.

Allowing for a remittance of £26 million we anticipate that we could meet all these liabilities without raising more than Rs. 25 crores by fresh borrowing, but of course the amount, time and manner of our borrowing will depend entirely on market conditions during the year."

Decision—The Finance Bill was subjected to a protracted debate in the Legislative Assembly. Several amendments designed to reduce the scale of taxation proposed by the Finance Member were made, and the House accepted three amendments emanating from the Congress Party. These three amendments, which together had the effect of making a cut of about four and a half crores of rupees in the Budget, sought to reduce the salt duty from Re. 1-4 to 12 annas (which would have meant a loss of three and a half crores of rupees), to exempt incomes of less than Rs. 2,000 a year from payment of income tax (which would have cost Rs. 50 lakhs), and to lower postal rates by providing for a return to the half-anna postcard and the one anna letter (which would have cost Rs. 70 lakhs).

On April 5, His Excellency the Viceroy returned the Finance Bill to the Assembly with the recommendation that it should be passed in the original form. This the Assembly declined to do by rejecting the Finance Member's motion for the restoration of the salt duty to Re. 1-4, by 64 votes to 11.

The Finance Bill was thereupon certified by the President and sent to the Council of State in its original form. Several amendments to it were to have been moved by members of that House, but when it was learned that the Viceroy had no power to accept amendments made by the Council of State in the certified Bill, the amendments were not moved although members of the Progressive Party voted against certain proposals of the Finance Bill. The Bill in its original form was then passed, and with the addition of the Viceroy's Signature, it became law.

settlements, 50 per cent. or the rental in the case of *Zemindari* land may be regarded as virtually a maximum demand. In some parts the impost falls as low as 35 and even 25 per cent and only rarely is the proportion of one-half the rental exceeded in regard to *Ryot* classes. This Act greatly restricted the credit of the cultivator in payment of debt. It had the effect of arresting the process by which the *Ryot* peasantry were becoming the economic sort of money-lenders. A good deal of legislation affecting land tenure has been passed from time to time in other provinces, and it has been called for more than once in Bengal where under the Permanent Settlement (in the words of the Resolution quoted above), "so far from being generously treated by the *Zemindars*, the Bengal cultivator was rack-rented, impoverished, and oppressed."

Government and Cultivator.

While the Government thus interferes between landlord and tenant in the interests of the latter, its own attitude towards the cultivator is one of generosity. Attention has already been made of the great advantage to the agricultural classes generally of the elaborate systems of Land Survey and Records of rights carried out and maintained by Government. In the Administration Report of the Bombay for 1911-12, it is stated—"The Survey Department has cost the State from first to last many lakhs of rupees. But the outlay has been repaid over and over again. The extensions of cultivation which have occurred (by allowing cultivators to abandon unprofitable lands) have thus been profitable to the State no less than to the individuals; whereas under a *Zemindari* or *Ryot* system the State would have gained nothing, however much cultivation had extended throughout the whole of 80 years' leases." On the other hand, the system is of advantage to the cultivator in reducing settlement operations to a minimum of time and procedure. In the collection of revenue the Government consistently pursues a generous policy. In times of distress, suspensions and remissions are freely granted after proper inquiry. Land revenue is now a provincial head of accounts and is not shown in the All-India revenue and is not taken roughly at £28 million, as compared with £24 million said to have been raised annually by Aurangzade from a much smaller Empire.

Protection of the Tenants.

In regard to the second of the five propositions noted above, various Acts have been passed from time to time to protect the interests of the tenants against landlords, and also to give greater security to the latter in possession of their holdings. The Oudh Tenancy Act of 1886 placed important checks on enhancement of rent and eviction, and in 1900 an Act was passed enabling a landlord to entail the whole or a portion of his estate, and to place it beyond the danger of alienation by his heirs. The Punjab Land Alienation Act, 1900, has been the subject of considerable discussion in the House of Commons. The following should be consulted by readers who require fuller information—"Land Revenue Policy of the Indian Government," 1902 (Superintendent of Government Printing, Calcutta); "Land Systems of British India," Sir John Strachey's "India, its Administration and Progress, 1911," (Macmillan & Co.). Mr. Joseph Chatterjee's "Administrative Problems of British India" (Macmillan & Co., 1910), and the Annual Administrative Reports of the respective Provincial Governments.

ated. The main features of the existing system are restricted cultivation under supervision in Bonded Warehouses, payment of a quantitative duty before issue, retail sale under licenses and restoration on private possession. Licenses to retail all forms of bemp drugs are usually sold by auction. The sale of bhang has been prohibited in the Bombay Presidency except Bhang from the 1st April 1922.

[illegible]

INCOME TAX.

The income tax was first imposed in 1860, in order to meet the unanticipated cost of the Mutiny. It was levied at the rate of four per cent on the annual income of individuals and on the profits of companies. The income tax was first imposed in 1860, in order to meet the unanticipated cost of the Mutiny. It was levied at the rate of four per cent on the annual income of individuals and on the profits of companies. The income tax was first imposed in 1860, in order to meet the unanticipated cost of the Mutiny. It was levied at the rate of four per cent on the annual income of individuals and on the profits of companies.

(RATES OF INCOME TAX.)

A. In the case of every individual, Hindu undivided family, registered firm and other association or individuals not being a registered firm or company —

- | | | |
|-----|---|---------------------------------------|
| (1) | When the total income is less than Rs 2,000 | One anna in the rupee |
| (2) | When the total income is Rs. 2,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 5,000. | Nine pies in the rupee |
| (3) | When the total income is Rs 5,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 10,000. | One anna in the rupee |
| (4) | When the total income is Rs 10,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 15,000. | One anna and four pies in the rupee |
| (5) | When the total income is Rs 15,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 20,000. | One anna and seven pies in the rupee |
| (6) | When the total income is Rs 20,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 30,000. | One anna and eleven pies in the rupee |
| (7) | When the total income is Rs 30,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 40,000. | Two annas and one pie in the rupee |
| (8) | When the total income is Rs 40,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs 100,000. | Two annas and two pies in the rupee |
| (9) | When the total income is Rs 100,000 or upwards | Two annas and two pies in the rupee. |
| B. | In the case of every company and registered firm whatever its total income | |

N B—Additional tax (Sur-charge) for the financial year—

Year	at 12 1/2 per cent	at 25 per cent
1931-32	100	100
1932-33	100	100

over the rates prescribed by the Indian Finance Act, 1931, except in cases or income between Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,999

Tax at 2 pias on incomes between Rs 1,000 to Rs 1,999 for the year 1931-32 and Tax at 4 pias for the year 1932-33 on the same income. The surcharge was continued in the budget of 1933-34, as resolved by the assembly the rate or incomes between Rs. 1,000 and Rs 1,500 was reduced from 4 pias to 2 pias. The surcharge continues in 1934-35. By the 1935-36 budget the surcharge and the rate on incomes between Rs. 1,000 and Rs 2,000 was reduced by one-third.

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Silver.

The weight and fineness of the silver coins are —

Alloy.	Grains.	Grains.	Grains.	TOTAL
SILVER	FIN	Grains	Grains	
180	16	105	165	351
80	7½	82½	165	327½
46	3½	41½	165	327½
22½	1½	20½	165	327½

One rupee = 165 grains of fine silver.
One shilling = 80½ grains of fine silver.
One rupee = shillings 2 0439.

Copper and Bronze.

Copper coinage was introduced into the Bengal Presidency by Act XVII of 1835 and into the Madras and Bombay Presidencies by Act XXII of 1844.
The weight of the copper coins struck under Act XXIII of 1870 remained the same as it was in 1835. It was as follows:—

Grains	Double price or half-anna	Price or quarter-anna	Half-price or one-eighth of an anna	One being one-third of a price or one-eighth of an anna	The weight and dimensions of bronze coins are as follows:—
200	Standard Diameter
100	Weight in millimetres.
60	Grains Troy.
33½	

Nickel.

The Act of 1866 also provides for the coinage of a nickel coin. It was directed that the nickel one-anna piece should thenceforth be coined at the mint and issued. The notification also prescribed the design of the coin, which has a wavy edge with twelve scoops, the greatest diameter of the coin being 21 millimetres and the least diameter 19.8 millimetres. The design of the coin was considered by the Government of India in 1869 but after consultation with Local Governments it was decided not to take action in this direction until the people had become thoroughly familiar with the present one-anna coin. The two-anna nickel coin was introduced in 1917-18; and the four-anna and eight-anna nickel coins in 1919. The eight-anna nickel is now being withdrawn from circulation.

one-half of the coinage profits should be paid into the reserve, the remainder being used for capital expenditure on railways.

Gold.

Since 1870 there had been no coinage of double mohurs in India and the last coinage of single mohurs before 1918 in which year coinage was resumed, was in the year 1891-92.

A Royal proclamation was issued in 1918 establishing a branch of the Royal Mint at Bombay. It stated:—Subject to the provision of this proclamation the Bombay Branch Mint shall for the purpose of the coinage of gold coins be deemed to be part of the Mint, and accordingly, (a) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint shall comply with all directions he may receive from the Master of the Mint whether as regards the expenditure to be incurred or the returns to be made or the transmission of specimen coins to England or otherwise and (b) the said specimen coins shall be subject to the trial of the dyk under section 12 of the Coinage Act, 1870, so that they shall be examined separately from the coins coined in England or at any other branch of the Mint, and (c) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint and other officers and persons employed for the purpose of carrying on the business of the Branch Mint may be appointed, promoted, suspended and removed and their duties assigned and salaries awarded and in accordance with the provisions of section 15 of the Coinage Act, 1870. Pending the completion of the arrangements at the Branch, Royal Mint, power was taken by legislation to coin in India gold mohurs of the same weight and fineness as the new coins of the nominal value of Rs. 3, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, 50, 55, 60, 65, 70, 75, 80, 85, 90, 95, 100, 110, 120, 130, 140, 150, 160, 170, 180, 190, 200, 210, 220, 230, 240, 250, 260, 270, 280, 290, 300, 310, 320, 330, 340, 350, 360, 370, 380, 390, 400, 410, 420, 430, 440, 450, 460, 470, 480, 490, 500, 510, 520, 530, 540, 550, 560, 570, 580, 590, 600, 610, 620, 630, 640, 650, 660, 670, 680, 690, 700, 710, 720, 730, 740, 750, 760, 770, 780, 790, 800, 810, 820, 830, 840, 850, 860, 870, 880, 890, 900, 910, 920, 930, 940, 950, 960, 970, 980, 990, 1000, 1010, 1020, 1030, 1040, 1050, 1060, 1070, 1080, 1090, 1100, 1110, 1120, 1130, 1140, 1150, 1160, 1170, 1180, 1190, 1200, 1210, 1220, 1230, 1240, 1250, 1260, 1270, 1280, 1290, 1300, 1310, 1320, 1330, 1340, 1350, 1360, 1370, 1380, 1390, 1400, 1410, 1420, 1430, 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The Currency System.

The working of the Indian currency system which has commanded a large amount of public attention since 1893, was forced to the front in 1920, as the result of measures taken to stabilize the exchange value of the rupee after the fluctuations caused by the war. These assumed so

I. THE SILVER STANDARD.

Closing the Mints.—The whole question was examined by a strong committee under the

presidency of Lord Herschell, whose report is commonly called the Herschell Report. It was decided in 1893 to close the mints to the re-minted silver of silver. This step led, as was intended, to a gradual divergence between the exchange value of the rupee and the gold value of the silver content. Government ceased to add rupees to the circulation. Rupees continued to be used for all internal transactions, and no one else had the power to coin rupees, as soon as circumstances led to an increased demand for rupees, the exchange value of the rupee began to rise. By 1898 it had approached the figure of one shilling and four pence. Meanwhile, in response to the underselling of Government to give notes or rupees for gold at the rate of fifteen rupees to the pound sterling, gold began to accumulate in the paper currency reserve. These purposes having been attained, a second committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Sir Henry Fowler to consider what further steps should be adopted in the light of these conditions. The report of the Fowler Committee as it was called marked the second stage in Indian currency policy.

II. THE NEW STANDARD.

one and four pence, the profits were considerable, they were to have been kept in gold, so as to be freely available when required for the support of exchange.

A 16 pence Rupee.—The Government of India proposed to accept all the recommendations of the Fowler Committee, actually only a portion of them was put in practice. The official rate of exchange was fixed at one and four pence. The sovereign and the half sovereign were declared unimpaired legal tender in India. But after a first attempt, when sovereigns soon came back to the treasury, no effort was made to support the gold standard by an active gold currency. The gold mint was not set up. The Gold Standard Reserve was established, but invested in British securities. These practices gave rise to conditions which were never contemplated by the Fowler Committee. Rupees continued to be coined against the Home Charges of the Government of India, while at the time amounted to about seventeen million sterling a year. These are met by the sale of what are called Bills. That is to say, the Secretary of State, acting on behalf of the Government of India, sold Bills against gold deposited in the Bank of England in London. These Bills when presented

to the public at halfpenny, and they were sold to the public at a price of about eleven pence. The Fowler Committee rejected the proposal to re-open the mints to the free coinage of silver. They proposed that the exchange value of the rupee should be fixed at one shilling and four pence, so fifteen rupees to the sovereign. They further suggested that the British sovereign should be made a legal tender and a current coin in India; that the Indian mints should be thrown open to the unregulated coinage of gold; so that the rupee and the sovereign should freely circulate side by side in India. The goal which the Committee had in view was a gold standard supported by a gold currency. Now under the condition which comprised the Government of India to give either rupees or rupee notes for gold tendered in India, at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, it was impossible for the rate of exchange to rise above one shilling and four pence, save by the fraction which covered the cost of shipping gold to India. But if the balance of trade turned against India, it was still possible for the rate of exchange to fall. To meet this the Fowler Committee recommended that the profits on coinage rupees should not be absorbed in the general reserve, but should be set aside in a special reserve, to be called the Gold Standard Reserve. Inasmuch as the cost of coining rupees was approximately eleven pence

New Measures.—The conclusions of this Commission were that it was unnecessary to support the Gold Standard by a gold currency; that it was not to the advantage of India to encourage the internal use of gold as currency; that the internal currency should be supported by a thoroughly adequate reserve of gold and that the internal currency should be supported by a branch of the Gold Standard Reserve, one-half of which should be held in gold, that the silver portion of the Gold Standard Reserve should be sold on demand, that the Paper Currency should be made more elastic; and that there should be two Indian representatives on the India Office Finance Committee.

The Commission was of the opinion that the Gold Standard Reserve should be sold on demand, that the Paper Currency should be made more elastic; and that there should be two Indian representatives on the India Office Finance Committee.

IV. CURRENCY AND THE WAR.

The report was in the hands of the Government of India shortly before the outbreak of the war. Some adjustments were taken, like the abolition of the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve, but before the Government could deal fully with the temporary recommendations of the Commission, the war broke out. The early effects of the war were precisely those anticipated. There was a demand for sterling remittances which was met by the sale of Reserve Councils, Rs. 70,000, being sold up to the end of January, 1915. There were withdrawals from the Post Office Savings Bank, and a not sum of Rs. 800,000 was taken away. There was some lack of confidence in the Note issue, and a demand for gold. Notes to the extent of Rs. 10 crores were presented for encasement and the Government were obliged to suspend the issue of gold. But these were transient features and did not hinder a moratorium; confidence was soon revived and the Note issue continued strong. The difficulties which afterwards arose were from causes completely unrelated to the currency of the Indian Empire. The rise in the price of silver and a consequent rise in the price of silver in India on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom and the Allies were not by credit in India. It could be financed by the expansion of the Note issue, and the raising of sterling securities in the United Kingdom, and the issue of gold and silver in India on the movement of gold and silver in the previous metals, owing to the universal could not be financed either by the import of gold or by the export of gold. This balance by December 1919 was £20,000,000. The balance of the United Kingdom and the Allies were in India on behalf of the Government of the previous quinquennial. The disbursement of the previous quinquennial years millions a year above the corresponding years of the previous quinquennial years. It was the price of silver in India on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom and the Allies were not by credit in India. It could be financed by the expansion of the Note issue, and the raising of sterling securities in the United Kingdom, and the issue of gold and silver in India on the movement of gold and silver in the previous metals, owing to the universal could not be financed either by the import of gold or by the export of gold. This balance by December 1919 was £20,000,000. The balance of the United Kingdom and the Allies were in India on behalf of the Government of the previous quinquennial. The disbursement of the previous quinquennial years millions a year above the corresponding years of the previous quinquennial years.

Rise in Exchange.—The measures adopted by the Government of India in these emergency circumstances were to bring exchange under rigid control, containing remittance to the finance of articles of national importance. The next step was to raise the rate for the sale of Council Bills, so that silver might be purchased at a price which would allow rupees to be coined without loss. The following table shows how rates were raised from one shilling fourpence to two shillings fourpence —

Minimum Rate for Immediate Telegraphic Transfers	Date of Introduction.
1 4	3rd January 1917
1 5	28th August 1917
1 6	12th April 1918
1 8	13th May 1919
1 10	12th August 1919
2 0	15th September 1919
2 2	22nd November 1919
2 4	12th December 1919

V. THE 1919 COMMITTEE.

The effect of the measures however was to fix on the currency policy pursued from 1893 to 1915, the main object of which was to stabilize the rupee at one and fourpence. The war had a very serious effect on the future of India in regard to the future of Indian exchange and the Indian currency system.

(1) It is desirable to restore stability to the rupee and to re-establish the automatic working of the Indian currency system.

- (14) The reduction of the fines or weight of the rupee, the issue of 2 or 3-rupee coins of lower proportional silver content than the present rupee, or the issue of a nickel rupee, are expedients that cannot be recommended.
- (15) The maintenance of the convertibility of the note issue is essential, and proposals that do not adequately protect the Indian paper currency from the risk of becoming inconvertible cannot be entertained.
- (16) The rise in exchange, in so far as it has checked and mitigated the rise in Indian prices, has been to the advantage of the country as a whole, and it is desirable to secure the continuance of this benefit.
- (17) Indian trade is not likely to suffer any permanent injury from the falling of exchange at a high level.
- (18) Contrary to expectation, a great and rapid fall in world prices were to take place, and if the costs of production in India fail to adjust themselves with equal rapidity to the lower level of prices, then it might be necessary to consider the problem afresh.
- (19) The development of Indian industry would not be seriously hampered by a high rate of exchange.
- (20) The gain to India of a high rate of exchange for meeting the Home charges is an incidental advantage that must be taken into consideration.
- (21) To postpone fixing a stable rate of exchange would be open to serious criticism, and entail prolongation of Government control.
- (22) The balance of advantage is decidedly on the side of fixing the exchange value of the rupee in terms of gold rather than in terms of sterling.
- (23) The stable relation to be established between the rupee and gold should be at the rate of Rs 10 to one sovereign, or, in other words, the rate of one rupee for 1130.1016 grains of fine gold, both for foreign exchange and for internal circulation.
- (24) If silver for more than a brief period should be the party of (gold), the situation should be met by all other available means rather than by impairing the convertibility of the note issue. Such measures might be (a) reduction of sale of Council Bills, (b) abstention from purchase of silver, (c) use of gold to meet demands for metallic currency. If it should be absolutely necessary to purchase silver, the Government should be prepared to purchase even at a price such that rupees would be coined at a loss.
- (25) Council drafts are primarily sold not for the convenience of trade but to provide for the Home charges in the wider sense of the term. There is no obligation to sell drafts to meet all trade demands, but, if without inconvenience or with advantage the Secretary of State is in a position to sell drafts in excess of his immediate needs, when a trade demand for them exists, there is no objection to his doing so, subject to the location of the reserves.
- Council drafts should be sold as now by open tender at competitive rates, a minimum rate being fixed from time to time on the basis of the sterling cost of shipping gold to India. At present this rate will vary, but when sterling is again equivalent to gold, it will remain uniform.
- (26) The existing silver rupees of 165 grains of fine silver at present in circulation to continue to be legal tender.
- (27) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of gold bullion and gold coins.
- (28) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of silver bullion and silver coins.
- (29) The money standard in India should remain unfettered; that is, the standard of the foreign and gold money with rupees related thereto at the ratio of 15 to 1.
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(c) As long as the price of silver in New York is over 92 cents, Government should not manufacture silver coins containing 166 grains fine silver.

(f) As long as the price of silver is over 92 cents Government should coin 2 rupee silver coins of reduced fineness compared with that of the present silver rupee and the same to be unlimited legal tender.

(g) Government to sell Council Bills by competitive tenders for the amount demanded in the bidding as required to be remitted to the Secretary.

VI. THE TWO SHILLING RUPEE

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Effect of the Rise.—The effect of a rise in exchange has been well described in the words of the Currency Committee's Report, it is that a rising exchange stimulates imports and impedes exports, the effect of a falling exchange is the reverse.

Now upon the official notification of the two shilling rupee value the Indian export trade was weak. The great consuming markets of Great Britain and America were glutted with Indian produce. The governments of Europe, India and the United States were in demand for it, but not the whereof to pay for it. The Indian exports which were in demand were foodstuffs, and as the value of 1920 fell wide area, the Government was not able to fill the void, and so the export for foodstuffs, on the other hand, the import was strong. Orders had been placed for machinery and other munitions during the war and after the Armistice for the disposition of the surplus. These began to come forward. Difficulties accentuated—in accordance with the principles laid down by the Currency Committee these difficulties were accentuated by the action of Government in raising exchange by an administrative act. The result was almost killed. For the same reason the exchange was almost killed. At the same time the Government was almost killed. For the same reason the exchange was almost killed.

The Report Adopted—The Currency Committee's report was signed in December 1920, but it was not until February 1920 that action was taken thereon. In the first week of that month a National Convention in India accepted the principal recommendations in the report and notified that the necessary official action would be taken by the Government. This action covered a wide field, but for the sake of clarity in this article we shall concentrate on the main issues. The change in the official monetary arrangements referred to in the report was all concentrated on the main issue of the exchange rate. The effect on the exchange rate was to be secured by a policy of "gold standard" in which the gold price of the rupee was to be fixed at 105 to the pound. This was a radical change from the existing position, which was based on the gold price of the rupee being fixed at 100 to the pound. The new standard was to be maintained by the Government of India, and the gold price of the rupee was to be fixed at 105 to the pound. This was a radical change from the existing position, which was based on the gold price of the rupee being fixed at 100 to the pound. The new standard was to be maintained by the Government of India, and the gold price of the rupee was to be fixed at 105 to the pound.

checked the export of Indian cotton. Japan is the largest buyer of Indian cotton, and when her to re-sell in the Indian markets, the trade was severely shaken and stocks accumulated at a high rate. Even before the 1920 crop came into the market the stocks in Bombay were probably close to the corresponding period of the previous year. The expectations of a revival in the buying power of the Continent which were held in many quarters were disappointed and throughout the year there was a heavy drain on the Indian India, which made the establishment of exchange at the high ratio attempted a hopeless proposition.

Confession of Failure—Government struggling long against these conditions in the desperate handiwork by the variations of the sterling-dollar exchange, which at one time took the rate for Reserve Councils to two shillings and pence halfpenny. They sold two millions of Reserve Councils a week, then two millions, then dropped down to a steady million. But their policy only aggravated the situation. In addition to arresting the export trade and stimulating the import trade at a time when the proceeds were demanded, their action created an artificial movement for the transfer of capital from India to England. Large war profits accumulated in India since 1914 were hurriedly liquidated and transferred to England. Then the difference between the Reserve Council rate and the market rate, which on some occasions was several pence, induced gigantic speculations. The Exchange Banks set aside all their available resources for the purpose of bidding for bills, and at once sold their allotments at substantial profits. Considerable groups of speculative pooled their resources and followed the same course. In this way the weekly bidding for the million of Reserve Councils varied from a hundred and 20 millions to a hundred and thirty millions and the money market was completely disorganised. The bidding assumed such proportions that it was necessary to put up fifty lakhs of rupees to obtain the smallest allotment made, five thousand pounds, and Reserve Councils and the large profits thereon came under the control of the Banks and the wealthy speculators. Various expedients were tried to remedy the situation but without the slightest effect.

Sterling for Gold—The first debate broke from the recommendations of the Currency Committee came at the end of June, when the Government announced the intention of trying to stabilise the rupee at two shillings sterling, leaving the gap between sterling and gold to be closed when the dollar-sterling rate became par. The effect of this was to alter the rate at which Reserve Councils were sold from the fluctuating rate involved in the fluctuations of dollar-sterling exchange to a fixed sterling rate, namely, one shilling elevenpence thirteen-thirty seconds. But this had little practical effect. The bid prices for Reserve Councils continued on a very big scale, and the market rate for exchange was always two pence or three pence below the Reserve Council rate. This practice continued until the end of September, when it was officially declared.

that Reserve Councils would be stopped altogether. Exchange immediately slipped to between one and sixpence and one and seven-pence, and it continued to range between these narrow points until the end of the year. The market made its own rate, it made a more stable rate than the efforts of Government to obtain an administrative stability.

Other Measures—Apart from the effort to stabilise exchange, which had such unfortunate results, the policy of Government had certain losses to be exchanged, which had such unfortunate results. During the year all restrictions on the movement of the precious metals were removed, in accordance with the recommendations of the Currency Committee. This included the abandonment of the import duty on silver, always a sore point with Indian bullionists. A revision of the action was taken to alter the official ratio of the sovereign from fifteen to one to ten to one, due notice of this intention was given to holders of sovereigns and of the gold mohurs which were coined as an emergency measure in 1918, and they were given the option of tendering them at fifteen rupees. As the gold value of these coins was above fifteen rupees only a limited number was tendered, although there was extensive smuggling of sovereigns into India to take advantage of the premium. These measures were adopted to give greater elasticity to the proportion of the Note issue was fixed by the law or by Ordinance. An Act was passed fixing the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve at fifty per cent. of the Note issue, the unissued portion being limited to 20 per cent. in Indian securities and the balance in British securities of not more than twice monthly currency. The unissued portion of the Paper Currency Reserve was retained at the rate of 20 per cent. and an undertaking was given that the proceeds on the Note issue would be devoted to writing off the depreciation, as also would be the interest on the Gold Standard Reserve when the total had reached £40 millions. Further, in order to give greater elasticity to the Note issue, power was taken to issue 15 per cent. of emergency currency in the busy season against commercial bills. These measures, save the alteration of the ratio, were generally approved by the commercial public.

Resuits—It remains to sum up the results of these measures. In a pregnant sentence in their report the Currency Committee say that whilst a fixed rate of exchange exercises little influence on the course of trade, a floating exchange impedes exports and stimulates imports, a falling rate of exchange exercises a reverse influence. Here we have the key to the failure of the emergency policy attempted. At the moment when it was sought suddenly and violently to raise the rate of exchange by the introduction of the new ratio of two shillings gold, the export trade was weak and the import trade in obedience to the very principle enunciated by the Currency Committee wrecked the policy which they recommended. The rising rate of exchange accelerated the weak export trade and gave a great stimulus to imports. Unchecked forces, such as the financial crisis in Japan, the lack of buying power on the Continent, and the movement for the transfer of capital from India to England at the

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the effort to establish a common rate the new rate, the loss on this—this is the difference between the cost of putting it into circulation and the profit which it would make in London and in bringing it back to India—was its 35 crores of rupees. Government sold 25 millions of gold, although breaking at serious loss the premium on gold. The Secretary of State, in the absence of any demand for Council Bills, was able to finance its expenditure in England and only through the lucky chance of heavy expenditure on behalf of the Imperial Government for the forces in Mesopotamia—this expenditure being made in India and not by payments in London. The only advantages were a considerable contraction of the Note issue and the silver token currency.

(2) An obligation should be imposed by statute on the bank to buy and sell gold with-
out limit at prices determined with reference
to a fixed gold parity of the rupee but in quan-
tities of not less than 100 fine ounces, no limit-
ation being imposed as to the purpose for
which the gold is required

(3) The Issue Department of the Reserve
Bank should be kept wholly distinct from its
Banking Department

(r) The Reserve Bank should be authorized to sell gold to the public in order to maintain the stability of the currency. The Reserve Bank should be authorized to sell gold to the public in order to maintain the stability of the currency. The Reserve Bank should be authorized to sell gold to the public in order to maintain the stability of the currency.

(xii) Government should offer "on tap" savings certificates redeemable in 3 or 5 years in legal tender money or gold at the option of the holder.

(1st) The paper currency should cease to be convertible by law into silver coin. It should, however, be the duty of the Bank to maintain the free interchangeability of the different forms of legal tender currency, and of the Government to supply coin to the Bank on demand.

(2nd) One rupee notes should be re-issued and silver coins should be full legal tender.

(3rd) The cash balances of the Government (including any balances of the Government of India and of the Secretary of State outside India), as well as the banking reserves in India, should be transferred to the Reserve Bank. Section 23 of the Government of India Act should be amended accordingly.

(xv) Notes other than the one-rupee note should be legally convertible into legal tender money, i.e., into notes of smaller denomination or silver rupees at the option of the currency authority.

(xxii) No change should be made in the legal tender character of the silver rupee and the Paper Currency and Gold Standard Reserves should be amalgamated, and the proportions and composition of the combined Reserve should be fixed by statute.

(xxiii) The proportional reserve system should be adopted for gold and silver coins.

It is suggested that the Government should consider the possibility of allowing the gold holding at least one-half should be held in India. It is suggested that the Government should consider the possibility of allowing the gold holding at least one-half should be held in India. It is suggested that the Government should consider the possibility of allowing the gold holding at least one-half should be held in India.

(xx) The silver holding in the Reserve should be very substantially reduced during a transitional period of ten years.

(xx) The balance of the Reserve should be held in self-liquidating trade bills and Government of India securities. The "ceiling" securities should be replaced by marketable securities within ten years.

(xx) A figure of Rs 50 crores has been fixed as the liability in respect of the contract-bill of the rupee circulation. Recommendations are made to secure that an amount equal to one-fifth of the face value of any increase or decrease in the number of silver rupees in gold standard based on a gold currency, and for a system following the Fowler Report—some which was often called the Gold-Reserve Securities of State, who had in view the efforts were emanulated by and gold standard based on a gold currency, and for a system following the Fowler Report—some which was often called the Gold-Reserve Securities of State, who had in view the efforts were emanulated by and

Composition of the Currency Reserve held against the note circulation at the end of each month (in lakhs of rupees.)

MONTH.	Gross circulation of notes.	COIN AND BULLION RESERVE.								SECURITIES.		
		Silver coin in India.	Gold bullion in India.	Silver bullion in India.	Gold bullion in England.	Silver bullion in England.	Gold bullion in His Majesty's Dominions.	Gold bullion in transit between India and England and His Majesty's Dominions.	Silver bullion in transit between India and England and His Majesty's Dominions.	Sterling securities in England.	Rupee securities in India.	Internal bills of exchange.
1933.												
March ..	1,70,00	90,31	25,00	15,52	39,05	..
April ..	1,70,00	96,70	20,26	15,88	38,82	..
May ..	1,73,00	94,27	20,45	14,01	40,03	..
June ..	1,70,57	93,02	20,07	0,52	41,06	..
July ..	1,78,88	95,28	20,13	0,84	41,03	..
August ..	1,70,70	95,45	20,31	0,00	45,01	..
September ..	1,70,70	91,01	20,51	10,10	45,42	..
October ..	1,80,01	91,38	20,70	0,01	40,10	..
November ..	1,70,01	92,07	20,24	10,30	40,13	..
December ..	1,78,11	90,71	30,51	10,40	40,37	..
1931												
January ..	1,77,00	80,01	37,32	10,70	40,36	..
February ..	1,77,20	87,81	37,56	11,13	40,79	..
March ..	1,77,22	80,19	41,53	11,50	8,25	20,15	..

government of which does not discriminate in favour of Indian subjects of His Majesty, and having a branch in British India, shall be registered as a shareholder or be entitled to payment of any dividend on any share, and no person, having been duly registered as a shareholder, ceases to be qualified to be so registered, shall be able to exercise any or the rights of a shareholder otherwise than for the purpose of the sale of his shares.

(1) The Governor-General in Council shall, by notification in the Gazette of India, specify the parts of His Majesty's Dominions which shall be deemed for the purposes of clauses (2) and (3) of sub-section (1) to be the parts of His Majesty's Dominion, in which no discrimination against Indian subjects of His Majesty exists.

(5) The nominal value of the shares originally assigned to the various registers shall be as follows, namely:—

(a) to the Bombay register—one hundred and forty lakhs of rupees,

(b) to the Calcutta register—one hundred and forty-five lakhs of rupees,

(c) to the Delhi register—one hundred and fifteen lakhs of rupees,

(d) to the Madras register—seventy lakhs of rupees,

(e) to the Kangoon register—thirty lakhs of rupees.

Provided that at the first allotment the total nominal value of the shares on the Delhi register for which applications are received is less than one hundred and fifteen lakhs of rupees, the Central Board shall, before proceeding to any allotment, transfer any shares not applied for up to a maximum nominal value of fifty-five lakhs of rupees from that register in two equal portions to the Bombay and the Calcutta registers.

A Committee consisting of two elected members of the Assembly and one elected member of the Council of State to be elected by non-official members of the respective Houses shall be associated with the Central Board for the purpose of making public issue of shares and looking after the first allotment of shares.

(6) In allotting the shares assigned to a register, the Central Board shall, in the first instance, allot five shares to each qualified applicant who has applied for five or more shares, and if the number of such applicants is greater than one-fifth of the total number of shares assigned to the register, shall determine by lot the applicants to whom the shares shall be allotted.

(7) If the number of such applicants is less than one-fifth of the number of shares assigned to the register, the Central Board shall allot the remaining shares first, up to the limit of one-half of such remaining shares, to those applicants who have applied for less than five shares, and thereafter as to the balance to the various applicants in such manner as it may deem fit and equitable, having regard to the desirability of distributing the shares and the voting rights attached to them as widely as possible.

The general superintendence and direction of the affairs and business of the Bank shall be entrusted to a Central Board of Directors which may exercise all powers and do all acts and things which may be exercised or done by the Bank and are not by this Act expressly directed or required to be done by the Bank in general meeting.

(8) Notwithstanding anything contained in sub-sections (6) and (7), the Central Board shall reserve for and allot to Government shares of the nominal value of two lakhs and twenty thousand rupees to be held by Government for disposal at par to Directors seeking to obtain the minimum share qualification required under sub-section (2) of section 11.

(9) If, after all applications have been met in accordance with the provisions of sub-sections (6), (7) and (8), any shares remain unallotted, they shall, notwithstanding anything contained in this section, be allotted to and taken up by Government, and shall be sold by the Governor-General in Council as soon as may be, at not less than par, to residents of the areas served by the register concerned.

(10) The Governor-General in Council shall have no right to exercise any vote under this Act by reason of any shares allotted to him under sub-section (8) or under sub-section (9).

(11) A Director shall not dispose of any shares obtained from Government under the provisions of sub-section (8) otherwise than by re-sale to Government at par, and Government shall be entitled to re-purchase at par all such shares held by any Director on his ceasing from any cause to hold office as Director.

Increases and reduction of share capital.

(1) The share capital of the Bank may be increased or reduced on the recommendation of the Central Board, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council and with the approval of the Central Legislature, to such extent and in such manner as may be determined by the Bank in general meeting.

(2) The additional shares so created shall be of the nominal value of one hundred rupees each and shall be assigned to the various registers in the same proportions as the shares constituting the original share capital.

(3) Such additional shares shall be fully paid up, and the price at which they may be issued shall be fixed by the Central Board with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council.

(4) The provisions of section 4 relating to the manner of allotment of the shares constituting the original share capital shall apply to the allotment of such additional shares, and existing shareholders shall not enjoy any preferential right to the allotment of such additional shares.

The Bank shall, as soon as may be, establish offices in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras and Kangoon and a branch in London, and may establish branches or agencies in any other place in India or, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, elsewhere.

(1) The Central Board shall consist of the following Directors, namely—

(a) a Governor and two Deputy Governors, to be appointed by the Governor General in Council after consultation of the recommendations made by the Board in that behalf

(b) four Directors to be nominated by the Governor General in Council

(c) eight Directors to be elected on behalf of the shareholders on the various territories, in the manner provided in section 9 and in the following numbers, namely—

- (i) for the Bombay register—two Directors,
- (ii) for the Calcutta register—two Directors,
- (iii) for the Delhi register—two Directors,
- (iv) for the Madras register—one Director,
- (v) for the Bangalore register—one Director,

(2) The Governor and Deputy Governors shall devote their whole time to the affairs of the Bank, and shall receive such salaries and allowances as may be determined by the Central Board, with the approval of the Governor General in Council

(3) A Deputy Governor and the Director nominated under clause (2) of sub-section (1) may take part in its deliberations but shall not be entitled to vote

Provided that when the Governor is absent a Deputy Governor authorized by him in this behalf in writing may vote for him

(4) The Governor and a Deputy Governor shall hold office for such term not exceeding five years as the Governor General in Council may fix when appointing them, and shall be eligible for re-appointment

A Director nominated under clause (2) or elected under clause (3) of sub-section (1) shall hold office for five years, or thereafter until his successor, shall have been duly nominated or elected, and, subject to the provisions of section 10, shall be eligible for re-nomination or re-election

A Director nominated under clause (2) of sub-section (1) shall hold office during the pleasure of the Governor General in Council—

(5) No act or proceeding of the Board shall be questioned on the ground merely of the existence of any vacancy in, or any defect in the constitution of, the Board

Local Boards—(1) Local Board shall be constituted for each of the five areas specified in the First Schedule, and shall consist of—

(a) five members elected from amongst themselves by the shareholders who are registered on the register for that area and are qualified to vote, and

(b) not more than three members nominated by the Central Board from amongst the shareholders registered on the register for that area, who may be nominated at any time.

(2) not more than three members nominated by the Central Board from amongst the shareholders registered on the register for that area, who may be nominated at any time.

Provided that the Central Board shall exercise this power of nomination and re-appointing the representatives of shareholders, and in no interests not already represented, and in furthering the representation of territorial or economic interests and the interests of co-operative banks

(2) At the election of members of a Local Board for any area, any shareholder who has been registered in the register for that area, for a period of not less than six months ending with the date of the election, is holding five shares or more, and such votes shall be counted as having more than five shares, but subject to a maximum of ten votes, and such votes may be exercised by proxy, appointed on each occasion for that purpose, and proxy being himself a shareholder entitled to vote at the election and not being in employ of the Bank

(3) The members of a Local Board shall hold office until they vacate it under sub-section (6) and, subject to the provisions of section 10, shall be eligible for re-election or re-nomination, as the case may be

(4) At any time within three months of the day on which the Directors representing the shareholders on any register are due to retire under the provisions of this Act, the Central Board shall direct an election to be held of members of the Local Board concerned, and shall specify a date from which the registration of transfer from and to the register shall be suspended until the election is taken place

(5) On the issue of such direction the Local Board shall give notice of the date of the election and shall publish a list of shareholders holding two or more shares, with the dates on which their shares were registered, and with their registered addresses, and such list shall be available for purchase not less than three weeks before the date fixed for the election.

(6) The names of the persons elected shall be notified to the Central Board which shall thereupon proceed to make any nomination permitted by clause (2) of sub-section (1) it may then decide to make, and shall fix the date on which the outgoing members of the Local Board shall vacate office, and the incoming members shall be deemed to have assumed office on that date

(7) The elected members of a Local Board shall, as soon as may be after they have been elected, elect from amongst themselves one or two persons, as the case may be, to be Directors representing to the shareholders on the register for the area for which the Board is constituted

(8) A Local Board shall advise the Central Board on such matters as may be generally or specially referred to it and shall perform such duties as the Board may, by regulations, delegate to it.

(1) No person may be a Director or a member of a Local Board who—

(a) is a salaried government official or a salaried official of a State in India, or

- (b) is, or at any time has been, adjudicated member of any such Legislative, he shall cease to be a Director or member of the Local Board as from the date of such election or nomination, as the case may be.
- (6) A Director may resign his office to the Local Board in Council, and a member of a Board, and on the acceptance of the resignation the office shall become vacant.
- (1) If the Governor or a Deputy Governor by arrangement or otherwise is rendered incapable of executing his duties or is absent on leave or otherwise in circumstances not involving the vacation of his appointment, the Governor may, after consultation with the Central Board, make any such arrangement as he may think fit for the purpose of enabling the duties of the office to be performed.
- (2) An elected Director is for any reason unable to attend a particular meeting of the Central Board, the elected members of the Local Board of the area which he represents may elect one of their number to take his place, and for the purposes of that meeting the substitute so elected shall have all the powers or the absent Director.
- (3) Where any casual vacancy occurs in the office of a Director other than the vacancies provided for in sub-section (1), the vacancy shall be filled, in the case of a nominated Director by nomination, and in the case of an elected Director by election held in the manner provided in section 9 for the election of Directors.
- (4) Where any casual vacancy occurs in the members of the Local Board
- (5) A person nominated or elected under this section to fill a casual vacancy shall, subject to the provisions contained in sub-section (4), hold office for the unexpired portion of the term of his predecessor.
- (1) Meetings of the Central Board shall be convened by the Governor at least six times in each year and at least once in each quarter.
- (2) Any three Directors may require the Governor to convene a meeting of the Central Board at any time, and the Governor shall forthwith convene a meeting accordingly.
- (3) The Governor, or in his absence the Deputy Governor authorized by the Governor under the proviso to sub-section (3) of section 8 to vote for him, shall preside at meetings of the Central Board, and, in the event of an equality of votes, shall have a second or casting vote.
- (4) A Director or member of a Local Board removed or ceasing to hold office under the foregoing sub-sections shall not be eligible for re-appointment either as Director or as member of a Local Board until the expiry of the term for which his appointment was made.
- (5) The appointment, nomination or election as Director or member of a Local Board of any person who is a member of the Indian Legislature or of a local Legislative body shall be void, unless, within two months of the date of his appointment, nomination or election, he ceases to be a Director or member of such body, and, if any Director or member of a Local Board is elected or nominated as a Local Board, he shall have a second or casting vote.
- (6) is, or at any time has been, adjudicated member of any such Legislative, he shall cease to be a Director or member of the Local Board as from the date of such election or nomination, as the case may be.
- (7) is found insane or becomes of unsound mind, or
- (8) is an officer or employee of any bank, or
- (9) is a Director of any bank, other than a bank which is a society registered or deemed to be a society under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1912, or any other law for the time being in force in British India relating to co-operative societies
- (10) No two persons who are partners of the same mercantile firm, or are directors of the same firm or company, or one of whom is the general manager or proprietor from the time of the incorporation of the firm, or of whom the other is a partner, may be Directors or members of the same Local Board at the same time.
- (11) Nothing in clause (9), clause (10) or clause (11) shall apply to the Governor, or to a Deputy Governor, or to the Director nominated under clause (7) of sub-section (1) of section 8.
- (12) The Governor General in Council may remove from office the Governor, or a Deputy Governor, or any nominated or elected Director provided that in the case of a Director nominated or elected under clause (b) or clause (c) of section 8, his power shall be exercised only on a resolution passed by the Central Board in that behalf by a majority consisting of not less than nine Directors.
- (13) The Governor General in Council shall remove from office any Director or member of the Local Board who is found to be incapable of performing his duties, or who is absent on leave or otherwise in circumstances not involving the vacation of his appointment, the Governor may, after consultation with the Central Board, make any such arrangement as he may think fit for the purpose of enabling the duties of the office to be performed.
- (14) Where any casual vacancy occurs in the members of the Local Board
- (15) A person nominated or elected under this section to fill a casual vacancy shall, subject to the provisions contained in sub-section (4), hold office for the unexpired portion of the term of his predecessor.
- (16) Meetings of the Central Board shall be convened by the Governor at least six times in each year and at least once in each quarter.
- (17) Any three Directors may require the Governor to convene a meeting of the Central Board at any time, and the Governor shall forthwith convene a meeting accordingly.
- (18) The Governor, or in his absence the Deputy Governor authorized by the Governor under the proviso to sub-section (3) of section 8 to vote for him, shall preside at meetings of the Central Board, and, in the event of an equality of votes, shall have a second or casting vote.

General Meetings—(1) A general meeting (hereinafter in this Act referred to as the annual general meeting) shall be held annually at a place where there is an office of the Bank within six weeks from the date on which the annual accounts of the Bank are closed, and a general meeting may be convened by the Central Board at any other time.

Provided that the annual general meeting shall not be held on two consecutive occasions at any one place.

(2) The shareholders present at a general meeting shall be entitled to discuss the annual accounts, the report of the Central Board on the working of the Bank throughout the year and the auditors' report on the annual balance sheet and accounts.

(3) Every shareholder shall be entitled to attend at any general meeting and each shareholder who has been registered on any register, for a period of not less than six months ending with the date of the meeting, as holding five or more shares shall have one vote and on a poll being demanded each shareholder so registered shall have one vote for each five shares, but subject to a maximum of ten votes and such votes may be exercised by proxy appointed on each occasion for that purpose, such proxy being himself a shareholder entitled to vote at the election and not being an officer or employee of the Bank.

(1) The following provisions shall apply to the first constitution of the Central Board, and, notwithstanding anything contained in section 8, the Central Board as constituted in accordance with this Act.

(2) The first Governor and the first Deputy Governor or Deputy Governors shall be appointed by the Governor General in Council on his own initiative, and shall receive such salaries and allowances as he may determine.

(3) The first eight Directors representing the shareholders on the various registers shall be nominated by the Governor General in Council from the areas served respectively by those registers, and the Directors so nominated shall hold office until their successors shall have been duly elected as provided in sub-section (4).

(4) On the expiry of each successive period of twelve months after the nomination of Directors under sub-section (3) two Directors shall be elected in the manner provided in section 9 until all the Directors so nominated have been re-elected by elected Directors holding office in accordance with section 8. The register in respect of which the election is to be held shall be selected by lot from among the registers still represented by nominated Directors, and for the purposes of such lot the Madras and Hongkong registers shall be treated as if they comprised one register only.

As soon as may be after the commencement of this Act, the Central Board shall direct elections to be held and may make nominations, in order to constitute Local Boards in accordance

with the provisions of section 9, and the members of such Local Boards shall hold office up to the date fixed under sub-section (6) of section 9, but shall not exercise any right under sub-section (7) of that section.

Business—The Bank shall be authorized to carry on and transact the several kinds of business hereinafter specified, namely:—

(1) the acceptance of money on deposit without interest from, and the collection of money for, the Secretary of State in Council, the Governor General in Council, Local Government, States in India, local authorities, banks and any other persons,

(2) (a) the purchase, sale and redemption of bills of exchange and promissory notes, drawn on and payable in India and bearing two or more good signatures, one of which shall be that of a bank, and drawn or issued for the purpose of financing seasonal agricultural operations or the marketing of crops, and maturing within nine months from the date of such purchase or redemption, exclusive of days of grace,

(b) the purchase, sale and redemption of bills of exchange and promissory notes drawn and payable in India and bearing the signature of a selected bank, and issued or drawn for the purpose of holding or trading in securities of the Government of India or a Local Government, or such securities of States in India as may be specified in this behalf by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Central Board, and maturing within ninety days from the date of such purchase or redemption, exclusive of days of grace;

(c) the purchase, sale and redemption of bills of exchange (including treasury bills) drawn in or on any place in the United Kingdom and maturing within ninety days from the date of purchase, provided that no such purchase, sale or redemption shall be made in India except with a scheduled bank, and

(d) the keeping of balances with banks in the United Kingdom,

(e) the making to States in India, local authorities, scheduled banks and provincial co-operative banks of loans and advances, repayable on demand or on the expiry of specified periods not exceeding ninety days, against the security of—

(a) stocks, funds and securities (other than immovable property) in which a trustee is authorized to invest trust money by any Act of Parliament or by any law for the time being in force in British India,

- (10) the sale and realisation of all property, whether movable or immovable, which may in any way come into the possession of the Bank in satisfaction, or part satisfaction, of any of its claims,
- (11) the acting as agent for the Secretary of State in Council, the Governor General in Council for any Local Government or local authority of State in India in the transaction of any of the following kinds of business, namely—
 - (a) the purchase and sale of gold or silver,
 - (b) the purchase, sale, transfer and custody of bills of exchange, securities or shares in any company,
 - (c) the collection of the proceeds, whether principal, interest or dividends, of any securities or shares,
 - (d) the remittance of such proceeds, at the risk of the principal, by bills of exchange payable either in India or elsewhere;
 - (e) the management of public debt,
 - (12) the purchase and sale of gold coin and bullion,
 - (13) the opening of an account with or the making of an agency agreement with, and the acting as agent or correspondent of, a bank which is the principal currency authority of any country under the law for the time being in force in that country or any international bank formed by such banks, and the investing of the funds of the Bank in the shares of any such international bank,
 - (14) the borrowing of money for a period not exceeding one month for the purposes of the business of the Bank, and the giving of security for money so borrowed,
 - Provided that no money shall be borrowed under this clause from any person in India other than a scheduled bank, or from any person other than a local authority, a local Government, or a State in India, shall be deemed for the purposes of this clause to be securities of such Government, authority or State,
 - Provided further that the amount of such securities held at any time in the Banking Department shall be so regulated that—
 - (a) the total value of such securities shall not exceed the aggregate amount of the share capital of the Bank, the Reserve Fund and the Banking Department in respect of deposits,
 - (b) the value of such securities maturing after one year shall not exceed the aggregate amount of the share capital of the Bank, the Reserve Fund and two-fifths of the liabilities of the Banking Department in respect of deposits, and
 - (c) the value of such securities maturing after ten years shall not exceed the aggregate amount of the share capital of the Bank and the Reserve Fund and one-fifth of the liabilities of the Banking Department in respect of deposits,
 - (9) The custody of monies, securities and other articles of value, and the collection of the proceeds, whether principal, interest or dividends, of any such securities

- (1) purchase, sell or discount any of the bills of exchange or promissory notes specified in the list of transactions in India and, in particular, shall with the Bank.
- Provided that nothing in this sub-section shall prevent the Governor General in Council or any local government from carrying on monetary transactions at places where the Bank has no branches or agencies, and the Governor General in Council and local governments may hold at such places such balances as they may require.
- (2) The Governor General in Council and each local government shall interest the Bank on such conditions as may be agreed upon, with the understanding of the public debt and with the issue of any new loans.
- (3) In the event of any failure to repay in accordance with the conditions referred to in this section the Governor General in Council shall decide what the conditions shall be.
- (4) Any agreement made under this section to which the Governor General in Council or any local government is a party shall be laid, as soon as may be after it is made, before the Council for its consideration and in the case of a Local Government before its local Legislature.
- Bank Notes—(1) The Bank shall have the sole right to issue bank notes in British India, and may, for a period which shall be provided by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Council, issue currency notes of the Government of India, payable to the order of the Government in Council, and the provisions of this Act applicable to bank notes shall, unless a contrary intention appears, apply to all currency notes of the Government of India issued either by the Governor General in Council or by the Bank in like manner as if such currency notes were bank notes, and no person shall be permitted by this Act to form part of the Bank notes of for such coin, bullion or securities as are permitted by this Act to form part of the Reserve.
- (2) The Issue Department shall not issue bank notes to the Banking Department or to any other person except in exchange for other bank notes of for such coin, bullion or securities as are permitted by this Act to form part of the Reserve.
- Bank notes shall be of the denominational values of five rupees, ten rupees, fifty rupees, one hundred rupees, five hundred rupees, one thousand rupees and ten thousand rupees, unless otherwise directed by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Central Board.
- The design, form and material of bank notes shall be such as may be approved by the Governor General in Council after consideration of the recommendations made by the Central Board.
- (1) The Governor General in Council and each Local Government as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenue and such States in India as may be approved of and notified by the Governor General in Council in the Gazette of India, and to make payments up to the amount standing to the credit of their accounts respectively, and to carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations, including the management of the public debt.
- (2) The Governor General in Council and each Local Government as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenue and such States in India as may be approved of and notified by the Governor General in Council in the Gazette of India, and to make payments up to the amount standing to the credit of their accounts respectively, and to carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations, including the management of the public debt.
- The Bank shall undertake to accept monies for account of the Secretary of State in Council and the Governor General in Council and such Local Governments as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenue and such States in India as may be approved of and notified by the Governor General in Council in the Gazette of India, and to make payments up to the amount standing to the credit of their accounts respectively, and to carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations, including the management of the public debt.
- (3) advance money on mortgage of, or otherwise on the security of, immovable property or documents of title relating thereto, or become the owner of immovable property, except so far as is necessary for its own business purposes and residences for its officers and servants, and to make loans or advances,
- (4) make loans or advances,
- (5) draw or accept bills payable otherwise than on demand,
- (6) allow interest on deposits or current accounts.
- Central Banking Functions

(1) purchase, sell or discount any of the bills of exchange or promissory notes specified in the list of transactions in India and, in particular, shall with the Bank.

Provided that nothing in this sub-section shall prevent the Governor General in Council or any local government from carrying on monetary transactions at places where the Bank has no branches or agencies, and the Governor General in Council and local governments may hold at such places such balances as they may require.

(2) The Governor General in Council and each local government shall interest the Bank on such conditions as may be agreed upon, with the understanding of the public debt and with the issue of any new loans.

(3) In the event of any failure to repay in accordance with the conditions referred to in this section the Governor General in Council shall decide what the conditions shall be.

(4) Any agreement made under this section to which the Governor General in Council or any local government is a party shall be laid, as soon as may be after it is made, before the Council for its consideration and in the case of a Local Government before its local Legislature.

Bank Notes—(1) The Bank shall have the sole right to issue bank notes in British India, and may, for a period which shall be provided by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Council, issue currency notes of the Government of India, payable to the order of the Government in Council, and the provisions of this Act applicable to bank notes shall, unless a contrary intention appears, apply to all currency notes of the Government of India issued either by the Governor General in Council or by the Bank in like manner as if such currency notes were bank notes, and no person shall be permitted by this Act to form part of the Bank notes of for such coin, bullion or securities as are permitted by this Act to form part of the Reserve.

(2) The Issue Department shall not issue bank notes to the Banking Department or to any other person except in exchange for other bank notes of for such coin, bullion or securities as are permitted by this Act to form part of the Reserve.

Bank notes shall be of the denominational values of five rupees, ten rupees, fifty rupees, one hundred rupees, five hundred rupees, one thousand rupees and ten thousand rupees, unless otherwise directed by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Central Board.

The design, form and material of bank notes shall be such as may be approved by the Governor General in Council after consideration of the recommendations made by the Central Board.

(1) The Governor General in Council and each Local Government as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenue and such States in India as may be approved of and notified by the Governor General in Council in the Gazette of India, and to make payments up to the amount standing to the credit of their accounts respectively, and to carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations, including the management of the public debt.

(2) The Governor General in Council and each Local Government as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenue and such States in India as may be approved of and notified by the Governor General in Council in the Gazette of India, and to make payments up to the amount standing to the credit of their accounts respectively, and to carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations, including the management of the public debt.

The Bank shall undertake to accept monies for account of the Secretary of State in Council and the Governor General in Council and such Local Governments as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenue and such States in India as may be approved of and notified by the Governor General in Council in the Gazette of India, and to make payments up to the amount standing to the credit of their accounts respectively, and to carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations, including the management of the public debt.

(3) advance money on mortgage of, or otherwise on the security of, immovable property or documents of title relating thereto, or become the owner of immovable property, except so far as is necessary for its own business purposes and residences for its officers and servants, and to make loans or advances,

(4) make loans or advances,

(5) draw or accept bills payable otherwise than on demand,

(6) allow interest on deposits or current accounts.

Central Banking Functions

(1) Any person contravening the provisions of section 31 shall be punishable with fine which may extend to the amount of the bill, and, if he is a public officer, he shall be liable to be removed from office or to be suspended from office or to be dismissed from service.

(2) No prosecution under this section shall be instituted except on complaint made by the Bank.

Assets of the Issue Department.

(1) The assets of the Issue Department shall consist of gold coin, gold bullion, sterling securities, rupee coin and rupee securities to such an aggregate amount as is not less than the total of the liabilities of the Issue Department as hereinafter defined.

(2) Of the total amount of the assets, not less than two-fifths shall consist of gold coin, gold bullion or sterling securities.

Provided that the amount of gold coin and gold bullion shall not at any time be less than forty crores of rupees in value.

(3) The remainder of the assets shall be held in rupee coin, Government of India rupee securities of any maturity and such bills of exchange and promissory notes payable in British India as are eligible for purchase by the Bank under sub-clause (a) or sub-clause (b) of clause (2) of section 17 or under clause (1) of section 18.

Provided that the amount held in Government of India rupee securities shall not at any time exceed one-fourth of the total amount of the assets or fifty crores of rupees, whichever amount is greater, or, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, such amount plus a sum of ten crores of rupees.

(4) For the purposes of this section, gold coin and gold bullion shall be valued at 8 ₹75.12 grains of fine gold per rupee, rupee coin shall be valued at the same value, and securities shall be valued at the market rate for the time being obtaining.

(5) Of the gold coin and gold bullion held as assets, not less than seventeen-twentieths shall be held in British India, and all gold coin and gold bullion held as assets shall be held in the custody of the Bank or its agents.

Provided that gold belonging to the Bank which is in any other bank or in any mint or treasury or in transit may be reckoned as part of the assets.

(6) For the purposes of this section, the sterling securities which may be held as part of the assets shall be securities of any of the following kinds payable in the currency of the United Kingdom, namely—

(a) balances at the credit of the Issue Department with the Bank of England,

(b) bills of exchange bearing two or more good signatures and drawn on and payable at any place in the United Kingdom and having a maturity not exceeding ninety days,

(c) Government securities of the United Kingdom maturing within five years:

(1) Subject to the provisions of sub-section (2), every bank note shall be legal tender at any place in British India in payment or on account for the amount expressed thereon, and shall be guaranteed by the Governor General in Council.

(2) On recommendation of the Central Board the Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, declare that with effect from such date as may be specified in the notification, any series of bank notes or in denomination shall cease to be legal tender save at an office or agency of the Bank.

The Bank shall not re-issue bank notes which are torn, flawed or excessively soiled.

Notwithstanding anything contained in any enactment or rule of law to the contrary, no person shall be entitled to recover from the Governor General in Council or the Bank the value of any lost, stolen, mutilated or imperfect currency note or the Government of India or bank note.

Provided that the Bank may, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, prescribe the circumstances in which the value of such currency notes or bank notes may be refunded as of grace and the rules made under this provision shall be laid on the table of both Houses of the Central Legislature.

The Bank shall not be liable to the payment of any stamp duty under the Indian Stamp Act, 1899, in respect of bank notes issued by it.

(1) In the opinion of the Governor General in Council the Bank fails to carry out any of the obligations imposed on it by or under this Act, he may, by notification in the Gazette of India, declare the Central Board to be superseded, and thereafter the general superintendence and direction of the affairs of the Bank shall be entrusted to such agency as the Governor General in Council may determine, and such agency may exercise the powers and do all acts and things which may be exercised or done by the Central Board under this Act.

(2) When action is taken under this section the Governor General in Council shall cause a full report of the circumstances leading to such action and of the action taken to be laid before the Central Legislature at the earliest possible opportunity and in any case within three months from the issue of the notification superseding the Board.

No person in British India other than the Bank or, as expressly authorised by this Act, the Governor General in Council shall draw, accept, make or issue any bill of exchange, promissory note or engagement for the payment of money payable to bearer on demand or on the bills, hundis or notes payable to bearer on demand or of any such person.

Provided that cheques or drafts, including hundis, payable to bearer on demand or otherwise may be drawn on a person's account with a banker, sheriff or agent.

Provided that, for a period of two years from the date on which this Chapter comes into force, any of such last mentioned securities may be securities maturing after five years, and the Bank may, at any time before the expiry of that period, dispose of such securities notwithstanding anything contained in section 17.

Liabilities of the Issue Department—(1) The Liabilities of the Issue Department shall be an amount equal to the total of the amount of the currency notes of the Government of India and bank notes for the time being in circulation.

(2) For the purposes of this section any currency note of the Government of India or bank note which has not been presented for payment within forty years from the 1st day of April following the date of its issue shall be deemed not to be in circulation, and the value thereof shall, notwithstanding anything contained in sub-section (2) of section 23, be paid by the Issue Department to the Government of India or the Banking Department, as the case may be, but any such note, if subse- quently presented for payment, shall be paid by the Banking Department, and any such payment in the case of a currency note of the Government of India shall be debited to the Government General in Council.

On the date on which this Chapter comes into force the Issue Department shall take over from the Governor General in Council the liability for all the currency notes of the Government of India for the time being in circulation and the Governor General in Council shall transfer to the Issue Department gold coin, gold bullion, sterling securities, rupee coin and rupee securities to such aggregate amount as is equal to the total of the amount of the liability so transferred. The coin, bullion and securities shall be transferred in such proportion as to comply with the requirements of section 33. Provided that the total amount of the gold coin, gold bullion and sterling securities so transferred shall not be less than one-half of the whole amount transferred, and that the amount of rupee coin so transferred shall not exceed fifty crores of rupees.

Provided further that the whole of the gold coin and gold bullion held by the Governor General in Council in the gold standard reserve and the paper currency reserve at the time of transfer shall be so transferred.

(1) After the close of any financial year in which the minimum amount of rupee coin held in the assets, as shown in any of the weekly accounts of the Issue Department for that year prescribed under sub-section (1) of section 58, is greater than fifty crores of rupees or one-fifth of the total amount of the assets as shown in that account, whichever may be the greater, the Bank may deliver to the Governor General in Council rupee coin up to the amount of such excess but not without his consent exceeding five crores of rupees, against payment of legal tender value in the form of bank notes, gold or securities.

Provided that if the Bank so desires and if the amount of gold coin, gold bullion and sterling securities in the assets does not at that time

exceed one-half of the total assets, a proportion not exceeding two-fifths of such payments shall be in gold coin, gold bullion or such sterling securities as may be held as part of the assets under sub-section (b) of section 33.

(2) After the close of any financial year in which the minimum amount of rupee coin held in the assets, as shown in any of the weekly accounts of the Issue Department for that year prescribed under sub-section (1) of section 58, is greater than fifty crores of rupees or one-fifth of the total amount of the assets, as shown in that account, whichever may be the greater, the Governor General in Council shall deliver to the Bank rupee coin up to the amount of such excess but not without its consent exceeding five crores of rupees, against payment of legal tender value.

(1) Notwithstanding anything contained in the foregoing provisions, the Bank may, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, for periods not exceeding thirty days in the life insurance, which may, with the like sanction, be extended from time to time by the Issue Department, hold as assets gold coin, gold bullion or sterling securities of less aggregate amount than that required by sub-section (2) of section 33 and, whilst the holding is so reduced, the proviso to that sub-section shall cease to be operative.

Provided that the gold coin and gold bullion held as such assets shall not be reduced below the amount specified in the proviso to sub-section (2) of section 33 so long as any sterling securities remain held as such assets.

(2) In respect of any period during which the holding of gold coin, gold bullion and sterling securities is reduced under sub-section (1), the Bank shall pay to the Governor General in Council a tax upon the amount by which such holding is reduced below the minimum prescribed by sub-section (2) of section 33, and such tax shall be payable at the bank rate for the time being in force, with an addition of one per cent per annum upon such holding exceeds thirty-two and a half per cent of the total amount of the assets and or a further one and a half per cent per annum in respect of every further decrease, of two and a half per cent or part of such decrease.

Provided that the tax shall not in any event be payable at a rate less than six per cent per annum.

The Governor General in Council shall under- take not to reserve any rupee coin delivered under section 36 nor to put into circulation any rupees, except through the Bank and as provided in that section, and the Bank shall undertake not to dispose of rupee coin otherwise than for the purposes of circulation or by delivery to the Governor General in Council under that section.

(1) The Bank shall issue rupee coin on demand in exchange for bank notes and cur- rency notes of the Government of India, and shall issue currency notes or bank notes on demand in exchange for coin which is legal tender under the Indian Coinage Act, 1906.

(2) The Bank shall, in exchange for currency notes or bank notes of five rupees or upwards, supply currency notes or bank notes of lower value or other coins which are legal tender under

the Indian Coinage Act, 1906, in such quantities for circulation, and the Governor General in Council shall supply such coins to the Bank on demand. If the Governor General in Council at any time fails to supply such coins, the Bank shall be released from its obligations to supply them to the public.

Obligation to sell sterling.—The Bank shall sell, to any person who makes a demand in that behalf at its office in Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, or Hongkong and pays the purchase price in legal tender currency, sterling for immediate delivery in London, at a rate not below one shilling and five pence and forty-nine sixths of a penny for a rupee.

Provided that no person shall be entitled to demand to buy an amount of sterling less than ten thousand pounds.

Provided that no person shall be entitled to demand to sell an amount of sterling less than ten thousand pounds.

Provided further that no person shall be entitled to receive payment unless the Bank is satisfied that payment of the sterling in London has been made.

Cash reserves of scheduled banks.—(1) Every bank included in the Second Schedule shall maintain with the Bank a balance the amount of which shall not at the close of business on any day be less than five per cent of the demand liabilities of such bank in India as shown in the return referred to in sub-section (2).

Explanation.—For the purposes of this section liabilities shall not include the paid-up capital or the reserves, or any credit balance in the profits and loss account of the bank or the amount of any loan taken from the Reserve Bank.

(2) Every scheduled bank shall send to the Governor General in Council and to the Bank a return signed by two responsible officers of such bank showing—

(a) the amount of its demand and time liabilities, respectively, in India,

(b) the total amount held in India in currency notes of the Government of India and bank notes,

(c) the amounts held in India in rupee coin and subsidiary coin, respectively,

(d) the amounts of advances made and of bills discounted in India, respectively and

(e) the balance held at the Bank.

at the close of business on each Friday or if Friday is a public holiday under the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881, at the close of business on the preceding working day, and such return shall be sent not later than two working days after the date to which it relates.

Provided that where the Bank is satisfied that the furnishing of a weekly return under this sub-section is impracticable in the case of any scheduled bank by reason of the geographical position of the bank and its branches, the Bank may require such bank to furnish in lieu of a weekly return a monthly return to be dispatched not later than fourteen days after the end of the month to which it relates giving the details specified in this sub-section in respect of such bank at the close of business for the month.

(3) If at the close of business on any day before the day fixed for the next return, the balance held at the Bank by any scheduled bank is below the minimum prescribed in sub-section (1), such scheduled bank shall be liable to pay to the Bank in respect of each such day penal interest at a rate three per cent above the bank rate on the amount by which the balance with the Bank falls short of the prescribed minimum, and if on the day fixed for the next return such balance is still below the prescribed minimum as disclosed by this return, the rates of penal interest shall be increased to a rate five per cent above the bank rate in respect of that day and each subsequent day on which the balance held at the Bank at the close of business on that day is below the prescribed minimum.

(4) Any scheduled bank failing to comply with the provisions of sub-section (2) shall be liable to pay to the Governor General in Council a penalty of one hundred rupees for each day during which the failure continues.

(5) The penalties imposed by sub-sections (3) and (4) shall be payable on demand made by the Bank, and, in the event of a refusal by the defaulting bank to pay on such demand, may be levied by a direction of the principal Civil Court having jurisdiction in the area where an office of the defaulting bank is situated, such direction to be made only upon application made to the Court by the Governor General in Council in the case of a failure to make a return under sub-section (2) to the Governor General in Council, or by the Bank with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council in other cases.

(6) The Governor General in Council shall, by notification in the Gazette of India, direct the inclusion in the Second Schedule of any bank not already so included which carries on the business of banking in British India and which—

(a) has a paid-up capital and reserves of an aggregate value of not less than five lakhs of rupees, and

(b) is a company as defined in clause (2) of section 2 of the Indian Companies Act, 1913, or a corporation or a company incorporated by or under any law in force in any place outside British India,

and shall by a like notification direct the exclusion from that Schedule of any scheduled bank the aggregate value of whose paid-up

capital and reserve monies as any time may be required for the purpose of carrying out the business of the bank.

The Bank shall contribute and shall cause to be contributed such sums as may be required for the purpose of carrying out the business of the bank.

The Bank may acquire any property or interest in any land or building or any other immovable property or any right or interest in any such property or interest.

Agreement with the Imperial Bank—(1) The Bank shall enter into an agreement with the Imperial Bank for the purpose of carrying out the business of the bank.

Provided that the agreement shall be so made as to enable the Bank to carry out the business of the bank.

Provided that the agreement shall be so made as to enable the Bank to carry out the business of the bank.

(2) The agreement referred to in sub-section (1) shall, as soon as may be made, be laid before the Central Legislature.

General Provisions.

The Governor General in Council shall transfer to the Bank such securities of the value of five crores of rupees to be allocated by the Bank to the Reserve Fund.

to the payment of an additional dividend in the year 1922.

Provided that if at any time the dividend of the bank is less than the amount of the dividend of the year 1922, the dividend of the bank shall be the same as the dividend of the year 1922.

The Bank shall contribute and shall cause to be contributed such sums as may be required for the purpose of carrying out the business of the bank.

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Without prejudice to anything contained in section 50, the Governor General in Council may at any time appoint the Auditor General or such auditors as he thinks fit to examine and report upon the accounts of the Bank and report thereon to the Central Board.

Every auditor shall be supplied with a copy of the annual balance-sheet, and it shall be the duty to examine the same, together with the accounts and vouchers relating thereto, and every auditor shall have a free access to the books kept by the Bank, and shall be entitled to call for and examine any documents and other papers of the Bank, and may, at the expense of the Governor General in Council, be appointed by him, employ accounts by or at the expense of the Governor General in Council.

ants or other persons to assist him in investigating such accounts, and may, in relation to such accounts, examine any Director or officer of the Bank.

(2) The auditors shall make a report to the shareholders of the Governor General in Council, as the case may be, upon the annual balance sheet and accounts, and in every such report they shall state whether, in their opinion, the balance sheet is a full and fair balance-sheet containing all necessary particulars and properly drawn up so as to exhibit a true and correct view of the state of the Bank's affairs, and, in case they have called for any explanation or information from the Central Board, whether it has been given and whether it is satisfactory. Any such report made to the shareholders shall be read together with the report of the Central Board, at the annual general meeting.

Returns.—(1) The Bank shall prepare and transmit to the Governor General in Council a weekly account of the Issue Department and of the Reserve Department in the form set out in the first schedule or in such other form as the Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, prescribe. The Governor General in Council shall cause these accounts to be published weekly in the Gazette of India.

(2) The Bank shall also, within two months from the date on which the annual accounts of the Bank are closed, transmit to the Governor General in Council a copy of the annual accounts signed by the Governor, the Deputy Governors and the Chief Accounting Officer of the Bank, and certified by the auditors, together with a report by the Central Board on the working of the Bank throughout the year, and the Governor General in Council shall cause such accounts and report to be published in the Gazette of India.

(3) The Bank shall also, within two months from the date on which the annual accounts of the Bank are closed, transmit to the Governor General in Council a statement showing the name, address and occupation of, and the number of shares held by, each shareholder of the Bank.

Agricultural Credit Department.—The Bank shall create a special Agricultural Credit Department to maintain an expert staff to study all questions of agricultural credit and be available for consultation by the Governor General in Council, Local Governments, provincial co-operative banks, and other banking organizations.

(b) to co-ordinate the operations of the Bank in connection with agricultural credit and its relations with provincial co-operative banks and any other banks or organizations engaged in the business of agricultural credit.

(1) The Bank shall, at the earliest practicable date and in any case within three years from the date on which this Chapter comes into force, make to the Governor General in Council a report, with proposals, as to the extension of the provisions of this Act relating to scheduled banks to persons and firms, not being scheduled banks, engaged in business in the business of banking, and

(a) the extension of the provisions of this Act relating to scheduled banks to persons and firms, not being scheduled banks, engaged in business in the business of banking, and

(2) In such event the Reserve Fund and surplus of the Government General Fund and the shareholdings in the Government of India, five per cent and twenty-five per cent respectively.

Provided that the total amount payable to any shareholder under this section shall not exceed the paid-up value of the shares held by him by more than one per cent for the year after the commencement of this Act and subject to a maximum of twenty-five per cent.

(1) The Central Board may, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, make regulations consistent with this Act to provide for all matters for which provision is necessary or convenient for the proper giving effect to the provisions of this Act.

(2) In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing provision, such regulations may provide for all or any of the following matters, namely—

(a) the holding and conduct of elections under this Act, including provision for the holding of any elections according to the principle of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote;

(b) the final division of profits or dividends, including the qualifications of shareholders for election or regarding the validity of elections;

(c) the maintenance of the share registers in the manner in which the qualifications and the manner in which the shareholders may be held and transferred, and generally, all matters relating to the rights and duties of shareholders;

(d) the manner in which general meetings shall be convened, the procedure to be followed thereat and the manner in which votes may be exercised;

(e) the manner in which notices may be served on behalf of the Bank upon shareholders or other persons;

(f) the manner in which the business of the Central Board shall be transacted, and the procedure to be followed at meetings thereof;

(g) the conduct of business of Local Boards and the delegation to such Boards of powers and functions;

(h) the delegation of powers and functions of the Central Board to the Governor, or to Deputy Governors, Directors or officers of the Bank;

(1) The formation of Committees of the Central Board, the delegation of powers and functions of the Central Board to such Committees, and the conduct of business in such Committees;

(2) the constitution and maintenance of the fund and any raising of funds for the officers and servants of the Bank;

(3) the manner and form in which the Board may be constituted and the manner in which the members of the Board may be elected and the manner in which the members of the Board may be re-elected;

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Trade.

for a year or two the export trade rested under the shock. The progress of the Dawes plan and the measures taken under the League of Nations to assist Austria and Hungary back to industrial health had a special bearing on the prosperity of India, they have been elements of importance, in inducing her recovery of prosperity.

But whilst India is pre-eminently an agricultural country, she ranks at the International Labour Office at Geneva as one of the Great Industrial countries of the world. Her manufacturing industries are few in number and are concentrated in a few areas, but they are of great importance. The largest is the cotton textile industry, which has its home in the town and island of Bombay, with important subsidiary centres at Ahmedabad, Bhopal and Nagpur. Raw jute is a virtual monopoly of Bengal, and the jute mills are concentrated in and near Calcutta. The metallurgical industry is of more recent growth. The principal centre is Jamshedpur, the seat of the works of the Tata Iron and Steel Company where subsidiary industries have sprung up to utilise the products of the blast furnaces and mills. A very large proportion of the jute manufactures is exported. The cotton textile industry has lost a considerable part of its export trade to Japan, the East and West Indies; the mills and their principal output in India itself, and even there they are subject to severe competition from Japan and China. The iron and steel industry is for the most part a home industry, though large quantities of Indian pig iron are shipped to the East, and in some years to the western ports of North and South America. Whilst India is still in the main an agricultural country, three-quarters of her population are engaged in her husbandry from the soil, her manufacturing industries are of large and growing importance, and their prosperity every year increases in an increasing degree the general prosperity of the people.

I.-GENERAL

Agricultural Conditions in India—The monsoon of 1933 started a little earlier than usual and gave, on the whole, well-distributed rains over the country. There were no prolonged breaks and the rainfall was generally in excess of the normal. Arranged over the plains of India, the total rainfall during the monsoon period was 1.7 per cent above the normal. During the retreating period of the monsoon the rainfall was defective in the Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, Sind and North-East India, elsewhere it was normal or above it. Taking the year as a whole, the rainfall was above the average in most parts of the country.

From the point of view of agriculture, the seasons may be regarded as very good, although in some places crops were damaged by a considerable fall in the cold weather by low temperatures and, in the cold weather by low temperatures and, in the cold weather by low temperatures.

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manufactured, of Rs 42 lakhs under wool and silk (including yarn and goods of artificial silk mixed with other material). The imports of raw cotton also recorded from Rs 84,500 tons to Rs 79,000 tons. Under the metals groups there was a decline of Rs 24 lakhs. Imports of iron and steel increased from 3,60,000 tons to Rs 7,49,000 tons in quantity and from Rs 50 lakhs to Rs 7,11 lakhs in value, but metals other than iron and steel and in miscellaneous articles declined from Rs 1,11 lakhs to Rs 4,97 lakhs in value and from Rs 2,22 lakhs due chiefly to larger arrivals of wire and machinery. The value of motor vehicles imported from Rs 3,19 lakhs, the number of motor cars imported rising from 6,201 to 9,750 and that of omnibuses from 2,070 to 3,480. The value of the imports of rubber manufactures, however, declined from Rs 1,98 lakhs to Rs 1,88 lakhs. Imports of foreign sugar continued to decline and only amounted to 264,000 tons valued at Rs 2,71 lakhs as against 107,000 tons valued at Rs 4,23 lakhs in the preceding year. Arrivals of mineral oils declined slightly in quantity from 183 million gallons to 186 million gallons and in value from Rs 6,70 lakhs to Rs 5,83 lakhs. Imports of kerosene oil contracted from 59.5 million gallons to 58.1 million gallons while those of fuel oil advanced from 1,044 million gallons to 105 million gallons. The value of previous imports declined from Rs 2,93 lakhs to Rs 2,72 lakhs, the bulk of the declining having been due to a falling off in the consignments of vegetable products. Imports of paper and paperboard recorded a decline of 70,000 cwt in quantity and of Rs 23 lakhs in value. Consignments of wheat declined from 33,500 tons worth Rs 207 lakhs to 18,300 tons worth Rs 127 lakhs while those of rice, not in the bulk rose from 35,500 tons (Rs 31 lakhs) to 84,000 tons (Rs 49 lakhs).

Exports.—On the export side, despatches of raw cotton rose from 2,008,000 bales valued at Rs 207 crores to 2,740,000 bales valued at Rs 277 crores. Cotton manufactures (including waste and yarn) recorded a decline of Rs 56 lakhs and amounted to Rs 2,73 lakhs. Despatches of Indian cotton piecegoods declined further from 66.4 million yards worth Rs 2,09 lakhs to 56.5 million yards worth Rs 1,66 lakhs. Shipments of twist and yarn, however, advanced slightly in quantity from 15.1 million lbs and in value from Rs 72 lakhs to Rs 82 lakhs. The exports of raw and manufactured jute recorded an improvement in value of Rs 1 crore. Shipments of raw jute increased from 3,153,000 bales valued at Rs 9,73 lakhs to 4,190,000 bales valued at Rs 10,88 lakhs. Exports of gunny bags contracted from 41.5 million (Rs 11.16 lakhs) to 40.2 million (Rs 9.72 lakhs), while those of gunny cloth rose from 1,012 million yards (Rs 10.72 lakhs) to 1,058 million yards (Rs 11.33 lakhs). Exports of foodstuffs decreased in quantity from 2,056,000 tons to 1,870,000 tons and in value from Rs 16,08 lakhs to Rs 11,75 lakhs. Exports of wheat amounted practically unchanged at 2,000 tons, while those of rice dropped from 1,887,000 tons to 1,744,000 tons in quantity and

from Rs 14.46 lakhs to Rs 10.67 lakhs in value. Despatches of tea declined from 879 million lbs to 718 million lbs in quantity but owing to much higher prices the value rose from Rs 17.15 lakhs to Rs 19.85 lakhs. Exports of oilseeds amounted to 1,124,000 tons valued at Rs 13.60 lakhs which meant an increase of 53 per cent in quantity and of 21 per cent in value in comparison with the figures of the preceding year. The improvement was due mainly to increases in the shipments of linseed from 72,000 tons to 279,000 tons, of cotton seed from 2,000 tons to 6,000 tons and of sesamum from 10,000 tons to 17,000 tons. Exports of hides and skins recorded a large improvement from 41,800 tons worth Rs 7.48 lakhs to 61,400 tons worth Rs 9.90 lakhs. Shipments of metals and ores advanced considerably from 695,000 tons valued at Rs 4.68 lakhs to 976,000 tons valued at Rs 5.49 lakhs. Shipments of iron amounted to 731,000 cwt valued at Rs 2.46 lakhs which represented an increase of 75 per cent in quantity and of 86 per cent in value in comparison with the corresponding figures for 1932-33. Despatches of coffee advanced by 13,000 cwt in quantity but the value dropped by Rs 8 lakhs.

Balance of Trade.—The visible balance of trade in merchandise and treasure for the year 1933-34 was in favour of India to the extent of Rs 92 crores as compared with Rs 68 crores in 1932-33. The transactions in treasure on private account resulted in a net export of treasure, amounting to Rs 577 crores as against Rs 65 crores in the preceding year. Net exports of gold amounted to Rs 57 crores, while silver showed a net import of Rs 1 lakh. Net exports of currency notes amounted to Rs 19 lakhs.

Tariff Changes.—The changes in the tariff made under the various Acts passed during the latter part of 1932 and the earlier part of 1933 were dealt with in the review for the year 1932-33. Since then eleven Acts have been passed introducing several changes in the tariff.

The Indian Tariff (Second Amendment) Act, 1933. Imposed, with effect from the 23rd December, 1933, a duty (including the additional duty and the surcharge) of 5/8 p per imperial gallon on mineral oil, other than kerosene and motor spirit, which is suitable for use as an illuminant in wick lamps.

The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act, 1934. which was passed on 18th February, 1934, authorises, by the imposition, generally, of minimum specific duties under the standard rate, to certain Indian industries which have been subject to menacing competition from foreign countries. The principal items affected are—

Alum, magnesium sulphate and magnesium chloride, cotton under vests and socks and stockings, glass globes and chimneys for lamps and lanterns, certain kinds of paints, colours and pigments, enamelled ironware, electrical earthenware and porcelain, and domestic earthenware, china and porcelain, lead pencils, files of earthenware and porcelain, umbrellas, cast iron pipes, wooden hosiery, knitted apparel and fabrics, and toilet soaps,

[illegible]

II—IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

The following table shows the comparative importance of the principal articles imported into British India —

Percentage on total imports of merchandise in 1933-34	1933-34	1932-33	1931-32	1930-31	1929-30
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In exercise of the powers conferred by the Act the rate of excise duty on all other matches was fixed at 4s for every 1,440 matches or fraction thereof with effect from 3rd May, 1934. The (3) or the above at the import duty on the non-British cotton piecegoods was reduced, as a result of the Indo-Japanese negotiations to 50 per cent *ad valorem* with a minimum specific duty of 5s per lb in the case of plain grey, with effect from the 8th January 1934. As already stated in a previous paragraph, the statutory rate of duty on non-British cotton piecegoods was also fixed at this level with effect from the 1st May, 1934.

Cotton and cotton goods	62,90,88	81,64,57	26,18,81	34,08,53	21,30,12
Wool, raw and manufactures	4,28,45	2,31,11	1,02,06	2,96,47	2,54,93
Dyes	2,43,81	2,50,00	2,67,65	2,50,48	2,46,10
Drugs and medicines	2,26,25	1,03,04	1,01,11	1,85,88	1,03,42
Rubber	3,32,07	2,58,24	2,22,28	1,99,05	1,01,35
Spices	3,26,75	2,64,04	2,08,22	1,72,60	1,55,67
Glass and glassware	2,51,93	1,64,78	1,21,07	1,42,47	1,22,18
Fruits and vegetables	1,82,87	1,48,69	1,34,47	1,16,57	1,00,44
Paints and painters' materials	1,46,55	1,15,09	87,58	92,19	92,19
Corn, pulse and flour	6,42,05	2,81,68	1,17,61	70,88	83,70
Apparel	1,71,24	1,11,13	81,76	84,21	81,51
Soap	1,66,68	1,11,04	83,72	82,68	78,37
Precious stones and pearls, unset	1,09,65	59,74	45,00	83,64	74,82
Tobacco	2,69,71	1,51,16	94,34	96,94	72,15
Stationery	1,05,06	81,25	68,03	72,36	66,22
Building and engineering materials	1,34,44	1,09,88	83,78	77,35	64,35
Toilet requisites	72,68	63,87	47,80	58,14	56,61
Haberdashery and millinery	1,04,28	72,98	64,69	67,80	64,57
Wood and lumber	1,03,54	89,82	60,69	51,44	54,00
Tea chests	80,24	63,53	50,32	47,77	53,38
Toys and requisites for games	64,84	49,06	37,04	47,33	53,35
Manures	98,65	67,43	36,01	52,89	52,42
Books, printed, etc.	71,32	60,91	53,38	46,38	49,33
					42

Imports—(continued)

(In thousands of Rupees)

	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	Percentage on total imports of merchandise in 1933-34
Books and sheets	87.81	88.05	61.93	51.77	17.51	11
Gilt	1,30,39	1,11,97	71,30	78,70	16,58	10
Machinery for machinery	80,21	83,65	50,11	62,86	16,06	10
Earthenware and porcelain	72,31	48,16	73,36	19,56	13,15	37
Arms, ammunition and military stores	66,11	51,05	68,18	11,11	14,97	37
Animals, living	32,12	20,86	12,06	11,79	23,12	21
Paper making materials	11,95	12,07	35,09	22,00	27,10	23
Umbrellas and fittings	13,66	31,69	30,16	27,16	26,66	23
Guns and resins	41,66	31,07	21,57	23,64	26,61	23
Cutlery	11,11	10,05	20,60	21,27	23,70	22
Tea	61,90	15,68	13,57	31,63	27,13	21
Bobbins	39,88	12,99	41,91	28,57	27,11	10
Tallow and kerosene	31,02	27,23	20,79	21,79	19,65	17
Furniture and cabinet ware	37,66	27,53	20,11	17,65	16,66	14
Flax, raw and manufactures	33,93	21,69	17,57	16,77	16,61	11
Cloaks and water and parts	23,17	16,86	11,21	14,75	16,97	13
Fish (excluding canned fish)	26,31	23,86	14,42	13,06	13,06	13
Coal and coke	15,65	31,66	11,28	0,63	13,95	12
Jewellery, also plate of gold and silver	2,40	18,37	12,75	13,16	9,52	08
All other articles	14,33,69	10,63,76	9,61,05	10,31,73	8,99,80	7 91
TOTAL VALUE OF IMPORTS	210,70,60	161,70,37	126,37,14	132,68,43	115,38,61	100

Cotton Manufactures (Rs 17.74 lakhs)—The year 1932-33 had been a year of record for the import trade in cotton manufactures. The year just passed, on the contrary, was one of steady decline from the high level of 1932-33. All sections of the trade were affected, twist and yarn and cotton piecegoods, notwithstanding their different status in the industrial economy of the country, having more or less shared the same fate.

The total value of the imports of cotton manufactures in the year under review amounted to Rs 17.74 lakhs as compared with Rs 26.83 lakhs, in the year preceding, and Rs 69.49 lakhs in 1929-30, which, for purposes of comparison, may be taken as the last of the normal years. Imports of cotton twist and yarn amounted to 32.0 million lbs valued at Rs 2.58 lakhs as against 45.1 million lbs valued at Rs 7.70 lakhs in 1932-33 and 43.0 million lbs valued at Rs 6.00 lakhs in 1929-30. The total consignments of piecegoods received in the year under review totalled 706 million yards worth Rs 14.19 lakhs as compared with 1,225 million yards worth Rs 21.26 lakhs in the previous year, and 1,910 million yards valued at Rs 50.25 lakhs in 1929-30.

Of the total quantity of piecegoods imported, Bombay received 33 per cent against 26 per cent taken by Bengal and 21 per cent by Sind. The respective participations of these three maritime provinces in 1932-33 had been 27.50 and 25 per cent. Madras accounted for 9 per cent and 126 million yards under grey.

Imports of grey goods decreased by 35 per cent as compared with the imports of 1932-33. The decline in each of the other two cases amounted to 37 per cent. As in 1932-33, coloured goods individually formed the most important class under cotton piecegoods and it was under this category that the decline was sharpest, the actual measures of that decline being 136 million yards against 161 million yards under white goods.

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Cotton Imports.

The value of the different classes of cotton manufactures imported during the past five years and the pre-war year 1913-14 is set forth below —

The imports of grey goods fell to a record low level of 230 million yards from 366 million in 1932-33 and were even smaller by 10 million yards than the strikingly low figure of 249 million yards returned for 1931-32. Imports of white goods also sank by 151 million yards in comparison with the imports of 1932-33 and constituted a low record superseding the previous low record of 1930-31 by a little less than 10 million yards. There was, similarly, a decline of 156 million yards under coloured goods, the imports of which dropped from 456 million yards in 1932-33 to 269 million yards being transferred back to Bombay.

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Year	1913-14		(pre-war)		1929-30		1930-31		1931-32		1932-33		1933-34	
	Rs	(lacks)	Rs	(lacks)	Rs	(lacks)	Rs	(lacks)	Rs	(lacks)	Rs	(lacks)	Rs	(lacks)
Twist and yarn	4.16		6.00		3.08		2.99		3.79		2.58			
Piecegoods—														
Grey (unbleached)	25.45		20.93		6.87		3.92		5.07		3.06			
White (bleached)	14.20		13.27		6.20		5.83		7.33		4.78			
Coloured, printed or dyed	17.86		15.15		9.82		5.05		8.34		6.25			
Total Piecegoods	58.14		50.25		20.05		14.67		21.26		13.49			
Hosiery	1.20		1.44		98		48		67		77			
Handkerchiefs and shawls	80		17		5		2		6		4			
Thread	30		81		60		54		66		51			
Other sorts	1.52		82		59		45		49		35			
Grand Total	66.30		69.49		25.25		19.15		26.83		17.74			

Cotton Twist and Yarn (Rs. 2.58 lakh).— The imports of cotton twist and yarn were valued at Rs. 2.58 lakhs as compared with Rs. 3.79 lakhs in 1932-33. Quantitatively, the imports of 1933-34 amounted to 82 million lbs as against 46 million lbs in the preceding year. The value of the consignments thus fell off by Rs. 1.21 lakhs or by 32 per cent and the quantity by 13 million lbs or 29 per cent.

Cotton Piecegoods (Rs. 13.49 lakh).— While imports from all sources declined, the decline actually as well as relatively was largest in the case of Japan. Imports from Japan fell away by 6 million lbs, whereas those from the United Kingdom and those small other sources diminished by a little more than 3 million lbs. Expressed in percentage Japan showed a decline of 36 per cent against one of 25 per cent for the United Kingdom and 28 per cent for "other countries".

The figures for the three important classes of cotton piecegoods from 1913-14 onwards are given in the following table —

Year	Grey (unbleached)	White (bleached)	Coloured or dyed
1913-14	1,148 2	1,320 2	847 0
1914-15	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0
1915-16	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0
1916-17	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0

Year	1913-14		1929-30		1930-31		1931-32		1932-33		1933-34	
	Million yards	Million	Million yards	Million	Million yards	Million	Million yards	Million	Million yards	Million	Million yards	Million
Coloured	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0
White	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0
(bleached)	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0
or dyed	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0	1,634 2	1,820 2	847 0

The following table shows the dollar values for each of the various colors of cotton goods for the number of years.

Cotton piece good.	Gray (medium)	White (bleached)	Colored, printed or dyed.
1911	111.1	111.1	111.1
1912	111.1	111.1	111.1
1913	111.1	111.1	111.1
1914	111.1	111.1	111.1
1915	111.1	111.1	111.1
1916	111.1	111.1	111.1
1917	111.1	111.1	111.1
1918	111.1	111.1	111.1
1919	111.1	111.1	111.1
1920	111.1	111.1	111.1
1921	111.1	111.1	111.1
1922	111.1	111.1	111.1
1923	111.1	111.1	111.1
1924	111.1	111.1	111.1
1925	111.1	111.1	111.1
1926	111.1	111.1	111.1
1927	111.1	111.1	111.1
1928	111.1	111.1	111.1
1929	111.1	111.1	111.1
1930	111.1	111.1	111.1
1931	111.1	111.1	111.1
1932	111.1	111.1	111.1
1933	111.1	111.1	111.1
1934	111.1	111.1	111.1
1935	111.1	111.1	111.1
1936	111.1	111.1	111.1
1937	111.1	111.1	111.1
1938	111.1	111.1	111.1
1939	111.1	111.1	111.1
1940	111.1	111.1	111.1
1941	111.1	111.1	111.1
1942	111.1	111.1	111.1
1943	111.1	111.1	111.1
1944	111.1	111.1	111.1
1945	111.1	111.1	111.1
1946	111.1	111.1	111.1
1947	111.1	111.1	111.1
1948	111.1	111.1	111.1
1949	111.1	111.1	111.1
1950	111.1	111.1	111.1
1951	111.1	111.1	111.1
1952	111.1	111.1	111.1
1953	111.1	111.1	111.1
1954	111.1	111.1	111.1
1955	111.1	111.1	111.1
1956	111.1	111.1	111.1
1957	111.1	111.1	111.1
1958	111.1	111.1	111.1
1959	111.1	111.1	111.1
1960	111.1	111.1	111.1
1961	111.1	111.1	111.1
1962	111.1	111.1	111.1
1963	111.1	111.1	111.1
1964	111.1	111.1	111.1
1965	111.1	111.1	111.1
1966	111.1	111.1	111.1
1967	111.1	111.1	111.1
1968	111.1	111.1	111.1
1969	111.1	111.1	111.1
1970	111.1	111.1	111.1
1971	111.1	111.1	111.1
1972	111.1	111.1	111.1
1973	111.1	111.1	111.1
1974	111.1	111.1	111.1
1975	111.1	111.1	111.1
1976	111.1	111.1	111.1
1977	111.1	111.1	111.1
1978	111.1	111.1	111.1
1979	111.1	111.1	111.1
1980	111.1	111.1	111.1
1981	111.1	111.1	111.1
1982	111.1	111.1	111.1
1983	111.1	111.1	111.1
1984	111.1	111.1	111.1
1985	111.1	111.1	111.1
1986	111.1	111.1	111.1
1987	111.1	111.1	111.1
1988	111.1	111.1	111.1
1989	111.1	111.1	111.1
1990	111.1	111.1	111.1
1991	111.1	111.1	111.1
1992	111.1	111.1	111.1
1993	111.1	111.1	111.1
1994	111.1	111.1	111.1
1995	111.1	111.1	111.1
1996	111.1	111.1	111.1
1997	111.1	111.1	111.1
1998	111.1	111.1	111.1
1999	111.1	111.1	111.1
2000	111.1	111.1	111.1

The dollar values relating to the foregoing table are given in millions of dollars.

Gray (medium)	White (bleached)	Colored, printed or dyed.	Total
1911	1911	1911	1911
1912	1912	1912	1912
1913	1913	1913	1913
1914	1914	1914	1914
1915	1915	1915	1915
1916	1916	1916	1916
1917	1917	1917	1917
1918	1918	1918	1918
1919	1919	1919	1919
1920	1920	1920	1920
1921	1921	1921	1921
1922	1922	1922	1922
1923	1923	1923	1923
1924	1924	1924	1924
1925	1925	1925	1925
1926	1926	1926	1926
1927	1927	1927	1927
1928	1928	1928	1928
1929	1929	1929	1929
1930	1930	1930	1930
1931	1931	1931	1931
1932	1932	1932	1932
1933	1933	1933	1933
1934	1934	1934	1934
1935	1935	1935	1935
1936	1936	1936	1936
1937	1937	1937	1937
1938	1938	1938	1938
1939	1939	1939	1939
1940	1940	1940	1940
1941	1941	1941	1941
1942	1942	1942	1942
1943	1943	1943	1943
1944	1944	1944	1944
1945	1945	1945	1945
1946	1946	1946	1946
1947	1947	1947	1947
1948	1948	1948	1948
1949	1949	1949	1949
1950	1950	1950	1950
1951	1951	1951	1951
1952	1952	1952	1952
1953	1953	1953	1953
1954	1954	1954	1954
1955	1955	1955	1955
1956	1956	1956	1956
1957	1957	1957	1957
1958	1958	1958	1958
1959	1959	1959	1959
1960	1960	1960	1960
1961	1961	1961	1961
1962	1962	1962	1962
1963	1963	1963	1963
1964	1964	1964	1964
1965	1965	1965	1965
1966	1966	1966	1966
1967	1967	1967	1967
1968	1968	1968	1968
1969	1969	1969	1969
1970	1970	1970	1970
1971	1971	1971	1971
1972	1972	1972	1972
1973	1973	1973	1973
1974	1974	1974	1974
1975	1975	1975	1975
1976	1976	1976	1976
1977	1977	1977	1977
1978	1978	1978	1978
1979	1979	1979	1979
1980	1980	1980	1980
1981	1981	1981	1981
1982	1982	1982	1982
1983	1983	1983	1983
1984	1984	1984	1984
1985	1985	1985	1985
1986	1986	1986	1986
1987	1987	1987	1987
1988	1988	1988	1988
1989	1989	1989	1989
1990	1990	1990	1990
1991	1991	1991	1991
1992	1992	1992	1992
1993	1993	1993	1993
1994	1994	1994	1994
1995	1995	1995	1995
1996	1996	1996	1996
1997	1997	1997	1997
1998	1998	1998	1998
1999	1999	1999	1999
2000	2000	2000	2000

The bulk of the reduction under greys, has been attributed to recessions in the imports of slitting, usually the two most important sub-divisions in this class. Consumption of slitting, yarn and scum fell away by 49 million yards or 35 per cent in comparison with the imports of 1932-33 and those of longcloth and slitting by 70 million yards or 38 per cent. The imports under the former classification, however, were still aided of the abnormally low figure of 1931-32. In the case of white goods, the retrogression of the imports was accounted for mainly by jaconets, madapolams, muslins, etc. and to a relatively small extent, by longcloth and slitting. The imports of jaconets, muslins and slitting were smaller by 51 million yards or 40 per cent. The decline under longcloth and slitting was smaller, being only about 4 million yards or 31 per cent. The import figure for 1933-34 under each of these two headings marked a low level, which, as will be seen from the table above, was passed in recent years only once in 1930-31.

In regard to coloured goods by far the most important in classification of the retrogression movement was under slittings, of which the quantity received shrank by 56 million yards or by a little more than 49 per cent. To a large extent, this difference between the import figures of 1932-33 and 1933-34 under this part-

Of the total quantities of piecegoods imported in 1933-34, 64 per cent came from the United Kingdom and 44 per cent from Japan as against 48 and 47 per cent in the respective years in 1932-33. Imports from the United States of America amounted in the aggregate to 2 per cent, or much the same as in 1932-33. The following table gives the details for a number of years

Percentage shares in the total quantities of piecegoods imported.

	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	United Kingdom	Japan	United States	Netherlands	Other countries	Total
	13.1	12.4	12.5	25.2	20.2	27.2	28.2	2.0	100
	97.1	88.6	82.3	82.0	78.2	75.2	65.0	58.8	100
	3	8.5	13.9	13.6	16.4	18.4	29.3	36.1	100
	3	4.8	8.4	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	100
	3	5.1	10.0	9.1	14.1	15.1	17.1	20.1	100
	8	6.1	11.1	11.1	10.1	11.1	11.1	11.1	100
	1.6	1.9	1.7	2.4	3.0	3.9	2.9	2.6	100
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Silk, raw and manufactured (Rs. 3.58 million lbs (Rs. 88 lakhs) to 2 million lbs (Rs. 47 lakhs).—The imports under this head showed an appreciable diminution, the total supplies received during the year being valued at Rs. 3.58 lakhs as against Rs. 4.38 lakhs in 1932-33. The imports of 1933-34, however, were still in advance of the figure for 1931-32 by Rs. 85 lakhs. Imports of raw silk declined from 3 million lbs valued at Rs. 1.17 lakhs to 2 million lbs valued at Rs. 72 lakhs, more than 88 per cent of the supplies coming from China (including Hongkong) which sent 2.1 million lbs as against 2.9 million lbs, or 92 per cent of the supplies in 1932-33. Imports from Japan, however, advanced from 153,000 lbs to 220,000 lbs imports of yarns and warps recorded a decrease from 153,000 lbs to 220,000 lbs imports of yarns, however, advanced from 153,000 lbs to 220,000 lbs imports of silk piecegoods showed a further increase of 6 million yards, or 35 million yards to 41 million yards. But the value of the consignments

Number of motor vehicles registered in England and Wales 1955

[illegible][illegible]

[illegible]

Sugar (Rs. 21 lakhs)—The increase in

[illegible]

The total imports of goods were returned at 32,000 cwt which meant an increase of 6,000 over the imports of the preceding year, but the value of the consignments were nearly the same as in the preceding year, viz. 8 lakhs. Imports of acids and nitrate adds advanced from 2,800 cwt to 4,000 and 4,100 cwt respectively and of nitrates of sulphure and tartaric acids fell on a value from 2,100 to 2,000 cwt. But away from 6,800 and 2,800 cwt to 1,500 cwt respectively.

Imports of ammonia and salts thereof declined by 1,000 cwt to 40,000 cwt. The imports of bleaching materials maintained the upward trend, being returned at 152,000 cwt as compared with 151,000 cwt in 1932-33. Although in value there was a decline of about Rs 1 lakh in the case of alum and aluminium sulphates the downward trend continued, the total supplies amounting to 13,700 and 25,500 cwt as against 21,000 and 29,400 cwt, respectively in the preceding year and 26,100 and 48,700 cwt in 1931-32.

largely perhaps by variations in stocks from year to year.

Provisions (Rs. 2,72 lakhs).—Under this comprehensive head, which covers a large variety of articles such as canned and bottled provisions, farinaceous and patent foods, condensed milk, biscuits and cakes, confectionery, and saucers, butter, cocoa and chocolate, jams, pickles, daco and ham, cheese, fats and jellies, glycerine imports rising from 10,000 cwts valued at Rs. 3 lakhs to 12,000 cwts valued at Rs. 7 lakhs in 1883-84. Imports of copper compounds and potassium compounds showed an increase in quantity, while coppers and potassium carbide showed decreases.

Chemicals (Rs. 2.70 lakhs).—Relatively to 1932-33, there was a slight decline of Rs 1 lakh in the import of chemicals, the total value of the consignments received being returned at Rs 2.70 lakhs as against Rs 3.71 lakhs in the preceding year. This decline is to be attributed mainly to a fall in prices, for quantitatively, the imports were larger for most of the items under this head.

Drugs and Medicines (Rs. 1.93 lakhs).—The imports under this head were valued at Rs 1.93 lakhs which means an increase of 4 per cent on the imports of the preceding year (Rs 1.86 lakhs). The increase was due mainly to larger importations of unspecified descriptions the combined value of which advanced from Rs 91 lakhs to Rs 1.08 lakhs. Imports of camphor rose from 1,753,000 lbs to 1,786,000 lbs.

Paper and Pasteboard (Rs. 2.63 lakhs).—The imports of paper and pasteboard combined receded from 2,647,000 cwt to 2,630,000 cwt valued at 1,697,000 cwt in quantity, but this chemicals, showed an increase from 1,639,000 cwt to 1,697,000 cwt in quantity, but this

Sodium compounds, which in volume constituted 47 per cent of the total imports or chemicals, showed an increase from 1,639,000 cwt to 1,697,000 cwt in quantity, but this

Rs. 2.86 lakhs in 1032-33 to 2.56,10,000 cwt. Paper, all lands, accounted for 2,217,000 cwt. as against 2,220,000 cwt. in the preceding year but the improved demand was accompanied by a fall in value from Rs. 2.49 lakhs to Rs. 2.35 lakhs. Imports of printing paper amounted to 771,000 cwt. valued at Rs. 81 lakhs as compared with 679,000 cwt. valued at Rs. 83 lakhs in 1932-33. Newspaper recorded an increase in value from Rs. 1.12 lakhs in 1032-33 to 1.22 lakhs in 1932-33. Almost all the imported newspapers and the foreign newspapers were valued at Rs. 1.22 lakhs as compared with Rs. 1.12 lakhs in 1032-33. The total value of the imports of glass and glassware (Rs. 1.22 lakhs) — reduced from Rs. 1.12 lakhs in 1932-33 to 1.10 lakhs to Rs. 1.05 lakhs in 1932-33. Belgium also experienced a similar setback, her share, measured in value, being reduced from Rs. 1.12 lakhs in 1932-33 to 1.05 lakhs in 1932-33. Imports of glassware from the United Kingdom, Germany and Czechoslovakia were valued at Rs. 1.12 lakhs in 1932-33 and Rs. 1.05 lakhs in 1932-33. Almost all the imported glassware was valued at Rs. 1.05 lakhs in 1932-33 and Rs. 1.05 lakhs in 1932-33. The foreign share of the total quantity imported in 1032-33 was 60 per cent of the total quantity imported in 1032-33 as against 61 per cent in the preceding year. Imports of spirits (Rs. 2.27 lakhs) — The total imports were returned at 9 million gallons, valued at Rs. 2.27 lakhs as against 5 million gallons valued at Rs. 2.20 lakhs in 1932-33. The decline in quantity was due to the falling of the imports of denatured spirit which is included under this head in the trade returns, almost all the other items showed increases. As in the preceding year, the largest share in the imports went to Bombay which received 1.7 million gallons valued at Rs. 72 lakhs, Bengal came next with 1.2 million gallons valued at Rs. 61 lakhs. Imports into Sind, Madras and Burma were, as usual, relatively smaller, being valued at Rs. 43 lakhs, Rs. 25 and Rs. 20 lakhs respectively. Rs. 47 lakhs) — Relatively to 1032-33 there was a decline of 36 per cent in quantity and of 40 per cent in value in the imports of foreign salt. The total supplies received in 1932-34 were returned at 340,000 tons valued at Rs. 47 lakhs as against 544,000 tons valued at Rs. 79 lakhs in 1032-33. Stocks of salt in bond at Customs houses at the end of March 1933 were, however, much larger than usual, being 164,500 tons as compared with nearly 20,000 tons at the end of March, 1032. There were reductions in the imports from all the principal sources of supply.

Dyeing and Tanning Substances (Rs. 2.46 lakhs) — Imports of dyeing and tanning substances showed a further small decline of Rs. 4 lakhs. The total value of the imports was returned at Rs. 2.46 lakhs as compared with Rs. 2.50 lakhs in 1032-33. Coal-car dyes registered a decline of Rs. 6 lakhs and were valued at Rs. 2.11 lakhs. But in quantity the imports of coal-car dyes showed an increase from nearly 13 million lbs to about 14 million lbs. Though imports of alizarine dyes rose both in quantity and value from 2.8 million lbs valued at Rs. 18 lakhs to 2.6 million lbs valued at Rs. 20 lakhs, imports of other coal-car dyes registered a fall of Rs. 9 lakhs, in value, though in quantity the receipts aggregated 11.3 million lbs or an increase of 0.7 million lbs as compared with the preceding year.

Spices (Rs. 1.56 lakhs) — There was a further considerable increase in the imports of spices, the quantity of which amounted to 1,365,000 cwt. as against 1,272,000 cwt. in 1032-33 to 26,000 tons and 3,000 tons respectively in 1032-34. Imports into Burma increased from 8,000 tons to 12,000 tons.

Coal (Rs. 9 lakhs) — Imports of foreign coal increased by 60 per cent in quantity from 35,000 tons in 1032-33 to 56,000 tons in 1032-34 and by 42 per cent in value from Rs. 4 lakhs to Rs. 9 lakhs. Bombay enlarged her imports from 11,000 tons to 14,000 tons and Sind and Madras 11,000 tons to 14,000 tons and 3,000 tons respectively in 1032-34. Imports into Burma increased from 8,000 tons to 12,000 tons.

Cement (Rs. 22 lakhs) — Imports of cement showed a further decline from 84,000 tons to 60,000 tons in quantity and from Rs. 29 lakhs to Rs. 22 lakhs in value. The Madras Presidency, as usual, had the largest share in the imports, although her requirements underwent a further reduction from 20,300 tons to 22,000 tons. Burma reduced her share from 22,000 tons to 16,400 tons.

Precious stones and pearls (Rs. 75 lakhs) — The trade in precious stones and pearls was unable to maintain the expansion noticed in the preceding year and the value of the consignments fell off from Rs. 81 lakhs in 1932-33 to Rs. 75 lakhs. This decrease was due to smaller receipts of diamonds which accounted for Rs. 60 lakhs as compared with Rs. 71 lakhs in 1032-33. Imports of pearls, musc, however, advanced from Rs. 10 lakhs to Rs. 11 lakhs. The imports of other kinds or precious stones were well maintained, being valued at nearly Rs. 24 lakhs in 1032-34 as against Rs. 24 lakhs in the preceding year.

Tobacco (Rs. 72 lakhs) — Imports of unmanufactured tobacco which had reached 5.1 million lbs in 1932-33 fell off to 4.2 million lbs in the year under review. Supplies from the United States of America which accounted for 60 per cent of the total quantity imported in 1032-33 as against 61 per cent in the preceding year amounted to 2.1 million lbs as compared with 1.7 million lbs in 1032-33.

Precious stones and pearls (Rs. 75 lakhs) — The trade in precious stones and pearls was unable to maintain the expansion noticed in the preceding year and the value of the consignments fell off from Rs. 81 lakhs in 1932-33 to Rs. 75 lakhs. This decrease was due to smaller receipts of diamonds which accounted for Rs. 60 lakhs as compared with Rs. 71 lakhs in 1032-33. Imports of pearls, musc, however, advanced from Rs. 10 lakhs to Rs. 11 lakhs. The imports of other kinds or precious stones were well maintained, being valued at nearly Rs. 24 lakhs in 1032-34 as against Rs. 24 lakhs in the preceding year.

III.—EXPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

The following table shows the comparative importance of the principal articles exported from British India —

EXPORTS.

(In thousands of Rupees.)

	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	Percentage on total exports of merchandise in 1933-34
{ Jute raw	27,17,38	12,88,47	11,18,81	9,73,03	10,93,27	7.47
{ Jute manufactures	61,02,68	81,89,44	21,02,42	21,71,18	21,97,49	14.6
{ Cotton raw and waste	65,60,85	46,72,65	23,78,19	20,69,95	26,97,67	18.44
{ Cotton manufactures	7,18,07	5,21,54	4,81,54	3,29,11	2,72,63	1.86
Tea	26,00,64	23,55,93	19,43,74	17,15,28	19,84,62	18.56
Grain, pulse and flour	34,97,16	29,88,19	20,37,18	16,07,69	11,74,79	8.03
Metals and ores	10,33,96	7,94,04	5,47,10	4,68,18	5,48,73	8.75
Leather	8,16,24	6,39,11	5,35,20	4,76,42	5,28,08	8.61
Hides and skins, raw	7,98,27	4,46,36	3,66,71	2,76,87	4,25,33	2.91
Wool raw and manu-	6,33,54	3,23,25	3,86,73	1,91,10	2,72,48	1.86
Lac	6,96,72	3,13,74	1,83,94	1,24,24	2,46,44	1.68
Paraffin wax	3,17,69	2,81,83	2,81,74	2,01,88	2,28,91	1.57
Oil cakes	3,11,92	2,08,05	2,00,68	1,96,51	1,64,72	1.12
Coffee	1,46,40	1,81,86	94,50	1,09,81	1,02,45	7
Fruits and vegetables	90,62	79,75	90,32	69,52	99,06	68
Tobacco	1,06,42	1,03,65	85,42	77,11	93,80	64
Wood and timber	1,80,07	1,40,47	78,47	56,18	84,24	.58
Dyeing and tanning substances	1,11,57	1,08,23	86,94	75,43	78,69	.54
Coir	1,04,68	1,22,07	75,68	60,24	76,96	.53
Opium	1,27,19	1,27,19	87,25	72,38	72,20	.49
Spices	1,96,39	1,27,19	87,25	72,38	72,20	.49
Oil seeds	72,38	47,24	67,33	63,79	67,24	.39
Spices	1,96,39	1,27,19	87,25	72,38	72,20	.49
Foodstuffs, & pollards	1,18,63	76,76	75,14	70,29	46,64	.32
Fish (excluding canned)	73,81	69,33	64,24	46,71	44,87	.31
Alum	1,03,08	49,35	39,36	31,62	44,74	.31
Coal and coke	68,33	39,30	26,80	32,16	36,09	.24
Hemp, raw	1,78,88	1,29,75	44,58	8,78	31,18	.21
Rubber, raw	60,40	49,95	35,55	32,62	28,12	.19
Manures	49,68	51,30	38,39	20,39	25,45	.17
Bones for manufacturing purposes	75,27	71,25	45,14	34,82	24,38	.17
Drugs and medicines	48,45	50,92	23,10	31,26	23,81	.16
Rope for brushes and	28,15	26,61	20,43	24,02	22,02	.15
Brushes	14,56	10,98	11,66	18,65	17,46	.13
Saltpetre	8,87	7,52	10,58	12,26	15,26	.1
Apparel	24,52	16,12	10,33	8,93	11,14	.08
Animals living, Building and Engineer-	36,80	26,00	14,99	10,10	9,86	.06
ing materials other than of iron, steel or	14,99	10,39	7,47	9,24	9,84	.06
Wood	14,99	10,39	7,47	9,24	9,84	.06
Corriage and rope	14,99	10,39	7,47	9,24	9,84	.06

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Detailed figures of exports for the past three years compared with 1913-14 are given below—

	1918-19 (pre-war year)	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Grey and bleached piece-goods— Suttings .. Chaddars and dhotees .. T cloth and domestics .. Drills and jeans .. Other sorts ..				
TOTAL	44 2	8 8	61 4	52 0
Coloured piece-goods ..	15 0	95 8	61 4	52 0
TOTAL	12 2	1 7	8	1 2
	3 2	4 1	1 7	8
	7 6	2 3	1 9	1 6
	21 6	6	1.8	1 6
	6	1	.2	..4
	12 2	1 7	8	1 2
Million yards		Million yards	Million yards	Million yards

Jute and Jute Manufactures (Rs.—32.31
 The total area under jute in 1933
 Jute during the year.

The total weight of raw and manufactured cottonseed oil manufactured during the year amounted to 1,420,000 tons and was in excess of the corresponding exports for 1932-33 by 177,000 tons. The total value of the shipments also increased from \$3,814 crores to \$4,244 crores. Raw cottonseed oil accounted for 34 per cent of the total value of the shipments in 1932-33 and 36 per cent in 1933-34. The 1933 season was further improved and this year's crop exceeded the previous year's output by 10,000 bales. This expansion was largely due to the heavy yield in part due to the large additional area in 1932 and 1,862,000 acres in 1931. The yield for the 1933 crop was estimated to be 8,012,000 bales of 100 lbs each as against an estimate of 7,967,000 bales in 1932 and 7,087,000 bales in 1931. The crop of 1932 which formed the basis of trade transactions during the earlier part of the year had already shown an increase of 1,630,000 bales or 27 per cent over the previous year's crop. The 1933 season was further improved and this year's crop exceeded the previous year's output by 10,000 bales. This expansion was largely due to the heavy yield in part due to the large additional area in 1932 and 1,862,000 acres in 1931. The yield for the 1933 crop was estimated to be 8,012,000 bales of 100 lbs each as against an estimate of 7,967,000 bales in 1932 and 7,087,000 bales in 1931.

	1913-14	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84
Fute (in thousand tons)	708	687	663	748
Bags (in millions)	309	389	416	402
Cloth (in million yards)	1,061	1,021	1,012	- 1,058

The quantity of raw jute exported, as shown in the table above, exceeded the quantity shipped in 1932-33 by 33 per cent and was in fact only 8 per cent less than the shipments of the pre-War year, 1913-14. The exports of gunny bags decreased in number by 1.8 millions whereas the total quantity of the cloth exported showed an increase of 1.1 million yards. The production and mill consumption in India with the corresponding exports abroad or raw jute for the last 20 years are given in table No 29, and the detailed figures of exports of jute manufactures are shown in table Nos 30-A and 30-B appended to this Review. The total exports of raw jute increased from 563,000 tons to 748,000 tons in quantity and the corresponding increase in value was one of Rs 1 crore, namely from Rs. 10 crores in 1932-33 to Rs 11 crores in 1933-34. The increase in the export of raw jute was thus considerable and on the whole, the export trade in raw jute may be said to have emerged reasonably well from the low point of depression which had been reached in 1932-33. The United Kingdom and Germany, normally the two most important consumers for raw jute, considerably increased their requirements. The United Kingdom received 177,000 tons, (Rs 2.55 lakhs) as compared with 130,000 tons (Rs 2.24 lakhs) in the preceding year, whereas demand from Germany enlarged from 122,000 tons (Rs 3.12 lakhs) to 166,000 tons (Rs 3.92 lakhs). Exports to the Netherlands, Belgium and France also showed concurrent increases from 32,000 tons (Rs 37 lakhs), 41,000 tons (Rs 71 lakhs) and 69,000 tons (Rs 1.16 lakhs) to 38,000 tons (Rs 48 lakhs), 66,000 tons (Rs 83 lakhs) and 84,000 tons (Rs 1.25 lakhs) respectively. Italy received 65,000 tons valued at Rs 86 lakhs as compared with 37,000 tons valued at Rs 66 lakhs in 1932-33. The increases of the United States of America amounted to 52,000 tons valued at Rs 75 lakhs as against 36,000 tons valued at Rs 69 lakhs in the preceding year. Japan and Brazil also showed considerable increases, the former taking 17,000 tons and the latter, 19,000 tons as against 14,000 tons and 18,000 tons respectively in 1932-33. Spain alone among the important outlets for raw jute had reduced her requirements, her demand having fallen off from 36,000 tons to 30,000 tons.

The total exports of gunny bags decreased in number from 45 millions to 40.2 millions, and correspondingly in value from Rs 11.66

lacks to Rs 9.72 lakhs. The decline was due entirely to a falling off in the demand for packing gunny bags, the exports of which sunk from 326 millions to 308 million in quantity or ports of gunny cloth increased from 10.13 millions yards to 10.63 millions yards.

Foodgrains and flour (Rs. 11.75 lakhs).—The slump in the export trade in foodgrains intensified further during the year 1933-34 and the shipments fell from 2,056,000 tons to 1,870,000 tons or by 9 per cent in quantity and from Rs 16.08 lakhs to Rs 11.75 lakhs or by 27 per cent in value. Under rice, which constitutes the most important head in this class there was a further recession from 1,887,000 tons to 1,744,000 tons. Consignments of pulse similarly declined from 1,100 tons to 101,000 tons. Declines were also noticeable under wheat-flour, jowar and barley and barley. In the year under review the last named cereal was virtually eliminated from the export trade of India, the shipments for the entire year amounting to 143 tons only as against a total of 16,600 tons in 1932-33. A somewhat similar phenomenon was witnessed in 1932-33 in connection with wheat, exports of which had already dwindled considerably in that year. The year now being reviewed saw no improvement and the export figures was maintained at about 2,000 tons. Among the comparatively unimportant sub-heads, maize and oat have to be noted as showing some improvement compared with the trade of 1932-33.

Tea (Rs. 19.85 lakhs).—The total exports of tea in 1933-34 amounted to 318 million lbs valued at Rs 19.85 lakhs as compared with 379 million lbs valued at Rs 17.15 lakhs in 1932-33. Relatively to the exports of 1932-33, there was thus a decrease of 16 per cent in quantity and an increase of 16 per cent in value. The relative movements in the volume and value of the exports are reflected in the average declared value per lb. of tea exported, which, as already indicated, amounted to 10 as in 1933-34 as against 7.39 in the preceding year. Exports for 2 lbs of green tea exported in the whole course of the year, the consignments sent out in 1933-34 represented exclusively black tea. Of the total outward shipments 87 per cent was taken by the United Kingdom or much the same as in 1932-33. Exports to that country amounted to 276 million lbs as compared with 331 million lbs. in the preceding year. The value of the consignments, however, increased from Rs 14.78 lakhs to Rs 17.67 lakhs. Direct shipments to the United States of America fell off from 11 million lbs to 8 million lbs and those to Canada from 17 million lbs to 15 million lbs. Direct consignments to the U S S R showed a very heavy decline from 3.5 million lbs to 0.7 million lbs. But part of this decline was made up for by increases in the exports of Australia and New Zealand which received respectively 2.0 million and 2.5 million lbs as against 1.0 million and 1.1 million lbs. in the preceding year. There was a notable set-back in the exports to Egypt, which took off 1.3 million lbs as against 2.0 million lbs. in 1932-33. Ceylon with an outtake of 3.2 million lbs showed a faint drop in relation to her exports of the previous year at 3.5 million lbs. Arabia cut

Tea	1933-34	1932-33	1931-32	1930-31	1929-30
Insured	379	120	72	379	379
Uninsured	273	64	116	273	273
Groundnuts	212	072	433	212	212
Cashew	114	104	86	114	114
Cotton	340	12	2	340	340
Seamum	110	12	10	110	110
Others	85	14	15	85	85
Total	1,453	098	738	1,453	1,453

Hides and skins (Rs. 9.90 lakhs).—There was a welcome change during the year under review from diminishing demand and falling prices that had characterized the hides and skins trade in India in the years preceding. This improvement was due to the interplay of numerous economic forces, the most important of which was the reaction set up by the depreciation of the American dollar. There was thus a larger demand for supplies from India and this demand was abundantly reflected in the total figures of exports which advanced from 43,000 tons to 61,000 tons in quantity and from Rs 7.43 lakhs to Rs 9.90 lakhs in value. The average declared value for raw hides and skins rose from 75 p to 75 p, but that for tanned hides and skins fell from Rs 1-11 to Rs 1-4-6 per lb. The total exports of raw hides and skins during the year amounted to 41,600 tons valued at Rs 4.25 lakhs as compared with 37,300 tons valued at Rs 2.77 lakhs in the preceding year. Exports of raw hides increased from 13,000 tons valued at Rs. 63 lakhs to 20,800 tons valued at Rs 10.1 lakhs. Simultaneously, shipments of raw skins advanced from 13,300 tons to 19,900 tons.

Oilseeds (Rs. 13.66 lakhs).—The total exports of Indian oilseeds of all kinds improved in quantity from 733,000 tons in 1932-33 to 1,124,000 tons in the year under review and from Rs 11.31 lakhs to Rs 13.66 lakhs in value. Relatively to 1932-33, therefore, there was an improvement of 53 per cent in quantity and 21 per cent in value. In quantity the exports in 1933-34 reached a record level for recent years, this expansion being mainly due to the recovery made by Indian uninsured exports of linseed in the year under review. It is interesting to note that the pre-war level attained the year 1933-34. There was also an improved demand for groundnuts as compared with the preceding year, but this improvement was accompanied by a fall in value. Excluding unused and groundnuts, other kinds of oilseeds taken together declined from 228,000 tons to 198,000 tons in quantity and from Rs 3.28 lakhs to Rs 2.46 lakhs in value. The demand for it falling off by about 37 per cent. The table compares the quantities of the different kinds of oilseeds exported during the last 3 years with the pre-war averages.

Pro-war 1931-32 1932-33 1933-34
The last 3 years with the pre-war averages

The detailed showing the exports of vegetable products are given in the table —

Imports of vegetable non-essential oils.

1018-14 1981-82 1982-83 1983-84

	3,212 1,000	2,114	2,015
Castor oil	1,007	1,126	1,336
Groundnut oil	288	455	716
Cocaine oil	1,091	86	82
Musard oil	407	250	263
Other sorts	410	177	669
Total	3,212	2,114	2,015

Metals and Ores (Rs. 5.49 lakhs)—The total exports of ores in 1983-84 amounted to 305,000 tons valued at Rs 1.84 lakhs as compared with

[illegible][illegible][illegible]

The following table shows the production of pig iron and steel in India during the past three years—

1981-82	1982-83	1983-84
Production of pig iron	1,070	880
" " steel	602	501
(Ingots)	602	501
Production of finished steel	450	442
	561	

Other Exports—Other important exports from India included paraffin wax (Rs. 2.20 lakhs), Oleic acid (Rs. 1.66 lakhs), Coffee (Rs. 1.02 lakhs), tobacco (Rs. 90 lakhs), dyestuff and tanning substances (Rs. 79 lakhs), and spices (Rs. 72 lakhs).

from Rs 2,17 lakhs to Rs. 3,23 lakhs. There was also similar increase in the cases of tanned hides improved from 0,000 tons valued at Rs 1,62 lakhs to 0,000 tons valued at Rs 2,11 lakhs and of those of tanned skins from 5,500 tons valued at Rs 3,04 lakhs to 6,300 tons valued at Rs 3,27 lakhs, so that the aggregate increase under tanned or dressed hides or skins amounted to one of Rs 5,200 tons in quantity and of Rs. 10 lakhs in value.

Lac (Rs 2.46 lakhs)—The year under revision was one of unexpected improvement in the export trade of lac, shipments having increased from 178,000 cwts. valued at Rs 1.23 lakhs in 1932-33 to 731,000 cwts. valued at Rs 2.46 lakhs in this year. Expressed in percentages, the increase in volume relatively to the exports of 1932-33 was thus one of 75 per cent and that in value, of 98 per cent.

The bulk of the improvement was necessarily appropriated by shellac which represented 72 per cent of the total quantity and 70 per cent of the total value recorded under the outgoing shipments of shellac in 1933-8. It amounted to 529,000 cwts valued at Rs 1,04 lakhs as compared with 262,000 cwts valued at Rs 83 lakhs. The figures represented an increase of 267,000 cwts, or of 102 per cent in volume and of Rs 1,11 lakhs, or 184 per cent in value. This is no doubt a very impressive record but it is due to causes other than intrinsic position of the commodity as revealed by the statistics of stocks in the world markets.

Raw Wool (Rs 1.98 lakhs)—The trade in raw wool from India met with exceptionally good prospects during the year under review. During 1932-33 the world production of wool was 2 per cent below the output of the preceding season. Furthermore, the prospects for the 1933-34 season were all on the side of a smaller supply in view of droughty conditions in parts of Australia and the put and run nature of all these factors was an increased demand in India and during the year the exports advanced from 32 million lbs to 36 million lbs, or by 15 per cent. Of the total quantities shipped the United Kingdom took 48 million lbs or 77 per cent as compared with 28 million lbs or 87 per cent

in 1932-33 of the remainder, 1.5 million for, were contributed by the United States of America, and an interesting fact to be noted in this connection is that this purchase more than doubled her share in comparison with the recorded purchases of 1932-33, about 2.5 million lbs. Belgium received 2.7 million lbs or a little more than double of what she had taken in 1932-33. Considerable increases were also registered in the takings of France, Germany and the Netherlands.

Oil (Rs. 57 lakhs)—The total exports of oil in 1938-39 were valued at Rs. 57 lakhs which meant an increase of Rs. 3 lakhs in value in comparison with the exports of 1937-38. The bulk of the shipments consisted, as usual, of vegetable non-essential oils, the consumption of which increased from 2,44,000 gallons to 2,91,500 gallons in 1938-39.

Index Numbers of Prices.

The Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta, publishes from time to time an addendum to the publication Index (3) the general un-weighted index number for 38 articles and (4) the weighted index number for 100 articles up-to-date (1) the un-weighted index of 100 articles on base 1873-100.

The following table contains these index numbers since the year 1925 —

Year	Exported articles 28 (un-weighted)	Imported articles 11 (un-weighted)	General Index No for all (38) Articles (un-weighted)	Weighted Index No (100) Articles equated to 100 for 1873
------	------------------------------------	------------------------------------	--	--

1925	223	211	227	266
1926	225	105	216	260
1927	209	185	202	258
1928	212	171	201	261
1929	216	170	203	251
1930	177	167	171	213
1931	125	131	127	157
1932	120	139	126	140
1933	118	128	121	139

Indices the above wholesale price index numbers, the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta, publishes a Wholesale price index number for Calcutta while the Bombay Labour Office publishes similar statistics for Bombay and Karachi.

The following table gives these index numbers since 1925 —

Wholesale price index numbers for Calcutta, Bombay and Karachi (Base 1914).

Year.	Calcutta	Bombay	Karachi
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About the end of the year 1929 there began a sharp decline in wholesale prices which continued during 1930 and 1931. During 1932 although wholesale prices were slightly lower than in 1931, the fluctuations were within narrow limits. In 1933 prices continued a considerable fall. This was somewhat checked during 1934 when prices of certain important commodities, in addition to these, however, some of the

The inadequacy as also the general untheoretical tendency of prices continued downward in 1981. In 1938 and 1934 the level than in 1981. In 1938 and 1934 the year 1981 although with less vigour than in 1980. In 1932 prices ruled at a slightly lower numbers are being published regularly every month for the following centres for Bombay, Ahmedabad, and Sholapur by the Labour Office or the Government of Bombay, for Nagpur and Jabalpur by the Department of Industries, Central Provinces and Berar, for stations in Bihar and Orissa by the Department of Industries, Bihar and Orissa, and for Rangoon by the Office of the Director of Statistics and Labour Commissioner, Burma, Rangoon.

The Bombay working class cost of living index number will base July 1911-100 stood at 99 in December 1984, the average for 1934 being 97. The Ahmedabad cost of living index number with base August 1926 to July 1927-100 stood at 75 in December 1984 while the Sholapur cost of living index number with base February 1927 to January 1928-100 stood at 74 in December 1984. The Nagpur cost of living index number on base January 1927-100 was 57 in December 1984 while the Jabalpur index on the same base was 56. For Rangoon, four different index numbers with base 1931-100 are compiled for (a) Burmese, (b) Tamils, Telugus and Orissas (c) Hindustanis and (d) Christians. The Index Number for these were 84, 91, 89 and 85 respectively.

The catastrophic fall in prices which commenced at the end of 1929 continued also have been taken.

Air Routes.

The Tata Air Mail Service connects at Karachi with Imperial Airways' Eastbound and West-bound services and provides through air transport to Ahmedabad, Bombay, Hyderabad (Deccan) and Alandras.

The fares from Karachi are as follows —
To Bagdad £31, to Athens £71, to London £95. The through fare from Karachi to London allows for a weight of 100 kilos (221 pounds) per passenger, and a passenger is entitled to free conveyance of luggage to the extent of the difference between his own weight and the 221 pounds mentioned above.

If the difference between the weight of the passenger and 221 lbs is less than 30 lbs an additional 33 lbs of luggage may be carried free. The rate for excess luggage is just over twelve shillings per kilo. Children in arms are weighed mothers or nurses, and other children are charged full fare.

In the reverse direction, through air transport is provided from Singapore to Karachi by Indian Trans-Continental Airways and on to Europe and London by Imperial Airways' westbound service, leaving Karachi each Sunday and Wednesday.

From Calcutta, Indian National Airways operate a service to Dacca and a bi-weekly to Hongkong via intermediate ports.

on Monday.
plains leaves every Saturday, reaching Singapore on Monday.
ceases at the Calcutta end and from there the Monday, respectively. The duplicate service on Calcutta on the following Friday and Saturday, Delhi, Cawnpore and Allahabad, reach Karachi the same evening and passes through Calcutta. Imperial Airways whose service departs from Karachi at Karachi where it connects with Indian Trans-Continental Airways each Thursday and Sunday arriving from Europe each Thursday and London, transport from Karachi to Europe and London.

Imperial Airways service provides through transport from Karachi to Europe and London, with Imperial Airways' Eastbound and West-bound services and provides through air transport to Ahmedabad, Bombay, Hyderabad (Deccan) and Alandras.

Time tables of England-India-Australia

The latest available time-tables of air mail services mentioned above are as follows —

England-India-Malaya (Australia) Air Mail Service.

[illegible]

Karachi-Madras Air Service.									
South Bound.					North Bound.				
Karachi	Dep.	6-30	Monday	Friday	Madras	Arr.	6-30	Monday	Friday
Ammalabad	Dep.	10-20	"	"	Hyderabad Deccan	Arr.	17-25	"	"
"	Arr.	10-50	"	"	"	Dep.	6-30	"	"
Bombay	Dep.	18-40	"	"	"	Arr.	11-00	"	"
"	Arr.	14-16	"	"	Ammalabad	Dep.	12-50	"	"
Hyderabad Deccan	Dep.	18-10	"	"	"	Arr.	14-20	"	"
"	Arr.	6-80	"	"	Madras	Dep.	9-55	"	"
Madras	Dep.	9-55	Tuesday	Saturday					
Karachi	Dep.	6-30	Monday	Friday					
Ammalabad	Dep.	10-20	"	"					
"	Arr.	10-50	"	"					
Bombay	Dep.	18-40	"	"					
"	Arr.	14-16	"	"					
Hyderabad Deccan	Dep.	18-10	"	"					
"	Arr.	6-80	"	"					
Madras	Dep.	9-55	Tuesday	Saturday					

Africa and the Far East

Several new air services which are of considerable importance to India have been inaugurated, and of these the most notable is the England-Vfrica service which connects with the Indian Empire at Cairo and provides an entirely new route between Delhi and South Africa. Other important air lines established are the French service between Paris and Saigon and the extension of the England-India Air Mail to Australia, has been accomplished and Australia is now linked by air with England.

The Indian Stores Department.

A detailed account of the organisation of the Indian Stores Department at Government of the India Headquarters and of the successive orders issued by Government to assure as far as possible the purchase of stores of Indian manufacture or in India is to be found in earlier issues of the "Indian Year Book." The current rules to regulate stores purchases shall be given in the following order—

First, to articles which are produced in India in the form of raw materials or are manufactured in India from raw materials produced sufficiently good for the purpose, Second, to articles wholly or partially manufactured in India from imported materials, provided that the quality is sufficiently good for the purpose, Third, to articles of foreign manufacture held in stock in India provided that they are of suitable type and requisite quality, Fourth, to articles manufactured abroad which need to be specially imported.

The new rules were calculated materially to widen the scope of operations of the Department. The total value of orders placed by the Department during the year 1932-33, the latest period for which figures are yet available, was Rs. 3,59,94,135 as compared with Rs. 3,50,90,908 during 1931-32. The increase amounts to Rs. 29,03,232 or 8 per cent, which is most satisfactory considering that throughout the year under review the necessity for the strictest economy in expenditure still continued, so that fewer tenders were received for plant and machinery and stores required for new capital works, and Indian Departments continued to cut down their annual requirements of consumable stores to a minimum.

As a result of the close observance of the Rules Tender Rules by departments of the Central Government and other provincial governments, the value of stores tenders submitted for sending to the Director General, India Stores Department, London, was Rs. 60,01,840 as against Rs. 74,86,880 in the preceding year. The Department continued throughout the year to assist manufacturers in India to improve the quality of their products. The means adopted included technical advice and suggestions. Every endeavour was made to substitute supplies of indigenous manufacture, wherever possible, without sacrificing economy and efficiency.

The total expenditure during the year 1932-33 amounted to Rs. 22,69,676, showing an excess of Rs. 1,01,652 over the corresponding figures for the year 1931-32. The increase is chiefly due to the partial restoration of the emergency cut on salaries of the staff and partly to the normal growth of expenditure due to annual increments. The credit side of the account shows an increase of Rs. 1,81,206, the total earnings amounting to Rs. 11,97,491 against Rs. 10,16,286 during the preceding year. This stores against tenders placed with the Department, advance by Rs. 43,832, while fees earned on stores inspected on behalf of other authorities and on tests and analyses carried out at the Government Test House and the Metallurgical Inspectorate exceeded the corresponding figures of the previous year by Rs. 1,39,891.

After covering the excess of Rs. 1,01,652 on the expenditure side, there was a net improvement of Rs. 79,553, in the balance sheet of the Department.

Rs. a

Rs. a

Policy of Insurance—	Copy of Extract—If the original was not
(1) Sea—Where premium does not	exceed 1 Rupee 1 0
exceed rates of 2, or 3 per cent of	In any other case 2 0
In any other case for Rs. 1,000 or part	Counterpart or Duplicate—If the duty
thereof 0 1	charged does not exceed the 2 rupees—
(2) For time—For every Rs. 1,000 or	The same duty as is payable on the
part insured, not ex. 6 months 0 2	Delivery Order 0 1
Exceeding 6 and not exceeding 12	Entry in any High Court of an Advocate
months 0 4	or Vali 500 0
If drawn in duplicate, for each part—	In the case of an Attorney 500 0
Half the above rates, for Sea and	Instrument—Apprenticeship 10 0
Time 0 8	Divorce 5 0
In respect of each receipt for any	Other than Will, recording an adoption
payment of a premium on any	Authority to adopt 20 0
renewal of an original policy—One-	Lease—Where rent is fixed and no pre-
half of the duty payable in respect	mium is paid for less than 1 year, same
of the original policy in addition to	more than 3 years, same as Bond for
the amount, if any chargeable under	average annual rent reserved, over 3
Art 53 (Receipt) 0 1	years, same as Conveyance for consi-
(4) Accident and Sickness—Against	deration equal to amount or value of
Railway accident, valid for a single	the average annual rent reserved; for
journey only 0 1	Indemnity term, same as Conveyance
In any other case—for the maximum	for a consideration equal to the amount
amount which may become payable	or value of the average annual rent
in the case of any single accident or	which would be paid or delivered for
sickness where such amount does not	so long, in perpetuity, same as Convey-
exceed Rs. 1,000, and also where	ance for consideration equal to one-
amount ex. Rs. 1,000, for every	50 years Where there is premium
Rs. 1,000 or part 0 2	first of rents paid in respect of first
(5) Life, or other Insurance, not spec-	amount of premium, premium with
fically provided for—	and no rent, same as Conveyance for
For every sum not exceeding	rent, same as Conveyance or amount
Rs. 250 0 2	which would have been payable on the
Exceeding Rs. 250 but not exceed-	lease if no fine or premium or advance
ing Rs. 500 0 4	had been paid or delivered
For every sum insured not exceed-	Letter—Allotment of Shares 0 2
ing Rs. 1,000 or part 0 6	Credit 0 2
If drawn in duplicate for each part	License 10 0
half the above rates.	Attem. of Association of Company—If
Insurance by way of indemnity	accompanied by Articles or Association
on account of damages to	It not so accompanied 80 0
workmen employed by or under	Notarial Act 2 0
the insurer or against liability	Note or Memo. intimating the purchase
to pay compensation under the	or sale—
Workmen's Compensation Act	(a) Of any Goods exc in value Rs. 20,
of 1928 For every Rs. 100 or	(b) Of any Stock or marketable Secu-
part payable as premium 0 1	rity exceeding in value Rs. 20—

Polices of all classes of Insurance not included in Article 47 of Schedule 1 of Stamp Act of 1899 covering goods, merchandise, personal effects, crops and other property against loss or damage, are liable to the same duty as Policies of Fire Insurance.

Copy of Extract—If the original was not chargeable with duty, or if duty with which it was chargeable does not exceed 1 Rupee 1 0

(a) Of any Goods exc in value Rs. 20, or sale—
(b) Of any Stock or marketable Security exceeding in value Rs. 20—
(b) Of Government Security—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, 2 as for every Rs. 10,000, or part
Note of Protest by a Ship's Master 1 0
Partnership—Where the capital does not exceed Rs. 500 5 0
In any other case 20 0
Dissolution of 10 0

had been paid or delivered
lease if no fine or premium or advance
which would have been payable on the
of premium in addition to the duty
rent, same as Conveyance or amount
amount of premium, premium with
and no rent, same as Conveyance for
50 years Where there is premium
first of rents paid in respect of first
ance for consideration equal to one-
so long, in perpetuity, same as Convey-
the first ten years if the lease continued
which would be paid or delivered for
or value of the average annual rent
for a consideration equal to the amount
Indemnity term, same as Conveyance
the average annual rent reserved; for
deration equal to amount or value of
years, same as Conveyance for consi-
more than 3 years, same as Bond for
duty as Bond for whole amount; not
mium is paid for less than 1 year, same
Lease—Where rent is fixed and no pre-

Authority to adopt 20 0
Other than Will, recording an adoption 5 0
Divorce 10 0
Instrument—Apprenticeship 10 0
In the case of an Attorney 500 0
or Vali 500 0
Entry in any High Court of an Advocate 1 0
Delivery Order 2 0
The same duty as is payable on the original in any other case 0 1
charged does not exceed the 2 rupees—
with which the original instrument is
Counterpart or Duplicate—If the duty 2 0
In any other case 1 0
exceed 1 Rupee 1 0
which it was chargeable does not

The Indian National Congress.

For a complete history of the movement re-
presented by the Indian National Congress
the reader is referred to earlier editions of the
Indian Year Book. The Congress was founded
in 1885 by Mr Allan Octavian Hume, a retired
member of the Indian Civil Service, and it held
its first session in Bombay as Christmas of that
year, the fundamental principles of the Congress
were laid down to be —

Firstly, the fusion into one national whole
of all the different and discordant ele-
ments that constitute the population of
India,
Secondly, the gradual regeneration, along
all lines, mental, moral, social and poli-
tical of the nation thus evolved, and
Thirdly, the consolidation of union between
England and India by securing the mod-
ification of such of the conditions as may
be unjust or injurious to the latter
country.

With these objects in view the Congress pur-
sued an uneventful career until 1907. It un-
doubtedly exercised a great influence in India
ing a spirit of national unity amongst the diverse
peoples of India, in focussing the chief political
grievances, and in providing a rallying ground
for Indian politicians. But in 1907 the Bre-
kenridges, chiefly of the Deccan and the Central
Provinces, who had for some time chafed under
the control of the older generation, succeeded
in wrecking the Surat session of the Congress
and produced a split which had long been seen
to be imminent. The senior members of the
Congress therefore re-organised the creed in
absolute terms. They laid down that—
"The objects [of the Indian National
Congress are the attainment by the people of
India of a system of self-government similar to
that enjoyed by the self-governing members
of the British Empire, and a participation by
them in the rights and responsibilities of the
Empire on equal terms with those members
These objects are to be achieved by consti-
tutional means by bringing about a steady
reformation of the existing system of adminis-
tration and by promoting national unity, fostering
the intellectual, moral, economic and industrial
resources of the country."
For some years following 1907 efforts were
made to heal the split and these were without
avail until 1916 when a re-united Congress met at
Lucknow under the presidency of Bal Gangadhar
Krishna Mawla Jinnah of Bombay. But
the union then effected was purely superficial,
the difference between the Moderates and the Ex-
tremists was fundamental; the extremists ap-
proached the Congress as a goal of India
in the following two years the Congress made
down, while the Liberals moved towards the
what the extremists described as a climb-
down, while the Liberals moved towards the
left, with the result that for a time there appeared
to be a commonness of purpose between the
Liberals and Congressmen. At its 1928 Session
the Congress, while adhering to Independence,
agreed to accept Dominion Status if granted, be-
fore the end of 1929. Things were tending towards
a satisfactory settlement when in the latter
half of 1929 the Congress insisted on the imme-
diate grant of Dominion Status or an assurance
that Dominion Status would be the basis of
discussion at the Round Table Conference to be
convened in England between representatives
of England and the two Indian
parties of the ways. The Liberals went their
way and the Congress its own. In fulfilment
of the "Widening" issued at its previous
Session, at its 1928 Session,
declared for complete independence or "Purna
Swaraj". "Throughout the year 1930 the Con-
gress was engaged in a defence of the law of the
land and which, it was hoped, would help India,
at which complete independence. Early next
year the Congress actually suspended civil
disobedience by virtue of an agreement arrived
at with the Government, but the fulfilment of
the terms of this agreement gave rise to tron-
ble and another agreement was concluded
As a result of this Mr Gandhi, on behalf of the
Congress, actually went to London to take part
in the Round Table Conference. While he was
away things took a turn for the worse in the
country, and matters reached a crisis with the
birth of the New Year. In 1932 the Govern-
ment bent all its efforts to making it impossible
for the Congress to carry on its subversive set-
tles and succeeded fully in its object. Con-
gress was crushed and all forms of Congress work
throughout the country were successfully
prevented. In fact as well as in law Congress
ceased to exist in the middle of 1934 the
civil disobedience movement, which had rendered
the Congress illegal, was withdrawn. At
present, the Congress is once again a constitu-
tional organisation, most of whose activities
are legitimate and lawful. It has once again
decided to contest elections to the legisla-
ture. Mr Gandhi, is no longer at its head, having
retired from it and from politics. He is contin-
uing his attention on the revival and develop-
ment of dying or dead village industries.

THE NON-CO-OPERATION MOVEMENT.

It was in 1920 that Mr Gandhi, who had only
in the previous year unsuccessfully started his
Passive Resistance struggle as a protest against
the Rowlett Act, conceived his idea of non-
co-operation. Originally intended to be a
protest against the British policy towards
Turkey, the "Aghing" of two other grievances
was later on added to its first object, namely,
the punishment of officials in the Punjab Martial
Law regime and the securing of Swaraj for
India. Mr. Gandhi and Mr. Bhanu Prasad were
able in 1920 to get the Calcutta Special Congress

prominence in which they should be divided among them. This was a very divided opinion of leaving the fall and choosing his own residence, he provided his own money not of any part in the civil disobedience movement, but Mr Gandhi did not want himself or his condition in order of freedom and continued to remain in jail.

When the word was published it was strenuously
opposed by the Chinese and Japanese
authorities. The Chinese Government
for the community. In the English
language, the word was not
used in the Chinese language.

Shall I there was great dissatisfaction among the Hindu community about the proposal made in the Communal Award for the representation of the depressed classes. The objection was that the depressed classes should not be permanently separated from the bulk of the Hindu community. Mr. Gandhi from his prison cell made it a question of consideration and finally a paragraph was inserted in respect of the representation of the depressed classes by means of separate electorates.

In consideration of the moral and spiritual value attached by Mr. Gandhi to his new fast and in view of his old age and weakened state of health, Government unconditionally released him this day after the commencement of the fast. Immediately after his release Mr. Gandhi suspended all disbursements for six weeks, and extended the period of suspension indefinitely. The last time he was arrested was in 1931. The last time he was arrested was in 1931. The last time he was arrested was in 1931.

This sudden deprivation led to a commotion in the country and several leaders gathered together in Poona and, with the help of Dr Ambedkar and Rao Bahadur Haje, representing the two rival groups of the depressed classes, and the help of representative Hindus known as the Poona Pact, which was a modification of that portion of the Communal Award given to the representation of the depressed classes. As the crisis in Mr Gandhi's life was approaching, owing to prolonged fast, no time in effecting a modification of the award by the Prime Minister and the British Cabinet lost.

(See last year's *Indian Year Book*)

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in the country. The Liberal Party as such was not represented in the body of Indians chosen to be associated with the Joint Select Committee, nor did the Party as such send any witnesses to give evidence before the Joint Committee. As the Joint Committee began to take evidence they suspended their activities for a while, watching how the Government's proposals were receiving themselves under pressure of cross-examination in the committee.

During the interval they held the annual session of the Liberal Federation at Madras in Christmas week when the resolutions of the Calcutta Session were reiterated. The most important part of the proceedings of the Federation at Madras was a resolution authorising its President, Sir J. N. Bhan, to take the initiative on behalf of the Liberal Federation as soon as the report of the Joint Committee was published and convene a conference of all progressive parties in the country to discuss the recommendations made by the committee.

As the Congress had practically ceased to function during this period, Liberals and other progressive sections in the country thought it advisable to meet to discuss the White Paper. The Liberals took the lead in this matter and circulars were sent to various leaders. The responses, however, were not encouraging, and it did not seem easy to reconcile the various elements in the country and bring them to agree to a common basis. The conference never met, as it was found that it was not possible to reach a common basis on which the various parties in the countries could work.

When the report of the Joint Parliamentary Committee was published at the end of 1934, the Liberals' objections were that it not only retained all the objectionable features of the White Paper but was retrograde in respect of one or two essential factors of democratic government, such as the method of election to the Central Legislature. Not having co-operated as a party with the Joint Parliamentary Committee, the Liberals felt themselves qualified to offer a detached opinion on the report. The views expressed by Liberal leaders were little different from those of Congressmen.

Within a short time of the publication of the report, the Liberal Federation met at Poona under the presidency of Pandit Hirdaynath Karam. In his address to the Federation he surveyed the entire political situation in the country and was very outspoken in his analysis of the Joint Parliamentary Committee's Report. He condemned it for its communal basis, for the place of eminence it assigned to the Services, for the introduction of indirect election to the Central Legislature, for the safeguards, for the proposal to establish second chambers in two additional provinces, and above all for the omission of any reference to Dominion Status as being the goal of India.

The session was remarkable for the show of defiance to authority staged by a small section of young Liberals who tended to move towards the left. Their manoeuvre failed, however, and they were prepared to boycott it.

At the time of writing there is a lull in the Indian political world, the Liberals' position being the most unenviable. They do not want the constitution as it is framed at present, nor are they prepared to boycott it.

Nevertheless, efforts were made to bring them together to take joint measures against the impending constitution. These failed, however, because there was no room for a fusion between the two groups whose ideals and mentality differed so fundamentally.

With the return of the Congress to the constitution and the Liberals being their respective goals and their basic outlook.

opinion and that of the Congress on the reforms scheme was the same, and so were their political aims. The only difference between the two groups was the position of the Liberal Party became more difficult than before. Their tactical path the position of the Liberal Party differed from the Congress to the constitution. Being Sir Comaraj Venkayya from Bombay suffered defeat, the only Liberal to be returned put up very few candidates for election to the Legislative Assembly and even those few on their plan to complete the scheme. The Liberals on the British Government, who went on with their warning and advice produced no effect.

"The National Liberal Federation of India records its profound regret at finding that the Joint Select Committee Report, instead of removing the glaring defects and short-comings of the White Paper proposals that were pointed out by the Federation at its two previous sessions, has, in utter disregard of almost the entire body of British Indian opinion of all shades, including the British Indian delegation to the Joint Select Committee, introduced further highly objectionable and reactionary features, rendering responsible government in the Provinces and the Centre, which the British Government profess to give to India, wholly illusory. The Federation is convinced that any constitution based on the lines of the Joint Select Committee's report will be wholly unacceptable to all shades of Indian political opinion and will, far from allaying, very much intensify the present deep political discontent in the country. This Federation therefore does not want any legislation based upon the Joint Select Committee's report."

Their warning and advice produced no effect on the British Government, who went on with their plan to complete the scheme. The Liberals put up very few candidates for election to the Legislative Assembly and even those few suffered defeat, the only Liberal to be returned being Sir Comaraj Venkayya from Bombay.

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The All Parties Muslim Conference.—The publication of the Nehru Report hastened the advent of the All Parties Muslim Conference. The Conference was called in 1928 to counteract the Muslim community's demand in regard to the future constitution of India. Nobilbhandar, the then Minister of the United Provinces, participated in the proceedings, the Conference was presided by almost all the prominent Muslim leaders of the country, including a very large number of the members of the Councils and the Assembly. There was ready agreement on the unsuitability of the Nehru Report, but difference of opinion prevailed with regard to the need for complete independence and, of course, for the boycott of the Commission; while Sir Mahomed Shah, who had a very large following, favoured co-operation with the Commission. Things were a gloomy aspect for a while, but, when Aga Khan, a compromise was reached whereby the mention either of "Dominion status" or "Independence" was omitted from the resolution put before the Conference which demanded merely "a federal constitution". Similarly it referred neither to the Simon Commission nor to the Nehru Report, but insisted on co-operation with the demands of the Conference by any agency which developed a constitution as the most important and authoritative exponent of the community's views, thanks mostly to the dissensions in the League. With the rehabilitation of the League early in 1934, the Conference naturally suffered somewhat in influence. The present position of the Commission is that it represents extremist Muslim opinion, while the League stands for conciliation with Hindus and, politically, holds more advanced views.

Muslim Activities in 1931-32 — Unlike the Congress, the Muslim political organizations used the past three or four years, however, they displayed unusual activity. This is no doubt due to the summoning of the Round Table Conference to settle the basis of India's future constitution. Unattracted by the negative outlook of the Congress, the majority of the Muslims appreciated the danger of allowing their case to go by default at the forthcoming London Conference and took a lively interest in its work before and during its proceedings. Repeated attempts were made throughout 1930 particularly during the latter half, to bring Indian Muslim leaders together for venting the community's demands. The credit for this successful activity goes to the All-India Muslim Conference, the Muslim League remaining practically inert. In July the Executive Board of the All-British Muslim Conference met at Birmingham and formulated the community's demands. The Simon Report was examined and rejected, and the Round Table Conference was welcomed, shortly after the opening of the Round Table

The All-Parties Muslim Conference, which came to be known as Mr. Jinnah's Round Table Conference, was held at Lucknow and reflected what had come to be known as Mr. Jinnah's Round Table Conference, which demanded a series of provisions against the community for protection. The more important provisions were : Federal constitution with residuary powers vested in the provinces; uniform provincial autonomy, effective representation for minorities in all provincial legislatures; equal representation for Muslims in the central legislature, guarantee against a discriminatory system for Muslims in the E. P. and Baluchistan, and insistence on separate electorates unless the above points are conceded. The Hindus seemed to have no mood to concede their demands, the Congress persisted in its civil disobedience programme, paying little heed to the Muslim desire to settle the communal problem before giving the Government, the Hindu delegates in London did not allow the Muslims a frame of mind which would prevent them from expressing their views freely. Answered by Sir Muhammad Iqbal, at Allahabad towards the end of the year. Typing prevalent Muslim exasperation, Sir Muhammad demanded the formation of a Muslim State in the North-West, comprising the Punjab and the N.-W. Frontier Provinces, with a permanent solution of the communal problem, he said and averred that the cultural development of the community demanded it.

In the year 1931, communal agreements between the Government and the Muslim League were made in view of the importance concerning the future constitution of India. The ratification of the Round Table Conference had ended with an understanding without satisfaction being accorded to the minorities. And if the Congress accepted by the Government to carry the Muslim League proposals, the Congress seriously considered making provisions satisfactory to the Muslims and other minorities.

The leaders of the community, who had not much faith in promises made by the Hindu-led Congress, refused to be satisfied with anything less than statutory guarantees for the protection of their rights and privileges. Their suspicions were increased by the manner in which a few members of their community, styling themselves "Nationalist Muslims," were playing into the hands of the Congress leaders. The task of carrying on negotiations was thus rendered more complex. A series of conversations was held during the summer between Mr. Gandhi, the Muslim leaders and the Nationalist Muslims, but no definite scheme emerged.

The Muslim leaders, on the other hand, strove to consolidate the position of the community and present a united front at the Round Table

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The unity more took various shapes and manifested the attention of numerous confederates at the same time. While it brought together those Alutians, who wished to consolidate what they had achieved for the community in recent years by securing for it the seal of approval of the other communities and carry these factors with them through the remainder of the constitutional discussions, it alienated the leftist Alutians who would be party to no compromise with Indians and others who, they argued, had denied them this due until the British Government came to their rescue. The latter section was led by Sir M. Iqbal, Dr S. Ahmed, Mouvie and others.

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The British and Foreign Bible Society, which is a non-sectarian and non-political body, has been established for the purpose of circulating the Bible among the poor of all nations. It was founded in 1785, and has since that time been engaged in the noble work of disseminating the Word of God throughout the world. The Society has a large number of branches in every part of the globe, and its efforts have been attended with the most successful results. It has translated the Bible into many languages, and has distributed millions of copies of the Holy Scriptures to the poor and ignorant of all nations. The Society is now engaged in the work of translating the Bible into the Chinese language, and it is hoped that this work will be completed in a few years. The Society is also engaged in the work of circulating the Bible among the poor of all nations, and it is hoped that this work will be attended with the most successful results.

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the League with the Conference, the question of the League in March to amalgamate (Council of the League in March to amalgamate the League with the Conference, the question was raised whether the Council could take a decision binding on the parent body. The motion was ruled out by the acting President, Alvin Abdul Aziz, who was physically thrown out of the chair for giving that ruling. The meeting ended amidst scenes of confusion and violence. The differences were soon composed but on the understanding that no controversy would be brought up. A manifesto signed by hundreds of various provinces urged the participation of the League into the "Parliament of Indian Muslims" and a cable was sent to Mr. A. Jinnah, who was then in England, to

return to India, assume charge of the League and restore it to its original status and influence. Despite this, the peace in the League proved to be short-lived. In May the trouble resurfaced, and the officers of the League were suspended by the acting President for "improperly" convening a meeting of the Council. At a meeting of the Council in the end of that month, the scenes of March were repeated and the President was again pushed out of the chair. These incidents served to emphasise the breach that had occurred in the ranks of the followers of the League. The gulf became wider towards the end of the year when two sessions of the League were held, one in Calcutta and the other in Delhi. The dispute continued right up to February 1934 when, thanks to the good offices of the Aga Khan, the League was reunited under the presidency of Mr. Jinnah.

The publication of the White Paper set the various Muslim organisations busy. The executive board of the All-India Muslim Conference met together and asked for the largest measure of fiscal, administrative and legislative autonomy for the provinces, demanded the curtailment of the Governor's powers and urged statutory safeguards for the protection of the personal law, education and culture of Muslims. Similarly, the League session at Calcutta expressed dissatisfaction with such of the provisions of the Communal Award and the White Paper as fell short of the Muslim demands in respect of their representation in the legislatures. The Delhi session of the League wanted the Governor's powers to be clearly defined in the constitution and opposed all efforts to change the Communal Award.

At the elections to the Assembly held at the end of 1934, the candidates put up by the Board scored a fair measure of success and in the Assembly the Board's nominees cast their lot with the more advanced political party, except the spokesman of the League.

The Aga Khan arrived in India early in 1934 and his presence acted like a tonic on the League. After a series of conferences between the leaders of the two sections, it was decided that the officers of both sides should resign and submit to the Aga Khan's arbitration. This was done and His Highness suggested that the League should be reunited and Mr. Jinnah requested to become its President. Mr. Jinnah agreed and the League emerged once again a united body after years of strife. The Aga Khan's efforts to bring together the League and the Conference did not meet with success.

Whatever the differences among the various sections of Muslims, the community was united on the Communal Award. Muslims' insistence on accepting it became firmer with increasing propaganda carried on by Hindus. Some Muslims were angry that the Congress did not go all out and approve of the Award instead of adopting an attitude of neutrality. As time passed by and the Hindu agitation against the Award grew in intensity, Muslims' support to it grew correspondingly. Their adherence to the Award emboldened their outlook on the instrument embodying the Award, with the result that, as a community, Muslims were the least hostile to

Mr. Shaukat Ali instead took active interest in a new move to bring about complete unity among all Muslim organisations, so that the community could not as one when the reforms were introduced. The unity talks continued throughout the year and even in the first two months of 1934. The plan met with considerable opposition from the All-India Muslim Conference and the Hindu Mahatma Russian section of the League, who felt that the object of the promoters of unity was to compromise on the electorates in spite of the non-co-operation of these two bodies, the unity conference met at Lucknow in December under the presidency of the Raja of Salampur. Representatives of the other League, the Khulafat Committee, the Nationalist Muslim Party and the Jamiat-ul-Ulema took part.

The President denied the charge that it was an electorating stunt and affirmed that the object was to secure the political and social

the reform proposals This was reflected in the utterances of the Muslim leaders and press on the Joint Parliamentary Committee's report on members of the Assembly.

A meeting of the Council of the Muslim League was held in June 1934, and, in the absence of any agreed communal formula, reaffirmed its faith in the Communal Award :

Later in the year the Working Committee of the All-India Muslim Conference urged the authorities to introduce reforms without delay, and warned them that any modification in the provisions of the Communal Award affecting Muslims safeguards without Muslims' consent would render any constitution unacceptable to the Muslims. The committee well-comprehended the Government's decision to safeguard the interests of the minorities in the public services, but expressed dissatisfaction with the allotment of 25 per cent. for Muslims. They wanted 33½ per cent representation on the basis of their strength in the new Central Legislature

Even while negotiations were in progress Pandit Malaviya and other Hindu leaders organised an anti-Award demonstration by holding all-India conferences to protest against the provisions of the Award which were condemned as not only unjust to the Hindu community but as distinctly anti-national

Resenting any attempt to snatch away from them what they had secured by years of representation and agitation, the Muslims organised a counter-demonstration in the shape of an all-India conference to support the Award. The Nawab of Dacca, who presided over the conference, remarked that the Award fell far short of the Muslims' just rights, but that they would nevertheless work the reforms based on the Award. The pivotal resolution passed by the conference regarded the Award "so far as it goes, as the cornerstone of a gigantic constitutional machinery upon which any future Government of India may be based and without which no genuine representative government can be safely established in India.

Attempts were made to reopen the Award in the House of Commons, but Government were firm on the question, and declared that it would be left untouched until the communities concerned brought forward an agreed substitute. The move to leave the decision concerning joint and separate electorates to the minorities in the various provinces was countered by another move to leave it to the decision of the various provincial councils under the new reforms.

At the time of writing, therefore, the Muslims are in a very happy position. Although they have not secured all that they asked for, most of their major demands have been conceded. They have secured adequate representation in the provincial legislatures, 33½ per cent of the seats in the central legislature, repatriation of blind and the guarantee of a proportion of the services

There was a lull in the political activities of Muslims until late in 1933. During the Budget session of the Legislative Assembly, Jabu Khudai Prasad, the President of the Congress, held prolonged consultations with Mr. Jinnah, with a view to arriving at an agreed formula to replace the Award. The Muslim spokesmen were ready to explore avenues of inter-communal concord, but refused to consider any proposal which sought to take away from the community what it had been given under the Award. The Congress leader on his part was willing to make any sacrifice to the minority community provided the anti-national separate electorates "were substituted by joint electorates. After about a fortnight's negotiation they evolved a formula whereby Muslims retained the rights given to them under the Award, but agreed to substitute separate by joint electorates on the understanding that a franchise, different to that governing the Hindus was made applicable to Muslims so as to bring the latter's voting strength in proportion to their population ratio. This formula did not prove acceptable to Bengali and Punjab Hindus who opposed the differential franchise and also objected to Muslims becoming

The Khilafat Committee—The origin of the Central Khilafat Committee is to be found in the closing days of the Great War when Turkey was feeling the consequences of defeat at the hands of the Allies. Muslims in India naturally sympathised with their co-religionists in Turkey and carried on ceaseless agitation against the division of Turkey into small bits among the Allies. Being anxious for the safety of the holy places of Islam and opposed to the dismemberment of Turkey, they felt a considerable amount of bitterness against the British, who as the principal Allied Power, were dictating their own terms to vanquished Turkey. Formed thus for the protection of the Khilafat as a temporary as well as a religious Power, the Central Khilafat Committee was expeditiously good purpose by the leaders of the Congress movement in India who had found in "the Gandhis" an effective means of popularising the British rule in India. While it gave little comfort to the Congress by securing for the Congress and the Muslims, it also received support from the Muslims and from the Hindus and Punjab Hindus who opposed the differential franchise and also objected to Muslims becoming

from the Congress in agitating for the "righting side by side, mutually helpful."

Madras Khilafat Conference under the chairmanship of Mr. Shaukat Ali unfolded a programme of progressive non-co-operation and appealed to the country for support. The Khilafat Committee, with the huge funds at its disposal, was able to draft in a large number of delegates to the Calcutta special Congress in 1920 when the non-co-operation programme was accepted by that body. With two more objects added to it, namely, the obtaining of Swaraj and the righting of the Punjab wrongs.

With the deposition of the Khilafat by the Kemalists and the revival of the Muslim League, the Committee's activities have been considerably restricted. Recently the Committee sent a deputation to Mejd to intervene and settle the dispute between the warring elements. Though the Government of India were willing to permit a deputation of the Committee to Turkey, the Turkish Government did not quite like the idea which had consequently to be abandoned.

The 1925 session of the Khilafat Conference was rendered lively by Mr. Hadrat Ali's whose speech strongly criticised Sultan Ibn Saud was subsequently expunged. The resolution adopted by the conference under the presidency of Mr. Abul Kalam Azad condemned the British policy in Iraq and the League's decision on Mosul and declared that if the Turks went to war on the latter issue the Conference would deem it its duty to help them.

For some years since then one heard little about the public activities of the Committee, although many of its domestic quarrels engaged the attention of the public. Funds, however, continued to be collected for the "activities" of the Committee which could hardly be expended. Things dragged on until the latter half of 1927, when the leaders found the Khilafat organisation a useful tool for purposes of their propaganda for boycotting the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms. This was successfully achieved by the extremist wire-pullers at Madras in 1927.

In the next year, however, a peculiar situation arose as the result of the publication of the Nehru Report. This document raised many controversial issues. Its two main recommendations, namely, Dominion Status for India and joint electorates with temporary reservations of seats, were not acceptable to the Khilafatists whose ideal was an extreme type of nationalism. The complete independence for India but insisted on coupled with rank communalism. They wanted the continuance of separate electorates. This state of mind found expression at the annual session of the Khilafat Conference which met in 1928 at Calcutta.

In the years following the publication of the Nehru Report, the Khilafat Committee re-appeared on the Indian political stage and vigorously strove to repudiate that document. This it succeeded in doing, as the Muslims with one voice condemned it as pro-Hindu. As months local etc.

The advance of the Nazi regime in Germany and its anti-semitic policy burned the Jews out of that country. This led to an increasing concentration of Jews in Palestine. Jews all over the world was roused by the plight of Jewish exiles from Germany and this gave impetus to the movement for a national home for Jews in Palestine. A Palestine Delegation paid a visit to India and Indian Muslims, whose extra-territorial patriotism was aroused, called meetings and sent deputation to the authorities. Arrangements were also made for sending a deputation to London.

As the representatives of Indian Muslims in the London Conference, the all brothers effect-ly safeguarded their interests. In addition, Alauddin Shaukat Ali repeatedly impressed on British audiences and leaders the advisability of keeping the Indian Muslims contented as it would please Muslims in other parts of the world.

The history of the Khilafat movement followed a peculiar course on the North-Western Frontier Province of India. There the Khilafat movement conducted ceaseless agitation.

the direction towards the Government created was promptly exploited by the Congress for furthering its own lawless activities. Being sturdy people accustomed to fighting, they often found it impossible to observe the Congress created or non-violence. A number of clashes ensued, with attendant casualties.

The All-India Khilafat Committee met, Lucknow in December 1935, when the President, Qudus was also held. The President, Baitur Deelaulah, protested against the "conversion" of the sacred lands of Arabs for gentiles, which was sacred to the Muslim world, into a national home for Jews. A resolution was passed deciding to reorganise Khilafat Committees in all parts of India, so that they might "safeguard the sacred lands from occupation and invasion by non-Muslims". The Khilafat organisation has since continued itself to normal activities of citizenship, except for a memorandum sent to the Viceroy by Syed Nurul, president of the Khilafat Committee, voicing the feelings of the Muslim Community on the Palestine question. Mr. General Secretary of the Central Khilafat Committee, and the President made preliminary arrangements to form a deputation to wait on the Viceroy, but His Excellency could not receive the deputation for want of time. He was, however, pleased to inform the President of the Committee that he would gladly represent the case of the deputation to the Secretary of State for India and through him to the Secretary of State for Colonies during his visit to England in 1934.

-The fourteenth session of the Khuliat Conference met at Ajmer in September 1982 under the presidency of Sheikh Abdul Majid. He condemned the caste system among Hindus which, according to him, was responsible for the demand of separate electorates by the depressed classes. As for separate electorates for Muslims, he held there was no choice left to them except to ask for such a safeguard. He reiterated the fourteen points, but was none the less in favour of a compromise. If it was possible on honourable lines, He suggested the voluntary dissolution of all the existing political organisations of Muslims and the formation of one comprehensive body. At the open session of the conference a resolution was passed characterising the communal award as absolutely unsatisfactory in that only three out of the fourteen points had been conceded by it.

The Round Table Conference.

ment of India, in a lengthy despatch on the Simon Report, also adhered to the federal principle, though they expressed the view that it was a distinct ideal. Many Indian publicists had declared the faith that without the adoption of the federal principle no substantial growth of the Indian constitution was practicable. But although federalism had always been in the background, none had possessed sufficient courage to bring it into the forefront until Sir Raj Bahadur Sapru invited the Princes to consider it. The invitation was promptly accepted. His Highness the Maharaja of Bikaner, speaking for the general body, at once declared that subject to the incorporation in the statute of certain defined conditions—they were an substance of the guaranteeing of the sovereignty and treaty rights of the States, and the provision of their essential interests—the Princes and States would favourably consider any such proposal, later he avowed his belief that, provided the completed picture was satisfactory, seventy-five per cent. of the States would join a federation.

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The Communal Award.

The decision of the British Government in regard to the representation of the various communities in British India in the Provincial Legislatures, on which the communities themselves were unable to agree, was published in August 1932. The award followed a thorough and comprehensive inquiry into the proportions and position of the various communities in the Provinces. The decision was not given on strictly arithmetical lines, thus the Sikhs with 32 seats out of a total of 176 in the Punjab Legislative Council secured a larger representation than they would on a population basis. The table of distribution avoided the term Hindu. Its place was taken by the heading "General", but it was clear that those under that heading would be overwhelmingly, if not entirely, Hindu, for Muslims, Sikhs, Indian Christians (with some exceptions) Anglo-Indians and Europeans would vote in separate communal constituencies. The seats were distributed as follows: General, 705; Depressed Classes, 61; Backward areas, 50; Sikhs, 35; Muslims, 489; Indian Christians, 21; Anglo-Indians, 12; Europeans, 25; Commerce and Industry, 54; Landholders, 35; Universities, 8, and Labour, 38.

With regard to the Depressed Classes, it was explained that they would vote in the general constituencies, but in order to ensure adequate representation to them special seats were also allotted. It was contemplated that this arrangement, which gave the members of these classes two votes, should be limited to 20 years as to women voters. His Majesty's Government came to the decision to limit the electorate for special women's seats to voters from one community. Accompanying the award was an explanatory statement by the Prime Minister in the course of which he observed as follows.

"Our duty was plain as the failure of the communities to agree amongst themselves had placed an almost insurmountable obstacle in the way of any constitutional development, it was incumbent upon the Government to take action. In accordance, therefore, with the pledges that I gave on behalf of the Government at the Round Table Conference in response to the repeated appeals from representatives of Indians and in accordance with the statement approved by the British Parliament, the Government are to-day publishing a scheme of representation in the Provincial assemblies that they intend, in due course, to lay before Parliament unless, in the meanwhile the communities themselves agree upon a better plan.

"We should be only too glad if at any stage before the proposed Bill becomes law the communities can reach an agreement amongst themselves. But guided by the past experience the Government are convinced that no further negotiations will be of any advantage and they can be no party to them. They will, however, be ready and willing to speak for India, and to maintain the principle of federation, and the task of making it easy for the Princes and States to enter them. But afterwards his contribution was less helpful. Specially was this the case in relation to the minorities.

Downon status for that responsible government. With the assurance of the participation of the Princes and States, bringing a powerful element of stability into the governing machinery Lord Reading, speaking for the Liberals, accepted the actual proposition of a responsible government at the centre. Later, the spokesman for the Conservative Party took up the same position, though perhaps in more cautious terms. On the guiding principle substantial progress was made in sketching the outline of a federal constitution. True, the minorities question, that is to say the adequate protection of the minorities in the Indian population, especially the great Moslem community, remained unsettled and Moslem acceptance of responsibility at the centre was conditional on the solution of this very thorny issue. But the measure of progress was so satisfactory before the Conference separated in January 1931, that speaking for His Majesty's Government the Prime Minister, Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, was in a position to make the following announcement.

"The view of His Majesty's Government is that responsibility for the Government of India should be placed upon Legislatures, Central and Provincial, with such provisions as may be necessary to guarantee, during a period of transition, the observance of certain obligations, and also with such guarantees as are required by minorities to protect their political liberties and rights.

"In such statutory safeguards as may be made for meeting the needs of the transitional period, it will be a primary concern of His Majesty's Government to see that the reserved powers are so framed and exercised as not to prejudice the advance of India through the new Government."

Participation of Congress—But representation as it was in all other respects, the first session of the Congress embraced no representation of The Indian National Congress. For various reasons that stood aloof during the interval between the closing of the first session, and the convening of the second, negotiations were carried on with a view to the Congress suspending the Civil Disobedience Movement on which it had embarked and joining in the task of framing the new constitution. These discussions ended in what was called "The Gandhi-Irwin Pact", which embodied a settlement covering the whole field in dispute, and in an understanding on the part of the Congress to participate in the Round Table discussions, and to suspend civil disobedience. After many hesitations Mr. Gandhi, who was appointed sole representative of the Congress, sailed for England, and others who had remained aloof from the earlier proceedings joined the Delegation. At first Mr. Gandhi's contribution to the work of the Conference was helpful. Though he was perhaps more anxious to justify Congress, and to maintain its right to speak for India, he accepted the principle of federation, and the task of making it easy for the Princes and States to enter them. But afterwards his contribution was less helpful. Specially was this the case in relation to the minorities.

integral part of the Indian Constitution. But I think I ought to say that I do find a difficulty in agreeing—It indeed is this time to agree or disagree—to anything in the nature of a definition date in the provision of the Act. The difficulties that are in my mind are twofold I am not quite sure—and here I am speaking very candidly in the presence of representatives of the States—what reaction something that might appear to be rather in the nature of an ultimatum might have on the Indian States themselves.

Again, I find this difficulty, I feel the machinery of the Constitution will be of an extremely complicated nature, and I think that Parliament, if it were confronted with a definite date, might demand a longer interval and more cautious provisions than it would require if there were no fixed date. After all the machinery for bringing the Act into operation is going to be of a very complicated nature. I have always contemplated that some such method as a Parliamentary Resolution of both Houses would be adopted for bringing the Redemption into operation, and that the method would be adopted at the earliest possible opportunity.

What I can say to Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru is that we are going to do our utmost to remove every obstacle in the way of Redemption and to remove it at the earliest possible date. Let me also say to him, we do not intend to undertake any kind of provincial autonomy under conditions which might leave Redemption to follow on as a mere contingency in the future. Lastly, let me say a word upon another side of this part of our discussions. For the last two years we have discussed the question of certain new Provinces. We have discussed the question of Sind from the very opening of our deliberations till two years ago. Last year we had export enquiries into both questions. Lord Chancellour, I have now dealt with the more prominent of the features of our discussions that emerge upon the more directly constitutional side of the Redemption itself. Let me now come to the other series of problems that in some cases affect more directly Great Britain and in other cases affect certain communities and certain interests in India itself. I mean by this all that chapter of questions that by a rough and ready phrase we have described as "safeguards." Lord Chancellour, let me say as "safeguards" of my observations that I regard the safeguards not as a stone wall that blocks a road, but as the hedges on each side that no good driver ever touches but that prevent people on a dark night falling into the ditch. They are not intended to obstruct a free transfer of or a dark night falling into the ditch. They are not intended to obstruct a free transfer of

Now our difficulties have arisen from two sources. In the first place, there is the fact that, as things are at present, a large part of the Indian revenue has to be devoted to meeting the obligations that have grown up during these years of partnership between Indian and Great Britain. That in itself—and I am sure no one would question the justice of the point of view—makes people here, investors who invested their money in Indian securities, men and women whose families are interested in the meeting of the old obligations, extremely nervous of any change. Secondly, there is the fact that we are passing through, I suppose, the most difficult financial crisis that has faced Asia and Europe for many generations. In the case of India there is a peculiar difficulty, namely, that a large body of short-term loans raised under the name of the Secretary of State in London, all due for payment in the next six years. That means that, if the Redemption is to be started with a good name, if its solution is to be assured, some means must be found for meeting these short-term maturities without impairing the future of Indian credits.

Lord Chancellour, those are the hard facts that have faced the Government during the last twelve months. Those are the hard facts that we discussed in great detail and with great goodwill at the Financial Safeguards Committee. The British Government, the British delegation, and sections of the Conference, came to the view that in those conditions certain safeguards were absolutely necessary. If we were to keep the condition of the world outside and if we were to make it possible in the future for a Federal Government to raise money upon reasonable terms. That, gentlemen, in a few sentences is the history of the safeguards. That, in particular, is the history of the safeguards that have loomed very largely in our discussions this year. The history of the Reserve Bank. We feel that, in condempns is to be maintained in the financial stability and credit of India. A Reserve Bank must be in effective operation.

responsible power. They are not intended to impede the day to day administration of any Indian Minister. They are rather ultimate controls that we hope will never need to be exercised for the greater reassurance of the world outside both in India and in Great Britain. Let me take the two instances that have been most prominent in this part of our discussions. Let me take the first instance, the more directly constitutional side of the Redemption itself. Let me now come to the other series of problems that in some cases affect more directly Great Britain and in other cases affect certain communities and certain interests in India itself. I mean by this all that chapter of questions that by a rough and ready phrase we have described as "safeguards." Lord Chancellour, let me say as "safeguards" of my observations that I regard the safeguards not as a stone wall that blocks a road, but as the hedges on each side that no good driver ever touches but that prevent people on a dark night falling into the ditch. They are not intended to obstruct a free transfer of or a dark night falling into the ditch. They are not intended to obstruct a free transfer of

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I come now to the question of Defence, a question that again has loomed very large, and rightly so, in our discussions. We had first of all, as you all remember, a debate in full Conference—a debate in which I think I may claim that there was complete unanimity that Defence, until it can be transferred to Indian hands, remains the sole responsibility of the Crown. It was, however, clear to me in the course of the discussions, and afterwards in an informal talk that I was able to have with certain leading members of the Conference, that there were differences of opinion as to the methods by which Indian political opinion might be consulted in the administration of the reserved subject

Let me take in order two or three of the principal points to which Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru alluded in these discussions. First of all, there was the question of the discussion of the Defence Budget. We were all agreed that it should be non-votable. In the nature of things, I think that was inevitable, but we are quite prepared to take the necessary steps to see that the Budget should be put, as he and his friends wish, in blocks, not in a perfunctory manner simply to be discussed as a whole.

Next he was anxious about the employment of Indian troops outside India without the approval of the Federal Government or the Federal Legislature. There I think he and his friends were agreed that where it was actually a case of the defence of India, in which no Imperial considerations entered at all, the defence say, of the Frontier of India itself, there the responsibility—the sole responsibility—of the Crown should remain undivided. More difficult questions arose in cases when Indian troops might be employed for purposes other than directly Indian purposes. Now in those cases I can say to him I would prefer not to be precise as to the exact method I myself feel sure that a means will be found to leave the decision in some manner to the Federal Ministry and to the Federal Legislature.

Next, there was an important series of questions connected, first of all, with the Indianisation of the Army, that is to say, the greatest participation of Indians themselves in the defence of India and, secondly, as to the bringing into consultation as much as possible the two sides of the Government. He and his friends were anxious that statutory provision should be made in some way for both these objects. The Lord Chancellor and the British Government still take the view, and we feel we must maintain it, that the decision in some manner to the Federal Ministry and to the Federal Legislature.

Now he said, quite rightly, that his attitude towards that proposal would depend very much upon the instructions we intend first of all to allude to them in the body of the Statute and then we intend to ask Parliament to agree to a novel procedure, but a procedure that I believe is well fitted to the conditions with which we are faced, namely, that before certain of them are submitted to His Majesty, both Houses of Parliament should have the opportunity of expressing their views upon them in the Statutory framework by the allusion in the Act itself, and to give them a Parliamentary framework by the allusion in the Statute. The effect of that would be to give the Statute a Statutory framework by the allusion in the Act itself, and to give them a Parliamentary framework by the allusion in the Statute. The effect of that would be to give the Statute a Statutory framework by the allusion in the Act itself, and to give them a Parliamentary framework by the allusion in the Statute.

As to the other proposals that Sir Tej made in the matter of Defence, we still feel that the Governor-General should have an unfettered power in selecting his Defence Minister, but we will make it quite clear in the instructions that we wish the two sides of the Government to work in the close co-operation, and that we do definitely contemplate—I would say his attention to this point, and we will make an allusion to it in the instructions—that before the Statutes are actually put to the Federal Assembly the Finance Minister and that doubt the Prime Minister should have an opportunity of seeing them and giving to the Governor-General their views upon them.

We have been planning a scheme and a very complicated scheme, but we have also been trying to create a spirit of co-operation. Several members of the Conference were very kind to me last night when they said that I had played some small part in helping to foster this spirit of co-operation during the last few weeks. I think them for what they said, but I say that their kind words were really undeserved. The spirit of co-operation is due to much greater events and to much greater people than any with whom I am connected or any that I could ever hope to emulate.

Immediately after the conclusion of the Conference, His Majesty's Government, in pursuance of their pledges, proceeded to draft the White Paper incorporating their tentative conclusions.

The White Paper.

The proposals of His Majesty's Government for Indian constitutional reforms which are now under examination by a joint Committee of Parliament were issued in March this year in the form of a White Paper. Though the intention is to speed up the necessary legislation, no date is suggested in the White Paper for the actual change in the Indian system of Government. The Royal Proclamation inaugurating the new system shall not be issued until both Houses of Parliament have agreed on the date.

By the proposals put forward, the Provinces are given autonomy and to a Federal Government is conceded responsible government over the whole field of administration allotted to the Federation except in regard to certain "reserved" subjects. The Federation will consist of the autonomous provinces of British India, 11 in number, including the new Provinces of Sind and Orissa, and the Indian States. It will be brought about by the Princes surrendering a defined corpus of their present sovereign rights to the Federation but retaining internal autonomy in respect of rights not so surrendered, unaffected by any other consideration than the overlying suzerainty of the Crown.

It is a condition of the setting up the Federation—(1) That rulers of States representing not less than half the aggregate population of the Indian States and entitled to not less than half the State's seats in the Upper House of the Legislature shall have executed the necessary Instrument of Accession, and (2) That a Reserve Bank, free from political influence, will have been set up and already successfully operating. These conditions fulfilled, it will rest with both Houses of Parliament to move the Crown by an address to issue a Royal Proclamation inaugurating the Federation.

Reserved Subjects.

The Governor-General and Viceroy will have a dual capacity. Governor-General as head of the Federation, and Viceroy as conducting relations with States outside the Federal sphere. As Governor-General he will be aided and advised by a Council of Ministers responsible to the Legislature in all matters save those concerned with the three Departments to be reserved to his personal administration namely, Defence, External Affairs, and Miscellaneous Affairs. The Governor-General is also given a special responsibility for certain purposes—(1) The prevention of grave menace to the peace or tranquillity of India or any part thereof. (2) The safeguarding of the legitimate interests of minorities. (3) The safeguarding of the financial stability and credit of the Federation. (4) The securing to the members of the Public departments.

The special and wide powers thus conferred on the Governor-General are by command conveyed in the Instrument of Instructions given him by the King Emperor on assuming office, to be exercised only in special circumstances and not in everyday routine and normal circumstances, except in the case of the reserved departments. The special and wide powers thus conferred on the Governor-General are by command conveyed in the Instrument of Instructions given him by the King Emperor on assuming office, to be exercised only in special circumstances and not in everyday routine and normal circumstances, except in the case of the reserved departments. The special and wide powers thus conferred on the Governor-General are by command conveyed in the Instrument of Instructions given him by the King Emperor on assuming office, to be exercised only in special circumstances and not in everyday routine and normal circumstances, except in the case of the reserved departments.

In fulfilment of these special responsibilities the Governor-General is empowered to act either without or contrary to the advice of his Ministers and can himself pass a Governor-General's Act to secure any of these purposes and is given all powers to secure the necessary finance.

Apart from the reserved departments and these special responsibilities there is another category of prerogatives or powers, the majority of them such as are usually associated with the head of a Constitutional State, the others to meet the particular conditions of India—(a) The power to summon, prorogue, and dissolve the Legislature. (b) The power to assent to or withhold assent from Bills or to reserve them for His Majesty's pleasure. (c) The power to summon joint sessions of the two Houses of the Legislature in cases of urgency. (d) The grant of previous sanction to the introduction of legislation—(1) Respecting amending, or repugnant to any Act of Parliament, or expenditure on any Governor's Act or Ordinance; (2) affecting any department reserved to the control of the Governor-General; (3) affecting coinage and currency of the Reserve Bank, (4) affecting religion, (5) affecting the procedure regarding criminal proceedings against European British subjects.

In case of emergency the Governor-General also has certain Ordinance-making powers. In the event of a breakdown of the machinery of government he is empowered to assume full control. The system is continued under which expenditure connected with the reserved subjects is not subject to the vote of the assembly. In regard to other finance he has power to restore any out interfering with the carrying out of any of his special responsibilities. Various heads of expenditure will not be subject to the vote of the Legislature although they may be discussed. These include the loans services, the expenditure of the reserved departments, and the salaries and pensions of the Indian Civil Service.

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Federal Legislature.

The Federal Legislature resembles the existing Central Legislature in composition and will consist of two Chambers—the Upper Chamber of 100 appointed by the Princes, 150 elected by members of the Provincial Legislatures of British India, and 10 nominated members; the other, the Lower Chamber or House of Assembly, consisting of 375 members, of whom 125 will be appointed by the Princes and the others elected directly according to the seats allocated to each Province and to the several communities and interests in each Province. In the present British India Legislature Chambers only a proportion of the members is elected.

The Legislature will be debarred from passing laws of a discriminatory character. In particular it will be unable to pass laws subjecting any British subject or company domiciled in the United Kingdom to any disability or discrimination in the exercise of certain specified rights, if a British Indian subject or company would not be subjected in the United Kingdom to a disability or discrimination of a similar character.

The Provinces.

In the Provinces certain subjects (Reserved subjects) have hitherto been administered by the Governor-in-Council and others (Transferred subjects) by the Governor and Ministers in the Legislature. But Governors, like the Governor-General, are given special responsibilities, with corresponding powers to discharge these responsibilities, confined in scope of course to the Province.

The Provincial Legislatures are enlarged and are in accordance with the provisions of His Majesty's Government's Communal Award of August 4 last. The present nominated members and official bloc disappear in favour of wholly elected Legislatures, so far as the Lower Houses in the Provinces are concerned. In Bengal, the United Provinces and Bihar the Legislatures will be bicameral with a small proportion of nominated members (not officials) in the Upper Chambers, in the other eight Provinces unicameral.

For the franchise for the Lower Chamber of the Federal Legislature the proposals lay down qualifications the effects of which should be to enfranchise between 2 and 3 per cent of the population of British India, and similar but lower qualifications for the franchise for the Provincial Legislatures should produce a Provincial electorate of 1 per cent of the total population of British India or some 27 per cent of the adult population. Women can vote for and will have seats reserved for them in both the Federal Assembly and Provincial Legislatures.

Public Services.

The proposals confirm existing rights of the Public Services. The Secretary of State will continue to make appointments to the Indian Civil Service, the Indian Police, and the Royal Statistical Department, and the conditions of service of persons so appointed will be regulated by rules made by the Secretary of State. He will determine the number and character of such appointments and may prohibit the filling of any post declared to be a reserved post otherwise than by the appointment of a person appointed by the Crown, the Secretary of State or the Secretary of State in Council.

At the expiry of five years from the commencement of the Constitution Act a statutory inquiry will be held into the question of future recruitment for the Indian Civil Service, Indian Police, and the Medical and Railway services, and the Government in India will be associated with the inquiry. The decision on the results of the inquiry will rest with His Majesty's Government and will be subject to the approval of both Houses of Parliament. Pending the decision on this inquiry, the present ratio of British to Indian recruitment will remain unaltered. The Railway Board so composed as not to be subject to political interference.

The Secretary of State's Council for India is abolished and its place is taken by not less than three and not more than six advisers to be consulted as the Secretary of State may think fit, except that their concurrence is required in relation to certain service matters.

A Federal Court with both an Original and Appellate jurisdiction in cases raising constitutional issues such as the spheres of the Federal, Provincial and States authorities is set up and power is given to establish a Supreme Court to act as a Court of Appeal in British India.

JOINT PARLIAMENTARY COMMITTEE.

After the publication of the White Paper, steps were taken to appoint members of the House of Commons and the House of Lords to a Joint Select Committee to consider the proposals and report to Parliament. The White Paper was to be regarded as embodying the Government's scheme, but the Committee had full liberty to produce any plan it thought proper. There was more than one debate in the two Houses of Parliament for the nomination of the Committee.

Immediately on the publication of the White Paper, Indian politicians, even of the moderate variety, expressed themselves in strong terms against some of its provisions.

On the other hand, it had the support of a number of communal parties, including the Muslims.

While the Joint Committee inquiry was in progress, Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, one of the leading British Indian delegates, was unable to continue in London longer than July and placed on record suggestions for the improvement of the Belmont proposals with a view to rendering them acceptable to Indian opinion. Similarly this Highness the Aga Khan, the leader of the British Indian delegation, and his British Indian

States to co-operate in the Joint Committee's inquiries. Some difficulty was experienced in making the status of these nominees while under the British constitution Parliament could not appoint them. The Committee could not of the drafting of the report.

Both these memoranda cover a wide ground and demand a number of radical changes in the White Paper scheme. Sir Tej Bahadur said that "no constitution, which fails to satisfy certain essentials, will meet with the needs of the situation in India. Those essentials are: responsibility at the centre and provincial autonomy with certain safeguards for the period of transition; reserved minorities; and a free press."

The question of the procedure to be adopted by the Committee and the nature and quantum of evidence to be led before it presented an insurmountable obstacle in view of the wide scope of the inquiry and the voluminous nature of the material to be dealt with, but this was soon to the legislature within the shortest period compatible with safety of the country and efficiency of administration, and a definite statement of almost all political parties in declaration in the state of the constitutional position of Indian within the British Commonwealth of Nations." This objective to co-operate with the Committee or lead evidence before it on their behalf.

[illegible]

The Committee approved the proposals in the White Paper for the Federal Executive, namely that the Governor-General with the assistance of not more than three Counsellors, should administer the Departments of Defence, External Affairs, Miscellaneous Affairs and British Commonwealth, and that in all other Departments he should be guided by the advice of Ministers chosen from the Federal Legislature, "special reasons" which would follow generally those of the Provincial Governors except that the Governor-General would have a special responsibility for the financial stability and credit of the Federation. To assist him in the discharge of this special responsibility there would be a Financial Adviser whose services would also be available to the Provincial Ministers. The Committee recommended that when the Government of His Majesty's Government on certain definite conditions not later than the date of Federation, in dealing with the area of federal jurisdiction the Committee recommended that when should be transferred to the administrative control of His Majesty's Government on certain definite conditions not later than the date of Federation.

No change from the White Paper proposals was suggested in the Provincial Legislatures, except that, on the ground that conditions are substantially the same second Chambers were proposed for Madras and Bombay in addition to Bengal, the United Provinces and Bihar.

The Committee considered that Provincial Upper Houses should not be liable to dissolution, but that one-third of the members should retire at fixed intervals.

The Committee were definite in their opinion that communal representation is inevitable at the present time. They described as well-thought and well-balanced the arrangement for the composition of Provincial Assemblies embodied in the Communal Award, as amended by the Poona Pact.

The Committee agreed that representatives of the States in the Federal Legislature should be appointed by the Rulers of the States concerned. The White Paper of representation between the States and British India was endorsed.

The rights of paramountcy over the Indian States at present exercised on behalf of the Crown by the Governor-General-in-Council clearly could not be exercised by any federal authority. The Committee fully agreed that outside the federal sphere the States' relations would be exclusively with the Crown, the right to tender advice to the Crown within this sphere lying with His Majesty's Government.

They recommended that indirect election should be open to future review and express the hope that it after experience had been obtained of the working of indirect election Indian opinion thought modification was required, the Federal Legislature should lay its own proposals before Parliament according to procedure for which provision was made in the Report. The Committee suggested that some form of indirect election based on a group system might provide the ultimate solution. It was recommended that in the case of bicameral Legislatures the electing body should be the Provincial Upper Houses and in unicameral Provinces an electoral college should be formed of persons elected by an electorate corresponding to an electorate for Upper Houses in bicameral Provinces as under the White Paper, election would be by single transferable vote. The Committee preferred that the Council should not be classifiable. Its members should be elected for nine years and one-third replaced every third year.

The Committee's proposals for the method of selecting British Indian representatives to both Houses were an important departure from the White Paper scheme. The respective advantages and disadvantages of methods of direct and indirect election to the Federal Lower House were discussed. The Committee expressed themselves in favour of indirect election by the Provincial Lower Houses, the various committees voting separately for their own representatives.

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The Committee recommended that recruitment by the Secretary of State to the All-India Service should cease except for the Indian Civil Service and Indian Police. They could not entertain any suggestion for a change in the system of recruitment to these two services simultaneously with a fundamental change in the system of government. They thought, however, that there was much to be said for the recruitment in India of the Indian element in both those services.

The Committee approved generally the White Paper proposals for a Federal Court. Federal Legislature to establish a separate Supreme Court for the hearing of appeals from the Provincial High Courts in civil cases and criminal cases involving the death penalty. This would inevitably result in an overlapping of the jurisdiction of the Federal Court, and the Committee would prefer to deal with appeals in civil cases by empowering the Legislature to extend the jurisdiction of the Federal Court. The Court would then sit in two distinct Chambers, though the Judges might to some extent be interchangeable. As regards criminal cases, the Committee concluded that no provisions for appeal were required beyond those at present existing.

The Committee divided the question of commercial discrimination against British commodities—discrimination against British commercial interest and trade in India, and discrimination against British imports.

They recommended that to the special responsibilities of the Governor-General enumerated in the White Paper there should be added a further special responsibility deemed in some such terms as follow—“The prevention of measures, legislative or administrative, which would subject British goods, imported into India from the United Kingdom to discriminatory or penal treatment.” They further recommended that the Governor-General’s instrument of instructions should make it clear that the imposition of this special responsibility was not intended to affect the competence of his Government and of the Indian Legislature to develop their own fiscal and economic policy, that they would possess complete freedom to negotiate agreements with the United Kingdom and other countries for the securing of mutual tariff concessions; and that it would be the Government’s duty to intervene in tariff policy only in his opinion the intention of the policy contemplated was to subject trade between the United Kingdom and India to restrictions conceived, not in the economic interest of India, but having the object of injuring the interests of the United Kingdom.

As regards discrimination against British trade in India, here again statutory provision was necessary. The Committee accepted the White Paper proposal that the Governor-General and Governors should have a special responsibility for the prevention of discrimination, but considered it should be made clear in the Act that this responsibility was extended to the prevention of administrative

discrimination in any of the matters in respect of which provision is made against legislative discrimination. The Committee rejected a proposal that the Constitution should contain a general declaration of the fundamental rights of the subject. But they thought that the Act might contain a declaration providing that no British subject, Indian or otherwise, domiciled in India should be disabled from holding public office or from exercising any trade, profession or calling by reason only of his religion, descent, caste, colour or place of birth, and it should be extended, as regards the holding of office under the Federal Government, to subjects of Indian States. They thought also that there should be provision against expropriation of property except for public purposes.

With a constitution mainly dependent for its success upon provisions to ensure a balance between conflicting interests, it was impossible at present to grant powers of constitutional revision to Indian Legislatures. At the same time it was essential to provide machinery to enable constitutional modifications to be made without amending Acts of Parliament, and the Committee considered that amendments on certain points should be permissible by Orders in Council to which Parliament had assented. They recommended that any amendment of the Reserve Bank Act, or any legislation affecting the constitution or functions of the Bank, or of the coinage or currency of the Federation, should require the Governor-General’s prior sanction.

For the purposes of railway administration, it was proposed that, subject to the general control of the Federal Legislature and Government, control should be vested in a Railway Authority working on business principles. In recommending the separation of Burma from India at the same time as the introduction of provincial autonomy in India, the Committee drew particular attention to the necessity of preserving Burma from ruinous economic and financial results, and made their recommendations dependent upon statutory effect being given to a trade agreement to be concluded between the present Government and the Government of Burma which would allow the two Governments to adjust themselves to the new conditions, and should contain a provision for mutually agreed alterations to be made during the currency.

They intended the modification they suggested in the Indian White Paper to apply *mutatis mutandis* to corresponding proposals in the Burma White Paper.

In addition, the department’s proposal was reserved to the Burma Government to be referred to the Governor-General in India. The addition of the same as those proposed to be reserved to the Governor-General in India is monetary policy, currency and coinage. There would be no Reserve Bank in Burma and the

Committee agreed to this addition to the list of the Governor's reserved departments. The Committee concurred in the proposals that the Governor should be able to appoint three Counsellors and a Financial Adviser.

As regards relations between Burma and India, the Committee agreed that Indians should be accorded *vis-à-vis* Burma generally, the same measure of protection as has been recommended for United Kingdom British subjects in India but they thought that the additional special responsibility to be laid upon the Governor to protect imports from India against general treaty duties should be made reciprocal, and a similar responsibility in respect of imports from Burma laid upon the Governor-General in India.

The Committee agreed that special provision should be made to enable the Burma Legislature to regulate the inflow of Indian labour, provided that such immigration legislation received the prior consent of the Governor.

Government of India Bill.

The Government of India Bill, which was published early in 1935, was generally based on the Joint Committee's report. It made provision for the accession of Indian States to the federation, and for the appointment of one person as Governor-General of India and another as His Majesty's representative as regards relations with Indian States, but made no provision for His Majesty to appoint one person to fill both offices. The Governor-General's powers and his special responsibilities were defined and it was stipulated that in case of a failure of the constitutional machinery he could by a proclamation assume all the powers of the Federation, excluding the Federal Court. Detailed provisions were made relating to the Federal Railway Authority, which was to be run on business principles.

The Bill is a consolidating Act for the Government of India and includes a number of provisions contained in the 1919 Act which in turn will be repealed under the new Act, but the preamble of it will stand, since it is not the practice to repeal the preamble when any Act is repealed. The Select Committee took the view that, with the 1919 preamble standing and with the definite statement that no pledge is in any way repudiated, there is no need for a preamble in the present Bill.

The first introductory part of the Bill provides for the Government of India by the Crown. The second part, dealing with Federation, defines *inter alia* the functions of the Governor-General, the extent of the Federation's executive authority, constitution of the Council of Ministers and the Legislature; provisions in the event of failure of the constitutional machinery.

The classes provide *inter alia* that unless a State addressed to Federation within twenty years, an address by both Houses of the Legislature, an address by the Governor-General, the extent of the Federation's executive authority, constitution of the Council of Ministers and the Legislature; provisions in the event of failure of the constitutional machinery.

At the time of writing the Bill is awaiting the third reading and as far as it is possible to forecast, it may be assumed that it will pass through both Houses without any very material change.

(For Indian reactions to the Report and the Bill, see Congress section.)

THE FUTURE OF BURMA.

supported separation from India. He added that Burma could not be granted the right of secession, as it would be a bad precedent and would be fatal to Federation.

In pursuance of the policy of giving Burmans the fullest opportunity to determine the future form of their constitution, the Joint Parliamentary Committee decided in November to invite five representatives of Burmans for consultation. A prolonged discussion took place in December, in which both sides freely ventilated their respective points of view. "The result of the elections to the special session of the Burma Council should be construed as a vote against separation." "There are no two opinions in Burma; all are for separation, the so-called federalists are also for separation—but after a time." These were the conflicting views expressed in London. On behalf of His Majesty's Government, Sir Samuel made it plain that Britain had no axe to grind and that she was actuated solely by the desire to do the best for Burma. "The controversy was set at rest by the publication of the report of the Joint Parliamentary Committee (see joint Parliamentary Committee section) which granted the separation of Burma and the establishment of a separate unitary constitution for Burma.

"The Joint Parliamentary Committee's Report, was discussed by the Burma Legislative Council, which rejected a motion opposing separation and rejecting the constitution proposed by the Committee. A proposal favorable to the immediate grant of Dominion Status to Burma was carried.

Shortly after the publication of the J P C Report (see Joint Parliamentary Committee section), which covered Burma also, representatives of the Burman and Indian Governments entered into negotiations to settle the future financial and commercial relations between the two countries. These negotiations resulted in an agreement maintaining the status quo for a period of five years, a proposal to allow a certain latitude for low revenue duties having been abandoned. Commenting on this agreement in the House of Commons, Sir Samuel Moore advised representatives of British India not to ask for any special safeguards for British trade and industry at the present stage on the ground that any attempt to obtain concessions which the Indian and Burman Governments were unwilling to offer of their own accord would adversely affect British trade with India. A tribunal was also appointed to advise the Secretary of State on the termination of a just financial settlement between India and Burma. The tribunal's report was published in May, 1935, taking the figures up to the year ending March, 1933, the Tribunal declared that on the basis of 57 per cent interest, Burma would pay India over two crores of rupees annually for 45 years to redeem principal and interest.

Throughout the discussions on the Indian forms proposals the question of Burma's future occupied a secondary position, as nothing could be definitely settled until the Burmans themselves decided whether they would join the proposed all-India Federation and share the lot of the Indian provinces, or become a separate unitary entity with constitutional advance analogous to that conferred on India, subject to similar safeguards. It was thought that a new election to the Burmese Legislative Council would give the electorate an opportunity to express itself on this question. The election was held and resulted in a majority for the federalists. When, however, the new Council was called upon to give a straight answer to the question of Separation or Federation on the lines of His Majesty's Government's proposals it declined to do so. A large number of resolutions were tabled, but not one of them provided a clear indication of the people's mind. Even the anti-separatists did not vote for Federation, but expressed a desire to cast their lot with India as an experimental measure, reserving the right to withdraw from the Federation at a later date. Several adjustments were granted to enable the parties to arrive at a compromise resolution and, after the Governor had refused further to prolong the sittings, which had lasted several days, the special session of the Council was prorogued.

If Burma herself gave an inconclusive verdict, the British Government could not remain idle, that would have been unfair both to India and Burma. Therefore, a few months later (in August) Sir Samuel Moore presented to the Joint Parliamentary Committee a memorandum embodying Government's proposals for the future constitution of Burma if it were decided to separate Burma from India. He, however, made it clear that if the Joint Committee decided that Burma should be included in the Indian Federation, the proposals of the White Paper (subject to consequential adjustments) would apply to Burma in the same way as they would apply to any other province of India. As the Burma Council had refused to choose separation on the basis of the representation outlined by the Premier, he suggested that the Committee should invite some Burman representatives for consultation to assist in determining which of the two courses would be the best interests of Burma. Assuming that Burma was to be separated, he outlined a scheme of constitutional advance under which executive authority in a unitary Burma would vest in the Governor, who would also be the Commander-in-Chief. He would himself direct and control the administration of finance, external affairs, ecclesiastical affairs, monetary policy, currency, customs, and matters connected with scheduled areas. Other subjects would be administered by Ministers elected by, and responsible to, the Council. The Legislature would be bicameral. Shortly after the submission of this memorandum Sir Samuel expressed the opinion that an overwhelming body of Burmans had

The Indian Legislature.

The annual budget session of the Indian Legislature opened in New Delhi with a meeting of the Legislative Assembly on Wednesday, 24th January 1934. This was an unusually early date and there was a good deal of confusion in the session's programme on the day.

The annual Railway Budget was presented by the Honorable the Railway Minister, Sir Joseph Bhowan on 17th February. Its outstanding feature was the evidence which it contained justifying the forecast made a year previously that the depths of the trade depression then prevailing in India, in common with the rest of the world, had been plumbed. It showed a material advance over those in the preceding year.

The Railway Minister showed that the actual deficit in the year 1932-33 amounted to Rs. 107 crores against an anticipated deficit of Rs. 94 crores, loss having been met by a temporary loan from the Depreciation Fund, which was thus left with a balance slightly over Rs. 12 crores. The estimates for 1933-34 provided for income Rs. 884 crores and expenditure just over 847 crores, which would leave net receipts at nearly 257 crores. The final estimates now showed a drop of 7 crores in receipts, with net receipts thus standing at 250 crores, the deficiency for the year was thus estimated at 77 crores, including a loss of 2 crores on strategic lines Government proposed again to meet the loss by a temporary loan from the Depreciation Fund, which would thus be left with a balance of 117 crores against 12 crores at the beginning of the year. The revised estimate of 1933-34 was shown in the following table:

Particulars	1932-33	1933-34
Income	884	884
Expenditure	847	847
Receipts	257	250
Deficiency	77	77

The special points revealed by these statistics shown to have been introduced to deal with adjustments of rates and freight rates were 4 per cent below earnings in 1932-33. Various revised estimates to be about one crore, or nearly 100 lakhs, were shown in the following table:

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indicated, provided powers to stop press attacks in British India calculated to excite dissension in the States and empowered district magistrates to prevent organised bodies of men invading the States from British India. The Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in April at the autumn session of 1933. It was then ordered for discussion for eliciting public opinion and in the present session the Honourable the Home Member moved for its reference to Select Committee with instruction for early report. There was considerable opposition to the reference to Select Committee, elected members keenly representing that the measure would be likely to prevent influence being exerted by people in British India in favour of progressive measures in Indian States. The division on the Select Committee motion resulted in 68 voting in the Government lobby and 30 with the opposition. The Bill again came before the Assembly with the report by the Select Committee on 4th April. Opposition to the measure was again vigorously expressed but the motion for consideration was adopted without division after the application of the clause at the end of two days' debate. The Bill was finally passed by a majority of 67 to 28 after a further 4 days' detailed discussion.

Other Bills of political importance which were introduced by Government and passed by the Legislature during the year were one to continue the authorisation previously given to the Bengal Government to extend political detentions, and for intervention in other provinces in India, and a Bill to supplement a measure passed by the Assam Legislative Council to strengthen the powers of the Provincial Government for dealing with terrorism, the Government of India Bill in this respect being required merely to deal with points ultra vires of the provincial authority.

The year witnessed a passage of a series of Government Bills dealing with economic questions. These were partly disposed of during the annual budget session in Delhi, which concluded on 21st April, and partly during the annual session, which commenced on Monday 16th July and continued until Friday 1st August. The most important of these industrial or economic Bills was one to give another period of protection to the Indian cotton textile industry. The Bill covered silk and artificial silk as well as cotton and undressed cotton textile industry. It was the inclusion of provisions of protection to the Indian cotton textile industry which was one of the features of it were the inclusion of provisions of protection to the Indian cotton textile industry. The Bill covered silk and artificial silk as well as cotton and undressed cotton textile industry. It was the inclusion of provisions of protection to the Indian cotton textile industry which was one of the features of it were the inclusion of provisions of protection to the Indian cotton textile industry.

Other Bills of importance in the economic sphere were a Bill to amend the Imperial Bank of India Act, this being a measure consequential to the establishment of a Reserve Bank, a Bill to restrict the exportation and export of rubber and a Bill to continue the protective import duty on wheat. Both Houses of the Legislature approved the Select Committee to consider the Working of the Ottawa Agreement between India and the United Kingdom. The Legislative Assembly submitted on the last day of the September session a lengthy report, the chief burden of which was that the period of 18 months during which the agreement had been in operation was too short for the formation of a final conclusion upon the merits but that the results so far in evidence were sufficiently promising to justify the continuance of the preferential arrangements which the agreement envisaged. The Council of State Committee on the same subject did not report before the end of the year.

The Legislature passed on the initiative of Government a Bill to make better provision for the control of the manufacture, possession, use, operation, sale, import and export of aircraft, this being a measure corresponding with those prevailing in the most advanced countries for the control of matters connected with Civil Aviation. The Legislature passed a resolution standing on its own legs without any protection A feature of the debates on the Bill was the insistence of the Legislative Assembly on the duty of two annas per gallon on motor spirit for

indicated, provided powers to stop press attacks in British India calculated to excite dissension in the States and empowered district magistrates to prevent organised bodies of men invading the States from British India. The Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in April at the autumn session of 1933. It was then ordered for discussion for eliciting public opinion and in the present session the Honourable the Home Member moved for its reference to Select Committee with instruction for early report. There was considerable opposition to the reference to Select Committee, elected members keenly representing that the measure would be likely to prevent influence being exerted by people in British India in favour of progressive measures in Indian States. The division on the Select Committee motion resulted in 68 voting in the Government lobby and 30 with the opposition. The Bill again came before the Assembly with the report by the Select Committee on 4th April. Opposition to the measure was again vigorously expressed but the motion for consideration was adopted without division after the application of the clause at the end of two days' debate. The Bill was finally passed by a majority of 67 to 28 after a further 4 days' detailed discussion.

1. The production of muscogoods increased by 32 per cent in these six years. There was a higher than in Lancashire increase in the output of labour in the Bombay mills. There was a fall in imports of cloth. There were a number of phenomena in 1911 in which the Government have largely failed owing to the opposition of organised labour.

"The majority of mills in India will find it impossible without aid or protection to realise any return of capital or to find adequate returns and in many cases to meet the whole of their out-of-pocket expenses."

[illegible]

The report, while criticizing some aspects of the manning agency system, agreed that the situation was desirable to the extent that it was needed for the control and supervision of the agents by directors and shareholders.

On the average the cost of cotton represents 10 per cent and manufacturing costs 60 per cent of the total expenditure. The standard rate of duty on imported raw cotton is 70 per cent. In the latest year coming under the purview of the Board, the standard size was 1,000 pounds and 35,000 to 40,000 spindles.

" Our investigation of the handloom industry has been hampered by the absence of authoritative statistics."

In view of the agreement reached at Ottawa and valuation duty at differential rates in pursuance of the agreement decided to levy the Government will not be affected if the Government of protection will not be selected if the Government will not be selected if the Government

The Board's recommendations were, with modifications, embodied in the Indian Tariff (Textile protection) Amendment Bill introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 6th February, 1934, and passed without serious amendment. The same Bill included provisions based on a Tariff Board inquiry for the grant of protection. The Board's recommendations were, with modifications, embodied in the Indian Tariff (Textile protection) Amendment Bill introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 6th February, 1934, and passed without serious amendment. The same Bill included provisions based on a Tariff Board inquiry for the grant of protection. The Board's recommendations were, with modifications, embodied in the Indian Tariff (Textile protection) Amendment Bill introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 6th February, 1934, and passed without serious amendment. The same Bill included provisions based on a Tariff Board inquiry for the grant of protection.

[illegible]

The highest cost of power per unit of output in Indian mills as compared with Japan is mainly due to the lower efficiency of the Indian mills. The greatest disability of the Indian raw silk and a specific duty of Rs 1 per pound yarns to be liable to the duty recommended for valorem duty on silk goods be 86 per cent and "Ad Board recommended that the

"The largest single export from India is Kingdom and for Japan.

Makesher for piecegoods both for the United States and Europe." meansd a duty of 50 per cent ad valorem on cocoons

[illegible]

Indians Overseas.

NUMBERS.—The total Indian population resident in the countries to which Indians mainly migrate for purposes of settlement, according to the latest available returns, is as follows —

Name of country.	Indian population.	Date of Information.
British Empire.		
1. Ceylon	0,50,577†	1932 Agent's Report.
2. British Malaya	0,24,000	1931
3. Hong Kong	2,555	1911
4. Mauritius	2,05,700	1931 Protector of
5. Seychelles	332	1911 Immigrants' Report.
6. Gibraltar	50 (approximately)	1920
7. Nigeria	100	1920
8. Kenya	30,011	1931 Census.
9. Uganda	13,026	1931 Census.
10. Nyasaland	805	1926
11. Zanzibar	11,213	1931 Census.
12. Tanganyika Territory	23,422	1931 Census.
13. Jamaica	17,050	1932 Report of the
14. Trinidad	1,10,080	1932 Protector of Immigrants.
15. British Guiana	1,34,050	1932 Do
16. Fiji Islands	78,075	1932 Report of Secretary for
17. Basutoland	172	1921 Affairs.
18. Swaziland	7	1921
19. Northern Rhodesia	56	1921
20. Southern Rhodesia	1,700	1931 Census
21. Canada	1,22,011	1931
22. Australia—		
Western Australia	300	
Southern Australia	200	
Victoria	100	
New South Wales	700	
Queensland	300	
Tasmania	100	
23. New Zealand		
24. Natal	1,50,020	1933 Protector of Im-
25. Transvaal	15,747	1926 Statistics of
26. Cape Colony	0,655	1926
27. Orange Free State	127	1926 Immigration Department.
28. Newfoundland
Foreign Countries		
29. United States of America	3,173 (Asiatics)	1910
30. Madagascar	5,272 (Indians)	1917
31. Reunion	2,194	..
32. Dutch East Indies	882,607 (Orientals, chiefly Chinese & Arabs)	1921
33. Surinam	34,057 (say 50,000 Indians)	1920
34. Mozambique	1,100 (Asiatics and half-castes)	Not known.
35. Persia	3,827	1922
Total of Indians in Foreign Countries	100,525	
Total of Indians in British Empire	22,32,676	
Grand Total of Indians Overseas	23,33,201	

* Including Straits Settlements, Federated and Unfederated Malay States, Indian Estate Labourers only.

[illegible]

(c) Rights and disabilities of Indians do-

These questions may be considered sepa-

Control of Emigration—So far as

unskilled labour is concerned, the Government of India have assumed absolute powers of con-

trol. The terms of section 10 of the Emigra-

tion Act of 1922 are as follows:—

"10. (1) Emigration, for the purpose of

unskilled work, shall not be lawful except to

such countries and on such terms and condi-

tions as the Governor-General in Council, by

notification in the *Gazette of India*, may specially

in this behalf.

"(2) No Notification shall be made under

sub-section (1) unless it has been laid in draft

before both Chambers of the Indian Legisla-

ture and has been approved by a resolution

of each Chamber, either without modification

or addition, or with modifications and additions

to which both Chambers agree, but upon such

approval being given, the notification may be

issued in the form in which it has been so ap-

proved."

Under this law emigration has been legalised

to Ceylon on the following conditions:

(1) The emigrant shall—

(a) have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Govern-ment of Ceylon, or

(b) have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him.

(2) The emigrant shall not, before leaving British India, have entered into a contract of service for a period exceeding one month.

(3) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor-General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall enact that any contract of service for a period exceeding one month entered into by an emigrant shall be void.

(4) No part of the cost of his recruitment, subsistence during transport, or transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be defrayed from a common fund to be raised in such manner and managed by such agency as may appear suitable to the Colonial Government.

(5) The Government of Ceylon shall at any time when so desired by the Governor-General in Council admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act.

(6) Within one year of his arrival in Ceylon any emigrant who has been assisted to emigrate at the cost of the common fund referred to in clause (4) shall, on satisfying the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that his return to his home is desirable either on the ground of the state of his health or on the ground that the work which he is required to do is un-

substantive to his capacity, or that he has been unjustly treated by his employer, or for any other sufficient reason, be repatriated free of cost to the place of recruitment, and the cost of such repatriation shall be defrayed by the Government of Ceylon or the Ceylon Planters' Association.

(7) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, the Government of Ceylon shall appoint a person to perform the duties of the Agent as set forth in clause (6).

(8) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor-General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that no payment made in India by a recruiter to an emigrant to enable him to pay off debts before emigrating shall be recoverable.

(9) The Government of Ceylon shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of persons emigrating to Ceylon in accordance with this Notification.

Similar conditions have been imposed in the case of Malaya. Emigration was also permitted to Malaitia for a period of 1 year only with effect from May 1st, 1923, and limited to a number not exceeding 1,500 labourers. The terms were more onerous than in the case of nearer Colonies and the arrangement has now lapsed.

Emigration to British Guiana for the purpose of unskilled work has also been declared lawful on the terms and conditions given below, but the date from which emigration is to commence has not yet been fixed.

Emigration to British Guiana.—Emigra-

tion to British Guiana for the purpose of unskilled work shall be lawful with effect from such date as the Governor-General in Council may with the concurrence of the Governor of British Guiana notify in the *Gazette of India* on the following terms and conditions, which shall thereupon become operative:—

(1) The fee shall be the unit for the purposes of emigration. Not more than 500 families shall be permitted to emigrate and the number of persons included in the said 500 families shall not exceed 1,500.

(2) The emigrants shall either have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of British Guiana, or have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him.

(3) No part of the cost of his recruitment or subsistence during transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be borne by the Government of British Guiana or met from funds at their disposal.

(1) The Government of British Guiana shall to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act.

(5) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, or if the Agent is unable or unable to perform his duties, the Government of British Guiana shall appoint a person to perform temporarily the duties of the Agent.

(6) Prior to the arrival of the emigrants a Settlement Commission shall be appointed in British Guiana to select and prepare suitable agricultural land for the emigrants and generally to supervise the employment of the emigrants as members of such Commission.

(7) The Government of British Guiana shall offer to each family for its separate enjoyment a holding comprising not less than five acres of suitable agricultural land prepared for cultivation on the terms hereinafter set out in a locality which shall be in the vicinity of a town or village and supply of good drinking water. All emigrants in connection with the preparation of the holding shall be borne by the Government of British Guiana and shall in no case be recoverable from an emigrant.

The annual rent of the holding shall be fixed by the Settlement Commission at a rate not exceeding the lowest rate paid in the locality.

After an emigrant has been in occupation of a holding for three years, he shall, provided that he has cultivated a portion of the holding either by himself or through some member of his family, be entitled to a grant of the holding on payment of any land tax then payable for years not exceeding 25 dollars as may be fixed by the Settlement Commission.

On the expiry of seven years from the date of the commencement of his occupation of a holding an emigrant shall not be required to pay the cost of such passage and clothing at the time of his first arrival in the colony.

(10) Any Indian who has emigrated to British Guiana before the date of this notification and has at the date of this notification become or hereafter becomes desirous to be entitled to be repatriated to India at the expense of the Government of British Guiana without being further required to prove that he has become incapable of labour.

(11) The Government of British Guiana shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of the persons emigrating to the Colony in accordance with this notification.

(12) Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana if he returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

(13) The Government of British Guiana shall be liable to pay the cost of the passage from India to British Guiana of any emigrant who returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

(14) The Government of British Guiana shall be liable to pay the cost of the passage from India to British Guiana of any emigrant who returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

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(16) The Government of British Guiana shall be liable to pay the cost of the passage from India to British Guiana of any emigrant who returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

(17) The Government of British Guiana shall be liable to pay the cost of the passage from India to British Guiana of any emigrant who returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

(18) The Government of British Guiana shall be liable to pay the cost of the passage from India to British Guiana of any emigrant who returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

(19) The Government of British Guiana shall be liable to pay the cost of the passage from India to British Guiana of any emigrant who returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

(20) The Government of British Guiana shall be liable to pay the cost of the passage from India to British Guiana of any emigrant who returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

(21) The Government of British Guiana shall be liable to pay the cost of the passage from India to British Guiana of any emigrant who returns from his residence in India to British Guiana on payment of half of the cost of his passage from India to British Guiana.

Government has reserved to itself the right to impose restrictions on the immigration of classes of people whose entry into the colony may have an adverse effect on the economic evolution of the indigenous population.

Rights and Disabilities of Indians Lawfully Domiciled Overseas—The policy of the Empire is summed up in the resolution of the Imperial Conference, 1921, which was recorded in the following terms:—

"This Conference reaffirms that each Commonwealth of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control over the composition of its own population by restricting immigration from any of the other communities, but recognises that there is incongruity between the position of India, as an equal member of the Empire, and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully domiciled in some parts of the Empire, and this Conference, therefore, is of opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the Commonwealth it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognised."

"The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union. The representatives of India while appreciating the acceptance of this resolution, nevertheless feel bound to record their profound concern at the position of Indians in South Africa and hope that by negotiations between India and South Africa a way can be found as soon as may be to reach a more satisfactory position."

The Right Hon'ble Sir James Baxter visited the Dominions of Australia, Canada, and New Zealand in the course of 1922 as the emissary of the Government of India to assist them in giving effect to this resolution. The main object of his mission was to appeal to the Government and public of Canada and Australia fully to entertain qualified domiciled Indians. At the time of Mr. Baxter's visit Indians resident in Queensland and Western Australia had neither the provincial nor the federal franchise. In Canada, Indians resident in British Columbia were and are still excluded from the Dominion as well as the provincial franchise. While successful in securing a more sympathetic atmosphere towards Indians, Mr. Baxter failed to bring about any modification in the existing electoral laws.

The question of giving effect to the resolution of 1921 was raised by the Indian representatives at the Imperial Conference, 1928. Their proposal was as follows:—

"Let the Dominion Governments who have an Indian population, let His Majesty's Government in the areas under their direct control, such as Kenya, Uganda, Fiji and other places where there are Indians resident, appoint Committees to confer with a Committee which the Government of India will send from India and explore the avenues of how best and how soonest the principle of equality implicit in the 1921 Resolution may be implemented."

This proposal was favourably received by the Dominion Premiers, extending General Smuts; and by the Secretary of State for the

composition of its own population by means of restriction on immigration from any of the other communities.

"(2) British citizens domiciled in any British country, including India, should be admitted into any other British country for the purpose of pleasure or commerce, including temporary residence for the purpose of education; such right shall not extend to a visit or temporary residence for labour purposes or to permanent settlement."

"(3) Indians already permanently domiciled in the other British countries should be allowed to bring in their wives and minor children on condition: (a) That not more than one wife and her children shall be admitted for each such Indian; and (b) that each individual so admitted shall be certified by the Government of India as being the lawful wife or child of such Indian."

The first paragraph of this resolution has regularized the various restrictions on immigration which the self-governing dominions have, from time to time, adopted and which, without expressly differentiating against Indians are in practice used in order to check Indian immigration, the objections to which are stated to be not racial or political but economic Australia prohibits the entry of any person who fails to pass a dictation test of not less than 50 words in any prescribed language New Zealand prohibits the entry of any person who has not received in advance a permit from the Dominion Government which is refused to any person regarded as undesirable to settle in the country. South Africa prohibits the entry of any person deemed by the Minister of the Interior on economic grounds or on account of his standard of habits of life to be unsuited to the requirements of the person who has come to the Dominion otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native and unless he possesses in his own right 250 dollars. Newfoundland and the Irish Free State impose no restrictions. All the self-governing Dominions have adopted special examinations in favour of students, tourists and merchants visiting the country for the temporary purposes of commerce, pleasure, or education. India on its side has assumed power to regulate the admission of immigrants from any other part of the Empire or foreign countries, by means of the passport. A Bill has also been passed by the Indian Legislature empowering the Government of India to make rules "for the purpose of securing that persons not being of Indian origin, domiciled in any British possession, shall have no greater rights and privileges as regards entry into and residence in British India, than are accorded by the law and administration of such possession to persons of Indian and protectorates, the attitude of the Indian Government is that there is no justification for placing any restrictions on the immigration of British Indians, which are not placed on other classes of British subjects, and this principle has in practice been observed by the Colonial Office except in the case of Kenya colony where, as stated hereafter, the British

(e) That municipal bodies shall have the right to prohibit the licensee holder, or any other person, from residing in any shop, store or other place of business.

(b) There should be no relaxation in the enforcement of the Immigration Laws, and more active steps should be taken to deal with prohibited immigrants who have evaded the provisions of those laws.

(10) The administration of the Asiatic policy of the Government should be placed in the hands of one official, under whose charge would come all administrative functions, together with the official records relating to Asiatics. This officer should also be entrusted with the duty of securing full statistics regarding Asiatics in the Union and of the arrivals and departures from South Africa. Details of all applications for trade licenses, and transac-tions in connection with the purchase of land and property made by Asiatics throughout the Union, should be sent to him in order to ensure the enforcement of the provisions of Section 8 of Act 22 of 1918.

On the other hand, he should keep in close touch with the various sections of the Indian community, see that the laws are applied in a just manner, give a ready ear to any complaints or grievances and generally safeguard their interests.

From the above it will be observed that the Commission recommended the retention of a law prohibiting the ownership of land by Asiatics in the Transvaal, and another of the recommen-dations, threatened the right which Indians had previously enjoyed of acquiring and owning land in the Uplands of Natal. Against this latter proposal the Government of India ear-nestly protested, but it was not accepted by the Union Government.

Present Position—Indians enjoy both the political and municipal franchise only in the Cape Province and the municipal franchise only in Natal. In the remaining two provinces they are not enfranchised. They are subjected to different treatment in the matter of trading licenses, especially in the Transvaal. Their immigration in the Union is barred and severe restrictions exist on inter-provincial migration in the Transvaal they are not allowed to acquire immovable property outside locations and on the Witwatersrand they are subject to the res-trictions of the Gold Law.

The anti-Asiatic party have made several efforts, especially in Natal, further to curtail the rights of Indians. Some of these are merely irritating social disabilities, such as railway regulations debarring Indians from travelling in any other carriages except those reserved for them, and similar rules restricting their use of tramways at Durban, and excluding them from races and betting club rooms. Examples of recent anti-Asiatic legislation of major importance are:

(a) The Natal Rural Dealers Licensing Ordinance, transferring the power of granting trad-ing licenses from the Licensing Officer to an elected Licensing Board, on which Indians may not sit.

(b) The Durban Land Alienation Ordinance This Ordinance, which enables municipalities in selling land to assign it for particular com-munities, and to that extent to secure segregation, not sit.

has been allowed on condition that Asiatics are given reasonable opportunity for acquiring adequate residential sites.

Anti-Asiatic feeling in South Africa—A Bill for the segregation of Asiatics known as the Class Areas Bill was introduced in the Union Assembly in March 1924, which though not specifically directed against Indians, contained provisions which could be used for the compulsory segregation of all Asiatics in certain areas. Indian opinion was deeply agitated over the prospect of this legislation which it was apprehended might in the existing state of public opinion in South Africa result in the economic ruin of a large number of Indian traders in the Union. In response to the vigorous protests made by the Government of India the Union Government gave an assurance that it was their desire and intention to apply the measure if it became law in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of resident Indians. The Government of India whilst welcoming the assurance were unable to rest satisfied with this position and made every effort to persuade the Union Government to abandon the project. For the moment they succeeded, as in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African Parliament the Bill lapsed, but the Union Government nevertheless appointed a committee to inquire for some other country in the world which would be suitable for Indian immigration and to be a home for Indians going from South Africa. The report of the committee is awaited. In Natal an Ordinance was introduced in the Provincial Council in 1921 dealing with the township franchise to the detriment of the Indian community. It was again introduced in 1922 and in a modified form in 1923 but in each instance the Union Government withheld its approval. In 1923, the Union Government itself introduced a measure entitled "The Class Areas Bill," containing provisions which could be used in urban areas for the compulsory segregation of Asiatics. Indian opinion was deeply exercised over the prospects of this legislation, despite the assurance of the Union Government that it desired to apply the measure in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of Indian residents. But in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African House of Assembly in April, 1924, the Bill lapsed. Towards the end of December 1924, news was received that the Government of South Africa had given its consent to the Natal Township Ordinance. This measure while safeguarding the rights of Indians already on the electoral roll of boroughs, prevents further enrolment of Indians as burgesses. Similarly the Natal Township Ordinance, but ineligibility for Township franchise in future. But the Bill to amend the Mines and Works Act in order to take powers to refuse certificates of competency to natives or Asiatics in certain occupations. The Government of India made suitable representations in the matter to the Union Government and the Select Committee to which the measure was referred altered its wording so as not to refer to Asiatics and natives directly. The Bill as amended by the Select

(8)

The Government of the Union of South Africa have requested the Government of India to appoint an Agent in the Union in order to secure continuous and effective co-operation between the two Governments.

In India, the settlement was on the whole well-received. In South Africa the more responsible newspapers, both English and Dutch, e.g., the "Cape Times" and "Die Burger," paid handsome tributes to both delegations for the understanding which they had brought to bear on their work, and the eminently reasonable and practical character of the results achieved by them. The majority of people in both countries doubtless regard it as a good first step in the solution of a complicated problem and the spirit of which it is the outcome, as the best guarantee of a progressive and friendly adjustment honourable to both parties.

The friendly relations which were happily established between the Government of India and the Union Government of South Africa as a result of the agreement not only continue but have grown in warmth and sincerity. The Government of India sent out as their first Agent in South Africa the Right Hon'ble Sriharas Basvar, P. C., who was a member of the Government of India and formerly Cape Town Conference. His appointment was received with universal approval both in India and South Africa, the settlement felt by the Union Government being indicated by their decision, as an act of grace to make his appointment, to extend an amnesty to all Indians illegally present in the Union. On their part the Union Government after the notification of the Agreement by the two Governments, lost no time in undertaking legislation to give effect to their undertakings under it, so that when Mr. Basvar arrived in South Africa in June 1927 all that remained to be done was to take action under Part III of the Agreement relating to the measures required for the upbuilding of the Indian community. Most of the provisions of this part concern the Province of Natal where the bulk of the Indian population of the Union is resident, and the Union Government were not slow in moving the Provincial Administration to appointing a Commission to enquire into the condition of Indian education in that Province and to devise the means necessary for its improvement. Co-operation with this Commission on the part of the Government of India was provided by the Deputation from India of two educational experts—Mr. K. P. Kishin, I. B. S. Deputy Director of Education in the United Provinces, and Miss O. Gordon, B. Sc. (Adm.), Aligarh Educational Society, Lecturer in Kindergarten methods at the Government Training College at Saldaup, to advise and assist the Commission in its investigations and deliberations.

A notable feature of the present situation was the marked spirit of friendliness and goodwill which now animates the Union Government in dealing with all problems affecting the domestic Indian community. An example of this occurred in the year 1927 when a measure was introduced in the Union Parliament known as the Liquor Bill, clause 104 of which purported

to prohibit the employment of Indians on any licensed premises—hotels, clubs, breweries, etc. The appearance of this clause, which threatened the livelihood of 8,000 Indians engaged in such occupations, caused considerable alarm among them and the Minister in charge decided to withdraw the clause from the scope of the Bill.

Much of the credit for the satisfactory measures referred to and the spirit of friendliness which they denote was due to the Right Hon'ble Mr. Basvar, the Agent of the Government of India in South Africa, whose tact and honesty earned for him the confidence of the European community, official and non-official alike and an increasing measure of their sympathy and assistance in furtherance of the Indian cause. Gratifying response was made by the Indians to this appeal for £30,000 for the purpose of opening a combined Teachers' Training and High school in Durban. The institution which meets an urgent need for Indians in the Union of South Africa was opened on October 14th, 1922, by His Excellency the Earl of Athlone, Governor General of South Africa. It is known as the Basvar College and has on the staff fully qualified Indian teachers recruited in India.

In India the Government of India have appointed officers to look after repatriates and their personal property immediately upon their return from South Africa, to arrange for their despatch to their homes and, if possible, to find them employment for which they may be suited. Early in 1929, the Hon'ble V. S. Srinivasa Sastri retired on the expiration of his period of appointment, and Mr. Kurma Venkata Reddi, Kt., was chosen as his successor. In December 1929, Mr. Reddi to return to India on sick leave. During the time he held his post, Mr. Kurma Venkata Reddi, Kt., was compelled him to retire from office. Sick leave having been granted him to return to India, was applied to succeed him. Early in February 1930 the Government of the Union of South Africa set up a Select Committee of the Houses of the Assembly to enquire into certain questions relating to the rights of Indians to occupy and own land property in the Transvaal and to propose such legislation to the House as it might deem fit. This decision was the result of a number of recent judicial judgments bearing upon the occupation of premises on proclaimed grounds in the Transvaal by persons belonging to the native races of Asia and to the wide-spread belief that the intentions of the Union Parliament as indicated in Act 37 of 1919 which purported to prohibit the acquisition of immovable property by Asiatics subsequent to the coming into operation were being systematically defeated as the labourers of the Commission were likely to adopt important Indian interests, and as Mr. Kurma Reddi was on leave in India, the Government of India deputed Mr. J. D. Tyron, I. O. S., to make suitable representations to the Commission for safeguarding legitimate Indian interests and to give the Indian community in the Transvaal such assistance as it might need for placing its views before the Commission. The Commission's conclusions which were embodied in a Bill and its Report were placed on the table of the Legislative Assembly of the Union on the 18th May and the Bill prepared by them was

4 No other modification of the Agreement for the present considered necessary."

The Union Government, as already mentioned in an earlier paragraph, took action to implement the first part of paragraph 8 of the exploration of the possibilities of a colonisation scheme for settling Indians both from India and South Africa. In other countries have so far been reported. The South African Indian Congress decided to appoint a delegate to the committee of investigation on certain conditions. The Committee's report is awaited.

As regards the Transvaal Asiatic Land Tenure Act, certain changes were made which, broadly speaking, had the effect of further safeguarding Indian rights than was expected at the time when the results of the Conference were announced in India. These modifications were announced to the members of the Indian Legislative Assembly in the following statement which was made on the 12th September, 1932 —

Clause 5 of the original Bill, which sought to segregate Asiatics by provision for the year 1930 and 1931 of the Gold Law in so far as they prohibit residence upon or occupation of any land by coloured persons. This power will be exercised, after inquiry into individual cases by an impartial commission, presided over, by a judge, to validate present illegal occupations and to permit exceptions to be made in future from occupational restrictions of the Gold Law.

Fixed property acquired by Asiatic companies up to 1st May 1930, in which the controlling interest was nominally in the hands of European but *de facto* in the hands of Asiatic and of an individual Asiatic on the same date and fixed property held through European trustees immediately prior to the 15th May 1930 will all be protected. Shares held by an Asiatic or Asiatic Company in a private company, which in the terms of the original Bill, would have been forfeited to the State if the company acquired any fixed property after the 1st May 1930, are protected, provided that they were not been transferred by him since that date and they will be heritable by one Asiatic holder.

The provision in the original Bill, which declared illegal the occupation of any fresh land after 1st May 1919 in the same township by an Asiatic, has been made applicable from the 1st May 1930. Extensions made between the 1st May 1919 and 1st May 1930 are protected in areas, like Springs, which, according to a judicial pronouncement, were not formerly subjected to the restrictive provisions of the Gold Law, but which have now been brought under those restrictions, Indians who were lawfully residing on or occupying land on the 1st May 1930, will have their right of residence or occupation protected and will also be able to transfer the right to their lawful successors in title.

read in the House for the first time on the 14th of that month. As soon as copies of the Bill and the Select Committee's Report reached the Government of India, they made pressing representations to the Government of the Union to allow adequate time for careful examination of the far-reaching provisions of the measures which the Select Committee had prepared. Their representations were not without effect and the Union Government decided to postpone further consideration of the Bill until the next session of the Union Parliament early in 1931.

The Bill did not, however, come up before the Union Parliament in 1931, as the Union Government agreed to postpone it further until after the conference between their representatives and the representatives of the Government of India in connection with the revision of the Cape Town Agreement of 1927. This Conference was held at Cape Town in January-February 1932. The Government of India delegation was led by the Honourable Sir Fazl-i-Husain, the other members being the Rt. Honourable V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, Sir Geoffrey Corbett, Sir Percy Lindsay, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Mr. G. S. Bajpai, and Sir K. V. Reddi.

The results of the Conference were announced simultaneously in India and South Africa on the 6th April, 1932. As regards the Cape Town Agreement of 1927, the following statement was made —

1 "In accordance with paragraph 7 of the Cape Town Agreement of 1927 delegates of the Government of the Union of South Africa and the Government of India met at Cape Town from January 12th to February 4th, 1932, to consider the working of the Agreement and to exchange views as to any modifications that experience might suggest. The delegates had a full and frank discussion in the Conference which was throughout marked by a spirit of cordiality and mutual good-will.

2 Both Governments consider that the Cape Town Agreement has been a powerful influence in fostering friendly relations between them and that they should continue to co-operate in the common object of harmonising their respective interests in regard to Indians resident in the Union.

3. It was recognised that the possibilities of the Union's scheme of assisted emigration to India are now practically expanded owing to the economic and climatic conditions of India as well as to the fact that 80 per cent of the Indian population of the Union are now South African-born. As a consequence the possibilities of land-settlement outside India, as already contemplated in paragraph 3 of the Agreement, have been further considered. The Government of India will co-operate with the Government of the Union in exploring the possibilities of a colonisation scheme for settling Indians, both from India and from South Africa, in other countries. In this investigation, which should take place during the course of the present year a representative of the Indian community in South Africa will, if they so desire, be associated as soon as the investigation has been completed. The two Governments will consider the results of the enquiry.

Local bodies, whom the original bill required to refuse certificates of fitness to an Asiatic trader on the ground that the applicant may not lawfully carry on business on the premises for which the licence is sought, shall have to treat a certificate issued by a competent Government officer to the effect that any land saloons or sections 180 and 181 of the Gold Law as sufficient proof that a coloured person may lawfully trade on such land. If an application for a certificate, which is necessary for the grant of a licence, is refused on the ground of insubordination to the Magistrate, an appeal may be preferred to the Magistrate of the district. The decision of the Magistrate on any such appeal is further subject to an appeal to the Transvaal Provincial Division of the Supreme Court.

The South African Indian Congress condemned this Act and a Committee to organise Passive Resistance was appointed. But no action has been taken by this Committee pending the report of the Commission, which has been appointed by the Union Government under the chairmanship of the Honourable Mr Justice Gubbins, to enquire into the occupation by coloured persons of proclaimed land in the Transvaal.

Kumar Sir Maharaj Singh, Kt, C.I.E., B.A., LL.B., who succeeded Sir K. V. Reddi, as Agent of the Government of India in South Africa, closely watched the proceedings of the Commission and assisted the Indian community in the Transvaal to place their case before Sir Justice Gubbins, who returned to India in 1935 and his place was taken by Sir Syed Raza Ali.

(2) Kenya Colony.—The grievances of Indians domiciled in this Colony are fully set forth in the published despatch of the Government of India, dated October 21st, 1920. The Commissioners of the following points—
(a) FRANCHISE.—Indians have not the electoral franchise. The Government of India proposed that there should be a common electoral roll and a common franchise on a reasonable property basis like an educational test, without racial discrimination for all British subjects.
(b) SEGREGATION.—Professor Simpson who was sent to East Africa to report on Sanitary matters, recommended segregation on sanitary grounds. The Government of India objected, firstly, that it was impracticable; secondly, that it was commercially inconvenient; and thirdly, that Indians are in practice unfavourably treated in the allocation of sites.
(c) THE BILITARDS.—Lord Bingham decided in 1908 that as a matter of administrative convenience grants of land in the upland areas should not be made to Indians. The whole area has now been given out, and the Government of India claim that there is no land left to which Lord Bingham's decision applies. This decision has now, however, been extended so as to prohibit the transfer of land in the uplands to non-Indians.

(d) IMMIGRATION.—Suggestions have been put forward for restricting Asiatic immigration into Kenya. The Government of India claim that there is no case for restricting Indian immigration and that such restrictions would be in principle indefensible.

The Settlement.—The decisions of the British Government were contained in a White Paper presented to Parliament in July 1923. It was held that the guiding principle should be that "the interests of the African native must be paramount," and in light of this it was decided—
(a) FRANCHISE.—A communal franchise was adopted with 11 seats for elected Europeans, 5 elected Indians, one nominated Arab, one missionary representative, one African, and a nominated official majority. One Indian is also appointed on the Governor's Executive Council.
(b) SEGREGATION.—The policy of segregation as between Europeans and Asians is abandoned.

(c) THE BILITARDS.—The existing practice is maintained both as regards initial grants and transfers. A similar reservation in the lowlands is offered to Indians.
(d) IMMIGRATION.—Racial discrimination in immigration regulations is rejected. But in the economic interests of the Africans, further control over immigration is necessary. Some arrangements are required for securing a strictly impartial examination of applications for entry into Kenya. The Governors of Kenya and Uganda have been instructed to submit joint proposals for legislation.
The Government of India reviewed their decisions in a resolution published on August 18th, 1923, and recorded "their deep regret that His Majesty's Government did not feel justified in giving greater effect to the recommendations made by them," and reserved liberty to reopen the case on a suitable opportunity. They stated their intention of making representations regarding the action to be taken to implement these decisions, particularly in the matter of the Immigration regulations.

Following upon the Kenya award statutory action was taken by the local administration on the franchise question. Adult suffrage on communal lines was conferred upon Indians as regards immigration, the Government of India regarding immigration. The Government of India took the opportunity to urge the postponement of the bill giving effect to the decision of His Majesty's Government until such time as the Commission proposed by their representatives at the Imperial Conference in 1923 had an opportunity of examining the question of the restriction of immigration. Accordingly the introduction of the bill was postponed at the instance of the Colonial Secretary. The Government of Kenya was also asked by His Majesty's Government for an explanatory statement regarding the method proposed for the administration of immigration measures. The Government of India received an assurance from the Colonial Secretary that ample opportunities would be afforded for the expression of their views, and that earnest attention would be given to any representation which their Committee desired to make. As has already been stated such a Committee was appointed in March 1924. The following statement made by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in the House of Commons on 7th August 1924, is the result of the representation.

In June 1924, His Majesty's Government announced the appointment of an East African Commission, under the Chairmanship of Lord Southborough, to consider and report on certain questions regarding the administration and economic development of British East African dependencies. Since this inquiry was likely to affect Indian interests, the Government of India urged that the Indian point of view should be

The work of the Colonies Committee did much to unite the differences which existed in the relations between the different classes of settlers in Kenya, and the situation was further improved by the decision of the Indian community to relinquish their attitude of non-co-operation and to select five members for nomination by the Governor to the Legislative Council.

With regard to the unanimous in connection with "Lombard" the question of deputation an officer to examine these areas was considered by the Government of India who thought it inadvisable to proceed any further with the idea.

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(1) IOWA—It was proposed to reserve an area in the township for settlement by Indians from India. The Commission made it plain that it was not from any reserve land or land for any particular use, but that the reservation was to be made in accordance with the Indian Act, and that the land was to be held in trust for the Indians. The Commission also stated that the land was to be held in trust for the Indians, and that the land was to be held in trust for the Indians.

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The Government of India readily accepted this suggestion, and with the approval of His Majesty's Government, sent Kumar Maharaj, I.O.S., and Mr. B. D. J. to the East African Commission, to represent the Government of India.

(a) to help the recent Indian community in preparing their evidence for the Commission, and

(b) to make a general survey of these territories in relation to Indian interests there, and

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- (c) oppose the grant of responsible government to Kenya or of any institutions leading up to it,
- (d) oppose the establishment of a Central Council on the lines proposed by Sir Samuel Wilson,
- (e) demand, in case of the establishment of some such body that the unofficial representatives from each province should include an adequate number of Indians;
- (f) advocate the continuance of the official majority in the Legislative Council of Kenya,
- (g) demand that the representation of natives in the Kenya Legislative Council should be by natives or by Europeans and Indians in equal proportions.

In September 1929, the Indian Delegation from Africa was received by Sir Fazl-i-Husain, Minister in charge of the Education, Health and Land Department of the Government of India at Simla. The delegation was represented by Mr J B Pandya, Mr O P Datta and Mr Iqbal Das from Africa and Pt H N Kunzru and Sir Purshadadas Thakurdas, Mr L A S, Sir Frank Noyes, Secretary, and Mr A B Reid, Joint Secretary in the E H L Department, were also present.

and requested them to tell him in what matter they wished the Government of India to help them. The delegation stated the views of the Indian Communities in B. Africa on the matters arising out of the Hilton Young Commission's Report which in their judgment most vitally affected Indian interests. The statement made by the delegation related principally to the question of common franchise in Kenya, the representation of the natives of the country on the Council, the cession of the several territories in B. Africa along the lines suggested in the report, the reservation of land in Kenya for the settlement of Indians, the appointment of an Indian Commissioner in Kenya, the appointment of an Indian Trade Commissioner in East Africa, the improvement of educational facilities for Indians in East Africa, the appointment of Indians in the higher public services there and the better political representation of Indian interests in Uganda and Tanganyika. The delegation also requested the Government of India to nominate a representative to accompany the Deputation which they propose to send to London shortly to put the Indian case before His Majesty's Government before they pass any orders on the Hilton Young Commission's Report.

Sir Fazl-i-Husain thanked the delegation for their interesting statement, but said that before he could make any statement on the attitude of the Government of India in regard to the points advanced by the delegation or reply to their request for the nomination by the Government of India, of a representative to accompany the proposed deputation to London, he would like the members of the delegation to attend the meeting which the Government of India had arranged to hold upon the 15th September, with leading members of the Legislature and the

The personnel of the Commission was announced by the resident Indian Commissioner. It was understood to have been greatly appreciated by the people. The Commission was announced by the Secretary of State for the Colonies on November 14th, 1927, and was as follows — The Right Hon. Sir Edward Maitland Young, P.C., G.B.E., D.S.O., D.P. (Chairman), Sir Reginald Munn, K.C.I.B., C.S.I., Sir George Schuster, K.C.M.G., O.B.E., M.C., and Mr. G. H. Oldham, Members, with Mr. H. F. Dowling (Secretary). The Commission left England on December 22nd, 1927, and travelled via the Nile to Uganda, and thence to Kenya, Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Nyasaland, and Northern Rhodesia, visiting the chief centres and hearing the views of representatives of different sections of the community. The Commission also visited Salisbury for the purpose of conferring with the Government of Southern Rhodesia. The report of the Commission was published on the 18th January 1929.

In March 1899, the Secretary of State for the Colonies sent out Sir Samuel Wilson, Under Secretary of State for the Colonies, to East Africa to discuss the recommendations of the Hilton Young Commission for the closer union of Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda (and such possible modification of these proposals for effecting the object in view as may appear desirable) with the Governments concerned and also with any bodies or individuals representing the various interests and communities affected, with a view to seeing how far it may be possible to find a basis of general agreement. Sir Samuel was also directed to ascertain on what lines a scheme for closer union would be administratively workable and otherwise acceptable and to report the outcome of his consultations. At the invitation of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, the Government of India deputed the Rt Hon A S Srinivasa Sastri, P O, to East Africa to help the local Indian communities to state their views to Sir Samuel Wilson on matters arising out of the Hilton Young Commission's Report and to be at Sir Samuel Wilson's disposal, if he wished to make use of him in dealing with the Indian deputations.

Mr Sastri left India in April and returned in June 1899. In the Report presented by him on his return he recommended that the Government of India should—

(a) Press for inquiries as to the basis of a classification franchise which shall be common to all races alike.

(b) Involve the good offices of the Colonial Office and of the Government of Kenya in securing the consent of the European Community to the establishment of a common roll.

The labour troubles in Fiji in the years 1920-21 had produced an unexpected result in India. The Government of Fiji cancelled the indentures of Indian labourers, as from January 1920, while arrangements were made for the early repatriation of such of them as desired to return to their own country. In consequence, large numbers left Fiji. Many arrived in India comparatively destitute; while others, who were colonial born or whose long residence in the colonies had rendered them unfit for the old social conditions, found themselves utterly out of place—indeed foreigners—in their own country. Returned emigrants from other colonies also, being in difficulties owing to the unstable economic situation in India, strongly desired to return to the territories from which they had come. During the early part of 1921, from all parts of India there was a steady drift of destitute and distressed labourers in the direction of Cutchi where they hoped to find ships to take them back to the colonies in which they were certain of work and livelihood. At the earnest representation of the Fiji Government, and after full consultation with representative public men, arrangements were made to relax the emigration restriction in favour of those Indians who were born and had property in any colony, as well as of such near relations as they desired to take with them. Admittable work was done among these distressed persons by the Emigrants' Friendly Service Committee which had been formed primarily to deal with the applications of repatriated Indians desirous of returning to Fiji. The Government of India gave discretion to this Committee to permit persons who could prove that they had been in Fiji to return there if they so desired. The local labour conditions stimulated the return of these unfortunate people by giving them assisted passages. The Legislative Assembly had made a grant of £1,000 for the maintenance of these labourers, until such time as they were able to find work and settle down in India. The repatriation from India left Fiji on the 3rd April, 1922, and submitted its report to the Government of India. It has not been published.

In February, 1929, Letters Patent under which the constitution of the Fiji Legislative Council was revised were issued. Provision was made, *inter alia*, for the election of three Indian members on a communal basis. On the 4th November, 1929, one of the Indian members moved a resolution recommending the adoption of a communal electoral roll in place of the existing communal one. The resolution was supported by the three Indian members and opposed by the rest of the Council including the elected Europeans and nominated Fijian members. As a protest against this vote, all no Indian members resigned their seats and, for election, the seats remained unfilled throughout the life of the Council. A fresh election was held during 1932 and as a result two Indian constituencies have returned their representatives to the Council, but no candidates offered himself for election from the third constituency. It is understood that two subsequently elected members also withdrew from the Council owing to the decision of the Secretary of State for the Colonies that the introduction of a communal electoral roll in Fiji is impracticable at present.

(4) Other Parts of the Empire.—In Ceylon, Malaitia, and Malaya—the position of Indians has on the whole been satisfactory, and the matters have gone smoothly. The Government of India maintains their own Agents in Ceylon and Malaya. The on all persons of East Indian race resident in 1923 and with confers equality of status which was passed by the Colonial Government provisions of the special declaratory Ordinance did not in any way injure the Indians and did not involve any differentiation against Guiana (Constitution). Order in Council 1928, changes eventually introduced by the British Government to alter the constitution of the House of Commons empowering His Majesty's in the press that a bill had been introduced in the Colonial Office, reports appeared by the Colonial Office, following special inquiries in March, 1928, following special inquiries in a position at present to afford the cost which it involves.

The constitution scheme has not yet come into operation as the Colonial Government are not whole matter was thus satisfactorily settled. The colonial scheme has not yet come into operation as the Colonial Government are not certain criticisms and suggestions and the 1st, 1920, and published. He made 1925. His report was received on February 1925. He proceeded to that Colony in September. Bar-at-Law, was deputed for this purpose. matter. Kumar Maharaj Singh, M.A., C.I.E., officer to British Guiana to report on certain tion, like the Government of India to depute an world, before making any definite recommendations, scheme put forward by the deputation, they inclined to view with favour the colonization. Legation Committee of the Indian Legislative in India for further discussions. The standing and the Hon. Mr. J. C. Lachoo, K.C., arrived Guiana, consisting of Sir Joseph Nanan, Kt., month a deputation from the Colony of British 21st of January, 1924. Towards the end of the reports of the deputation were published on the Classes in the United Provinces. The two India Society who had done considerable amount of Social Welfare Work among the Depressed India Society was a member of the Senate of Council of which he was also Vice-President, and was an elected member of the Madras Legislative Bombay. Dhan Bahadur P. Keshava Pillai, retired from the post of Director of Agriculture, member of the Indian Civil Service who had British Guiana. Mr. Keatinge was a former of Messrs. Pilling, Keatinge and Livery. visited India to investigate conditions on the spot. was not found possible to proceed with the proposal until 1932, when a deputation consisting of Messrs. Pilling, Keatinge and Livery. visited India to investigate conditions on the spot. was not found possible to proceed with the proposal until 1932, when a deputation consisting of Messrs. Pilling, Keatinge and Livery. visited India to investigate conditions on the spot. was not found possible to proceed with the proposal until 1932, when a deputation consisting of Messrs. Pilling, Keatinge and Livery. visited India to investigate conditions on the spot.

with the standing Committee on Immigration and Naturalization, which had been established by the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1952, to investigate the status of the applicant for citizenship. The Committee on Immigration and Naturalization, which was established by the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1952, to investigate the status of the applicant for citizenship. The Committee on Immigration and Naturalization, which was established by the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1952, to investigate the status of the applicant for citizenship.

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The Zogrebite Government has recommended a population with its different population and this is now in negotiation

[illegible]

the following information:

שנה 1957
 חודש 12
 יום 25
 שעה 18:00
 מקום 100

[illegible]

1. התאחדות העובדים (התאחדות העובדים הכללית) - התאחדות העובדים הכללית
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 10. התאחדות העובדים (התאחדות העובדים הכללית) - התאחדות העובדים הכללית

1. The first part of the document is a list of names and their corresponding addresses. The names are written in Hebrew, and the addresses are written in English. The list is organized in a table-like format with three columns: Name, Address, and a third column that appears to be a date or a reference number.

2. The second part of the document is a list of names and their corresponding addresses, similar to the first part. The names are written in Hebrew, and the addresses are written in English. The list is organized in a table-like format with three columns: Name, Address, and a third column that appears to be a date or a reference number.

3. The third part of the document is a list of names and their corresponding addresses, similar to the first two parts. The names are written in Hebrew, and the addresses are written in English. The list is organized in a table-like format with three columns: Name, Address, and a third column that appears to be a date or a reference number.

4. The fourth part of the document is a list of names and their corresponding addresses, similar to the first three parts. The names are written in Hebrew, and the addresses are written in English. The list is organized in a table-like format with three columns: Name, Address, and a third column that appears to be a date or a reference number.

5. The fifth part of the document is a list of names and their corresponding addresses, similar to the first four parts. The names are written in Hebrew, and the addresses are written in English. The list is organized in a table-like format with three columns: Name, Address, and a third column that appears to be a date or a reference number.

1. The first step in the process of identifying a problem is to define the problem. This involves identifying the symptoms of the problem and determining the scope of the problem. Once the problem has been defined, the next step is to identify the causes of the problem. This involves identifying the factors that are contributing to the problem and determining the root cause of the problem. Once the causes of the problem have been identified, the next step is to develop a plan to address the problem. This involves identifying the actions that need to be taken to address the problem and determining the resources that will be needed to implement the plan. Once a plan has been developed, the next step is to implement the plan. This involves taking the actions that have been identified in the plan and putting them into practice. Finally, the last step in the process is to evaluate the results of the plan. This involves determining whether the plan has been successful in addressing the problem and identifying any areas that need further attention.

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Indians in Great Britain.

Some seventy years have gone by since the Parsee community, in the persons of the late Dababai Navroji and other members of the firm of Cama & Co., led the way in the sojourning of Indians in England for business purposes. This led it has since maintained, though there are both Hindu and Mohammedan business men firmly established there. Nor are the professions unrepresented, for there are in London and elsewhere practicing barristers, solicitors and medical men of Indian birth.

Mr. Amner Ali, the first Lord Sinha, the late Sir Bhinod Mitter and Sir Dinsan Mulla—have served on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Three Indians are on the Secretary of State's Council. In 1919, the late Lord Sinha was the first Indian to be raised to the peerage and to be appointed a member of the Home Government. In the spring of 1923 Mr. (now Sir) Dadabhai Dalal was appointed High Commissioner for India being the first Indian to hold the office. He resigned towards the end of 1924 to be succeeded by Sir Atul Chatterjee, who in 1931 was followed by Sir B. N. Mitra. The early years of the present century saw the gathering of a new Indian element in permanent residence—that of retired officials and business men, or people of independent means who from preference or in order to have their children educated in England, leave the land of their birth and seldom if ever visit it again. Further the stream of Indian summer visitors includes wealthy people who come regularly.

Sectionally, the only Indian community to be fully organised is that of the Parsis. They have an incorporated and well-endowed Parsi Association of Europe (the central Zoroastrian House, 11, Russell Road, West Kensington, opened in 1929, includes a room devoted to ritual and ceremonial purposes, a reading room and library, and rooms for social intercourse. The Arya Bhawan, a home for orthodox Hindus visiting London, was opened at 30, Belgrave Park, Hampstead, in the summer of 1928. Indian business interests have been organised by the formation of the Indian Chamber of Commerce in Great Britain, with offices at 86, Gracechurch Street, E. O. 3. The East India Association (3 Victoria Street S. W. 1) established in 1867, provides a non-partisan platform for the discussion of Indian problems, and exists "to promote the welfare of the inhabitants of India." The India League (146, Strand, W. C.) under the chairmanship of Mr. Bertrand Russell exists "to support the claim of India for Swaraj (Self-Rule)." At the other end of the scale in Indian political

On the ground floor there is a great hall for exhibits of the products and art wares of India. This hall is carried up two floors, the upper floor being represented by a wide gallery, and on either side of the exhibition hall there are recesses after the style of an Indian bazaar for special exhibits. From the octagonal gallery round the octagonal hall on the first floor. This gallery in its turn leads to a high vaulted library and reception rooms, and the central portion of the library provides accommodation for large receptions on special occasions. The staircase, exhibition hall, octagonal hall and library markedly express the Indian character of the building. The walls of the staircase and the halls are of red stone similar in appearance to the Agra and Delhi sandstone, carved and pierced in the geometrical patterns of the jali in Indian architecture. Such of the structure was actually worked at New Delhi by Indian workmen from Alaknanda marble. The use throughout of Indian hardwoods, chiefly teak, for flooring obviates the need for any floor covering. From basements to roof scarcely any wood of non-Indian origin was employed for paneling and decorative purposes in all parts of the great building. Silver gray, koto, laurel and the beautiful dark red padouk have been used. The domes and vaults of the building have been embellished by mural

(1925) When a paper was read by Mr. F. H. Brown. The conference came to the conclusion that, since non-official effort admittedly does not meet the need fully the hostel and club at 21, Cromwell-Road, should be maintained, more particularly to provide accommodation for new comers. A small committee with Mr. A. D. Bonarjee (Warden of 21, Cromwell-Road) as Secretary was established to assist students in obtaining suitable accommodation. The increase in number of students coming from Indian States raises the question whether the time has not come for provision to be made for them on lines similar to those adopted by the Education Department of the Office of the High Commissioner. The Mysore State opened in 1929 an agency office at Grand Buildings, Trivargur Square, and appointed a permanent Trade Commissioner. Under the presidency of Lord Hawke an Indian Gymkhana Club in 1921 acquired its own sports ground at Ootley, the total cost of purchases and equipment being estimated at £15,000. Generous gifts were made by some British princes and others, particularly by the Maharaja of Patiala, but further help is required. The cricket eleven of the Club has an excellent record in matches at Lords and the Oval and with suburban clubs

SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS IN LONDON CONNECTED WITH INDIA

BRITISH INDIAN UNION.—Promotes friendship and understanding between the two races 68 Blandford Street, Baker Street, W 1
HON SECRETARY R S NEHRA
CENTRAL HINDU SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN —
Rounded to give exposition to Hindu philosophy and culture, to provide for better mutual understanding between Hindus and the British public, and to further the social, economic and political interests of the Hindus in general. *President* R S Nehra. Sec Dr M L Kalia, 188, Lambeth Walk, S W 11
CHIEF PUNJAB ASSOCIATION—Founded 1925 to achieve for India a position of honour in the British Commonwealth of Nations, to promote better understanding between India and Great Britain, to bring about unity between the sister Communities of India, and to raise the standard of living of the people of India. *President* Sardar Hardip Singh. *Secretary* M H Hashid, 446, Strand, W O 2.
INDIA DEKON LEAGUE—Formed to oppose the proposed Constitutional Reforms in India and to preserve Britain's status as an equal partner in the future development of our Indian Empire. *President*, The Viscount Rixland of Dervent, K G, Chief Organizer; Captain H Orr-Ewing, Hon Secretary. Mr R W Donner, 21 F, address Kings Court, 48, Broadway, Westminster, S W 1, Tel. Victoria 6685. *East India Branch*, 8, Chancery Street, Calcutta.

THE INDIA SOCIETY (ARTS AND LETTERS) founded in 1910 to promote the study and appreciation of Indian art and literature, in India and also in those countries which have been influenced by or have influenced India, especially Java, Siam, Indo-China, Afghanistan, Persia and the Middle East. *President*, Sir Francis Younghusband, KCSI Vice-Chairman John De La Valle Hon. Secretary F J Richter, MA 8 Victoria Street, London, S W 1.

INDIAN STUDENTS UNION AND HOSPITAL—112, Gower Street, W.C. 1 Chairman Sir Bart Greaves Warden. J S Almon

INDIA LEAGUE, THE—(Formerly 'The Commonwealth of India League') to support the claim of India for Swamy (Self-Rule) 165, Strand, W.C. 2 Chairman Bertrand Russell

INDIAN LITERARY SOCIETY—(Opposed to the Government scheme of All-India Federation but would accept proposals of the Simon Commission, other than the transfer of Law and Order in the provinces as a basis for discussion 48 Broadway, S.W. 1 Secretary Sir Louis Stuart, C11

INDIAN CONCILIATION GROUP—(Meeting at Friends House, Euston Road, N.W. 1) Chairman Carl Hewitt Secretary Ayalah Harrison, 2 Cranbourne Court, Albert Bridge Road, S.W. 11

INDIAN VILLAGES WELFARE ASSOCIATION—4, Great Smith Street, S.W. 1 (To collect information on rural activities in India and to promote and arouse interest in rural reconstruction) Chairman Sir Francis Youngblood, K.C.S.I. Hon Secretary Miss A. H. Caton

INDIAN GYMNASTIC CLUB—Thorbury Avenue, Osterley To promote the physical well-being of Indian students Secretary Captain W. B. Berry, 10, King's Bench Walk Temple, E.C. 4

MELTIEV SOCIETY IN GREAT BRITAIN.—Formed to safeguard and to maintain the interests of Indian and Islamic institutions. President T. W. Salim Baboonan Secretary Ahmed Bennet Headquarter 151 Great Russell Street, London, W.C. 1

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION—Chief aims to promote the welfare of students 21, Cromwell Road, S.W. 7. Secretary Miss Dove

NORTHBRIDGE SOCIETY—Makes grants to deserving Indian students 21, Cromwell Road, S.W. 7. Hon. Secretary E. Oliver

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY—Research in the history and antiquities of Asia 74, Grosvenor Street, W. 1 Secretary: Col D. M. F. Hoysted, O.B.E., D.S.O.

ROYAL CLARKE ASIAN SOCIETY—President Lord Alibey Chairman The Rt Hon Sir Lord Alibey, G.C.B., G.C.M.G. Secretary Miss M. N. Kennedy, 77, Grosvenor Street, London, W. 1.

ROYAL INDIAN SOCIETY—Formerly Royal Colonial Institute, Northumberland Avenue W.C. 2. Secretary George Fletcher, address during re building—17, Carlton House Terrace, W. 1

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS has an Indian section before which lectures are delivered on industrial, historical and commercial questions. 18, John Street, Adelphi, W.C. 2 Secretary G. K. Menzies, O.B.E., V.A. Secretary, Indian Section, W. Perry.

ROYAL INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS, Chatham House, 10, St James' Square, S.W. 1 Secretary: Lysons Macadam, O.B.E.

PARSIS ASSOCIATION OF EUROPE—Zoroastrian House, 11, Russell Road, Kensington, W. 14

SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING THE STUDY OF RELIGIONS.—President, The Rt Hon Lord Curzon of Kedleston, G.C.B., G.C.I.E. Chairman of Council Sir L. Denison Ross, C11, 24 D. Chairman of Executive Committee Sir Francis Youngblood, K.C.S.I. Information from the Hon Secretary, 17, Bedford Square, W.C. 1

STUDENT CHRISTIAN MOVEMENT OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.—Secretary, R. O. Macle, Annandale, North End Road, Golders Green, N.W. 11.

UNION OF INDIAN LADIES—Formed to support the proposals of H. M. Government for Indian Constitutional Reform 211, Cavendish Square, W. 1 Chairman of Council Sir John Thompson, President Viscount Gresham Secretary Owen T. Wedd

VICTORIA LEAGUE.—81, Cromwell Road, S.W. 7 Secretary: Miss Gertrude Drayton, O.B.E.

WOMAN'S ASIAN ASSOCIATION London Committee 100, 53, Elmworth Road, N.W. 3 Joint Hon Secretaries Miss Ayalah Moha and Mrs U. Macle.

Sport.

India is more and more becoming sport-minded, and the future of the country is very bright. The biggest handicap at present is lack of properly equipped ground, and until they have been built all games must more or less suffer. Tennis probably has more adherents than any other game, then come cricket and hockey. During the monsoon large crowds attend the football matches, played in Calcutta, Bombay, and in movement is on foot to bring into a being an all-India Football Association. At present the game is governed in the several provinces by independent associations and the need for a controlling body is most evident.

It is in organization chiefly that Indian sport has made the biggest advance, and this will not doubt be reflected later on by an improvement in the standard of the various games.

The heading of the breach, which had seriously interfered with the progress of cricket in India for several years, is the most notable event in the sporting world during the year under review. Ever since 1929 the big Quadrangular tournament, held annually at Bombay, had been in abeyance but in 1934 better counsels prevailed, and the tournament was resumed. This gave universal satisfaction throughout India, for not even the institution of an official cricket championship created as much enthusiasm as did the games played in the Quadrangular tournament on Bombay's historic midland plains and the Provincial championship, provided the chief interest for cricketers. The game made strides forward and the matches should have proved of considerable assistance to those who will have the task of selecting a side to go to England next year.

Young talent has been brought to the front, more centres have been opened to the game, and the first championship of India was brought to a successful conclusion. It did not run too smoothly, but no doubt the lessons learned will be put into practice next year.

The Turf of course has its followers in thousands, which cannot be wondered at seeing that the country possesses some of the best courses in the world. Better and better horses are being imported for racing but there is a strong movement in favour of more races being confined to the country-bred animal. The turf is patronised by the Viceroy and some of Governors, and the Viceroy's horses have won races, and the Indian Princes support the turf generously.

Polo is a favourite game of those who can afford it and maintains its reputation of being equal to the best in the world.

Golf, Yachting and Rugby Football are games for the few but each have their season and quota of followers.

A summary of the results of the chief sporting events during the year appear in the following pages.

The Board of Control for Cricket in India have done very good work, they have strengthened-

4	Mr. E's Rosette (set sibs), Brace	Won by 1 length, 1 length, short-head—	Time—1 min 59 2-5 secs
1	The Littleton Handicap Distance 1 mile—		
1	Mr. Eve's Carmelian (set), Brace		
2	Mr. P. B. Avasia's Dr Strabismus (set 7lbs), Dillon		
3	Mr. Shantidas Askuran's Dogahta (set sibs), Northmore		
4	H. H. Mahara of Kolhapur's Doucense (7st), Graham	Won by 1 1/2 lengths, head, 1 1/2 lengths	Time—1 min 40 3-5 secs
1	The Perth Plate—Distance about 1 1/2 miles—		
1	Mr. Roman's Dandy Brush (7st 11lbs), Dillon		
2	Mr. Eve's Superlative (set), Brace		
3	Mr. T. Mistry Bucefatur (set 7lbs) Munro		
4	Mr. Kelso's Prince Khan (set), Martrable	Won by neck, 2 lengths, 1 length	Time 2 mins 39 1/5 seconds
1	The Danebury Handicap—Distance 6 furlongs		
1	Mr. Shantidas Askuran's Will Scarlet (7st 7lbs), Davison		
2	H. H. Mahara of Kolhapur's Jackdaw the Second (set sibs), Dillon		
3	Mr. Diamond's Kum Bak (set 7lbs), Carlake		
4	Meares A. C. Ardeshur and P. D. Bolton's Agoo's Her (set 12lbs), Munro	Won by short-head, shout-head, short-head	Time—1 min 12-5 secs
1	The Chevelay Handicap—Distance 1 1/2 miles—		
1	Mr. P. B. Avasia's Garcon (set 13lbs), Burn		
2	Mahara, Man Singh of Jaswanthgar's { Dead Heat		
3	Mr. Eve's Carmelian (set sibs) Brace		
4	Mr. P. H. Mehta's Thracian Prince (set 10lbs) Selby	Won by—Dead-head, short-head, 3 lengths	Time—2 min 10 seconds
1	The Chist of Kagal Memorial Plate Distance		
1	Mr. J. Reynolds's Goolash (7st 13lbs), Howard		
2	H. H. Mahara of Kashmir's Pongtchev (set 7lbs), Sibbritt		
3	H. H. Mahara of Kolhapur's Diamond Shower (set sibs), Walker		
4	Mr. P. B. Avasia's Garcon (set 11lb), Burn	Won by 1 length, 1 1/2 lengths, 1 length	Time—1 min 26 1/5 secs
1	The General Obaidullah Khan Memorial Gold Cup Distance 1 1/2 miles—		
1	Mr. Basheer Mahomed's Dabes (set sibs), Slumon		
2	Mr. K. Ardeshur's Abdul Malik (set 7lb), Bowley		
3	Mr. A. C. Ardeshur's Hamayah (set), Munro		
4	Mr. A. Lookmanji's Darmanor (set), Sibbritt	Won by 1 length—short-head, 1 length	Time—2 mins 19

1	Mr. A. C. Ardeshur's Bulck (set 11lbs), Dillon		
2	Raja Dhruvji's Prince Ghazi (set sibs), Rosen		
3	Mr. Chingnatraya Naidu's Pernacell (7st 2 lbs), Spackman		
4	Mr. Hedeshtazada's Goolab (set sibs), Evans	Won by a neck, a head, 1 length	Time—1 min 53 4-5 secs
1	Madras Cup Distance 6 furlongs—		
1	Miss V. Parker's Bedford (7st 1lb), Evans		
2	Hon. Raja of Bobbili's Rare Gift (7st sibs), Rosen		
3	Mr. M. Salahuddin's Wet Summer (7st sibs), Donnelly		
4	Mr. Govindaraj's Hanes Hill (set 12 lbs), Dillon	Won by a neck, 1 length, 1 length	Time—1 min 10 4-5 secs
1	Tral Plate Distance 6 furlongs—		
1	Mr. M. C. Patel's Cavern (set 11lbs), Obaid		
2	Mrs. Clark's Mytilus (7st lbs), J. McCarthy		
3	Meares Rogers and Bolton's Tolerate (set sibs), Morris		
4	Mr. C. Kelly's Hamarck II (set. sibs), Evans	Won by a neck, 1 length, a head	Time—1 min 13 2-5 secs
1	The Windsor Plate Distance 1 mile—		
1	Mahara, Man Singh of Jaswanthgar's Shapur (set sibs), Munro		
2	Mr. Shantidas Askuran's Dogahta (7st 7lbs), W. McCarthy		
3	Mr. P. B. Avasia's Dr Strabismus's (7st 12 lbs), Sumnon		
4	Mr. Bryance Huskomys, Jnr's, Ootman (set), Dillon	Won by head, short head, 1 lengths	Time—1 min 42 secs
1	The Menmore Handicap Distance 1 mile—		
1	Mr. P. B. Avasia's Garcon (set 13 lbs), Summons		
2	Mr. Eve's Huskomys (7st 13 lbs), Head		
3	Mr. Diamond's Kum Bak (set 11lbs), Munro		
4	Mr. Hymanee Huskomys's, (Jnr), Ootman (7st sibs), Dillon	Won by dead head, 1 length, 3 lengths	Time—1 min 40secs
1	The Cloteth Handicap Distance 1 mile, 1 furlong—		
1	H. H. Mahara of Kolhapur's Grand Raja (set 13lbs), Dillon		
2	Mr. Eve's Bedsocks (7st 12lbs), Rowley		
3	Mr. T. D. Gove's Sasaby (7st 4lbs), Graham		

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The Byculla Club Cup Distance 1½ miles—
H H Maharaja of Kashmir's On Time
(7st), Graham
H D the Viceroy's Compot (6st), Care-
lake
H H Maharaja of Kashmir's Compotting (8st,
11lbs), Sibbritt
Shrinant Xwantrao A. Ghatge's Jmangit-s-
man (7st 9lbs), Davison
Won by head, 1 length, 3 lengths. Time—
3 mins 8 secs.

The Lloyd Handicap Dist mce 1 mile—
Metc G Marshallcott and P D Bolton's
Tolaric (8st), Scudlan
Xanabada Kharunnik's Widuan IIIII
(7st 7lbs), O'Neale
Mr Eves Risque (7st 4lbs), Braae
H H Maharaja of Kashmir's Abund mce
(8st), Seiby
Won by 1 length, neck, 2 lengths. Time—
I min 38 1-5 secs

Trial Ford Park Plate. Distance 7 furlongs—
Mr F B Ayala's Dr Strabalmus (7st 5lbs),
Burn
Mr L S Lalwani's Goshan (8st 5lb),
Davson
Mr Sukhan M Chinnay's Tail (8st 5lb),
Stokes
Won by short-head, 1 length, 1 length
Time—I min 25 1-5 secs

The Sealbeck Handicap Distance 1½ mile—
H H, the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Child
(9st), Blitch
Maharaj Kidam Singh's Section How (8st
5lbs), Harilale
Mr Eves Supriatic (8st 1lb), Braee
Mr Edward Lamond's Hair-Kist (8st 1lb),
Burn
Won by head, 1½ lengths, neck. Time—
2 mins 7 secs

The Tammam Cup Distance 6 furlongs—
Major-General Xawb Khirsu Jung's
Honoy'suckle (8st 12lbs), Sibbritt
Mr D D Nimbalhar's Prince Shivali (8st),
Braae
H H Maharaja of Kashmir's Truro (10 st),
Martrable
Mr P Ayala's Belle of York (7st 2lbs),
ed (7st 5lbs), Stokes
Won by 2 lengths, 2 lengths, 1 length
Time—I min 14 secs

The Bombay Arab Derby Distance (about)
1½ miles—
Mr A B Ahmedbhoy's Kanda (7st 8lbs.,
cd 7st. 10lbs), Seiby
Mr K Ardeshbur's Abdul Malik (8st 8lbs.)
Bowley
H H Maharaja of Kolhapur's Ace of
Hearts (7st 8lbs), Whitlie
Mr A C Ardesbur's Hamayah (8st 11lbs),
Monte
Won by neck, 1-5 secs.
3 mins, 1-5 secs. Time—

The Carnarvon Plate Distance 11 miles—

Alhambra Maidan Smith's Coin (8st. 9lbs),
Scandin
Mr Roman's Dandy Brush (7st 13lbs),
cd 8st, Northmore
Mr P B Ayas's Sabino (9st 3lbs),
Burn
H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Vijaya-
kumar II (8st, 10lbs), Blyth
Won by short head, neck, 1 length Time—
2 mins. 38 1-5 secs

The Aga Khan's Cup Distance 11 miles—
Messrs G McEligott and P D. Bolton's
Tolerate (9st 6lbs), Scanlan
H H the Maharaja of Mysore's Abun-
dance (7st 9lbs), Harding
Mr Edward Esmond's Necker (8st 13lbs),
Burn
Shrinant Yeshwantaro A Chitoge's
Draughtman (8st 9lbs), Davison
Won by 2 lengths, 11 lengths, 11 lengths
Time—2 mins 5 1-5 secs

The Northumberland Plate Distance 2 miles—
H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Vijayakumar
II (8st 13lbs), Whittle
Maharaj Maidan Singh's Corcy (8st 2lbs),
C Hoy
Mrs L Musser's Buecantur (9st), Blyth
Mr P B Ayas's Sabino (9st 7lbs),
Burn
Won by 4 lengths, 1 length, 1 length
Time—3 mins 25 1-5 secs

The King Emperor's Silver Jubilee Cup Dis-
tance 7 furlongs—
Mr M Wemyss' Whatnought (7st 8lbs),
O'Neale
H H the Maharaja Gackwar of Baroda's
Cheap Jack (7st. 8lbs), Graham
Mr M Wemyss's Nadown (7st. 8lbs, cd.
7st 9lbs), Harding
Mrs M Clark's Cybo (8st 11lbs), Brice
Won by 1 length, 2 lengths, short head
Time—1 min. 24 secs.

The Harris Plate Distance 1 mile—
Mr A Higgins's Tel Asur (9st 4lbs), Scan-
lan
Mr J Reynolds's Goolash (8st 9lbs),
Selby
H H Maharaja of Kolhapur's Grand
Wazir (7st 12lbs), Stokes
Mr Eve's Carnahan (8st 2lbs), Brice
Won by 11 lengths, head, 1 length Time—
1 min 59 1-5 secs.

The Second Dealers' Plate. Distance 1 mile—
Mr Storr's Nassim's Hussam Al Iraq (9st
4lbs), Northmore
Mr Rashid Radhoo's Harry Johnson (8st
9lbs, cd 8st. 10lbs), Scanlan
H H Maharaja of Kolhapur's German (8st
10lbs), Forsyth
Mr Abdul Wahid's The Duke (8st. 3lbs),
Ahmedally
Won by 11 lengths, 21 lengths, length
Time—1 min 50 secs.

Won by 11 lengths, 21 lengths, length
Time—1 min 50 secs.

The Queensberry Handicap Distance 7 fur-
longs—

Mr V Mosenthal's Tim Monev (8st 5lbs),
Selby
Mr John York's Wermarch (8st 5lbs),
Harding
Messrs A C Ardesht and P D Bolton's
Maid of Orleans (9st), Marnable
H H Dharamsey's Ootman (8st 11lbs)
Cullen
Won by 1 length, 1 length, 1 length
Time—1 min 21 2-5 secs

Calcutta.

Trial Huntle Race Distance about 11 miles—
Mr S. R Varma's Did He Do It (10st 1lb),
Jinner
Miss Gen H K Bethell's Trenchio (9st
7lbs), Baker
Mr R Kinwell Stewart's Lucky Jack (10st.
1lb), Burnetia
Mr P. C Barnes's Tom Kat (1st 2lbs),
Hardcastle
Won by 1 length, a short head Time—
2 mins 59 secs

Wellesley Plate. Distance (about) 11 miles—
The Maharaja of Kashmir's Fongachev
(9st 7lbs), A C. Walker
The Maharaja of Kashmir's Camping (7st
10lbs), Bartman
Erino Aly Khan and Mr S Askur's
(7st) Kavra (9st 7lbs), Scanlan
Sir David Ezra's Spenser (8st 7lbs),
I Subbitt
Won by 1 length, 11 lengths, a head.
Time—2 mins 13 3-5 secs

Cornwallis Plate. Distance (about) 6 furlongs—
Capt Crawford's Varnos (8st 19lbs),
A C Walker
Messrs Ardesht and Bolton's Argo's Her
(8st 4lbs), Morton
The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whoopee
(7st 4lbs, cd. 7st 6 lbs), Raffaele
Sir David Ezra's Rasale (7st 4lbs, cd
7st 6lbs), Carr
Won by 1 length, 11 lengths, 11 lengths
Time—1 min 14 4-5 secs

December Hurdle Plate Distance (about)
2 miles—
Mr. A. Higgins's Carey Dennis (1st 7lbs),
Gleason
Mr G D Booth's French Phil (1st 10lbs),
Cullen
Bascall Monk (10st 9lbs), Toll.
Won by 1 length Time—3 mins 41 1-5

1	Mr Osborne Smith's Helolot (8st 6lbs.), Mortis	1	Mr A H C Rostron's Glissade (9st 3 lbs.), Flynn	4	Won by short head, 1½ lengths, Time— 1 min 15 secs.	September Hurdle Race Distance (about) 1½ miles—	May-Gen H. K Bethell's Puencto (1st 1lb), Baker	1	Mr R Russell Stewart's Lucky Black (1st 10lb), Riley	2	Messrs Rodger and Bhatter's Alfa Romeo (10st 12lb), Ferner	3	Mr P C Barua's Tom Fair (11st 7lbs), Cullen	4	Won by 4 lengths, ½ length, 1½ lengths Time—3 mins 2½ secs	August Cup (Div I) Distance (about) 1 mile, 3 furlongs—	1	Mrs H M Thaddeus's Beautiful Shot (8st), Bond	2	Sir R N Moore and Mr Martin's Crystal Legacy (8st 13lb), Edwards	2	Mr C A Murad's Willow Grove (9st), Wallace	3	Mr A Alasker's Dom Henry (9st 3lbs), M O'Neale	4	Won by 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths, a head Time—2 mins 28 3-5 secs	August Cup (Div II) Distance (about) 1 mile, 3 furlongs—	1	Mrs A Alansess's Little Mary (8st 9lbs), Edwards	1	Sir Darcy Lindsay's Sole Heures (9st, 7lbs), Flynn	2	May W M Newill's Hollywood Star (7st 18lb), R Black	3	Mr T Williamson's Nayan (7st 11lb), (cd 7st 12lb), M O'Neale	4	Won by 1½ lengths, 1 length, a head Time—2 mins 27 3-5 secs	Grand Annual Distance about 2 miles—	1	Mr C P Sherston's Tetrarmate (10st 9lbs), Owner	1	Mr A K Bowie's Rascal Alonk (9st 12lb), Mortis	2	Mr C D Booth's French Phil (10st 13lb), Cullen	3	Mr A Higgins's Hummon (9st 7lbs), Glenour	4	Won by a length, 6 lengths between second and third Time—3 mins 36 1-5 secs.	1	Mr J M Jude's Ukraine (8st 2lbs), Cullen	2	H H the Maharaja of Kashmir's Heyday (9st 4lbs), A O Walker	3	Mr A H C Rostron's Glissade (9st 3 lbs.), Flynn	4	Won by a neck, 2 lengths, 1½ lengths Time—1 min 18 4-5 secs	Victory's Cup Distance 1½ miles— Mr A C Ardeshir's Ethica (9st 3lbs), Mortis	1	H B the Viceroy's Complet (9st 3lbs), Carlake	2	Maharaja of Kashmir's Pougatchev (9st 3lbs), Walker	3	Messrs Ardeshir and Bolton's Argos's Hair (8st 13lb), Mortis	3	Sir David Kera's Rascie (7st 4lb), Howard	4	Won by neck, 2 lengths, 1½ lengths Time—1 min 18 4-5 secs	Victory's Cup Distance 1½ miles— Mr A C Ardeshir's Ethica (9st 3lbs), Mortis	1	H B the Viceroy's Complet (9st 3lbs), Carlake	2	Maharaja of Kashmir's Pougatchev (9st 3lbs), Walker	3	Messrs Ardeshir's and Bolton's Castleton (9st), Scanlan	4	Won by neck, 2 lengths, 1½ lengths Time—1 min 18 4-5 secs	Curzon Plate Distance about 7 furlongs— Mr H H Burns's Dman (7st 11lb), W Sibbritt	1	It-Coi A de O'Neale's Telamark (7st 7lb), M O'Neale	2	Major J J Hilliard's Southern Boy (7st, 9lb), Howard	3	Messrs Ghosh and Barbara Tall's Tohunga (9st 4lb), C Hoyt	4	Won by neck 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths Time— 1 min 27 1-5 secs	Romaldshay Cup—Distance (about) 6 furlongs Mr A Higgins Dinos (8st 7lb), Mortis	1	Mr A Higgins Tel-Azur (9st 7lb), Scanlan	2	Sir David Kera Rasee (9st), W Sibbritt	3	The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whoopoe (9st, 7lb), Rattelle	4	Won by 1 length, 2 lengths, 2 lengths Time—1 min 18 4-5 secs	Governor's Cup—Distance (about) 1½ miles— Mr J C Sen Birthday Book (9st 7lb), Mortis	1	Mr Alex An Apery Jr Winalittle (9st 5lb), Bond	2	Mr C M Stewart's Golden Carp (7st 12lb), W Sibbritt	3	Mr A H C Rostron's Karma (7st 7lb), Flynn	4	Won by a neck 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths Time—3 mins	1013
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Prince of Wales Plate—Distance (about) 1 mile	Messrs B K and H P Poddar Riker (9st 2st), Jones	1
	Mr A H C Roston Glassade (7st 11lbs), Carr	2
	Mrs G Anthony Farnade (7st 9lbs), W Subbrit	3
	Sir Osborne Smith Heloflot (8st 6lbs), Morris	4
Won by 2½ lengths, ¾ length, short head	Time—1 min 40 1/5 secs	
Carmichael Cup—Distance (about) 1½ miles	Mr J. C Ben Birthday Book (8st. 10lbs.), Murand	1
	Mr Edward Esmond Necker (7st 18lbs), W Subbrit	2
	Mr A C Ardesbur Ethues (9st 10lbs), Morris	3
Won by 4 lengths, a neck, 2½ lengths	Time 2 minutes, 6 4/5 seconds	
Beresford Cup—Distance (about) 1½ miles	Messrs Bagee and Gubbay Stragesstruck (9st 4lbs), Scanlan	1
	Mrs G Anthony Girdle (8st 8lbs), A Subbrit	2
	Sir R N Mookjee and Mr T. Martin (1st 12lbs), Baker	3
	Mr B N Sharma Polish Pride (7st 12lbs), M O Neale	4
Won by ¾ length a head, a head	Time 3 minutes, 5 seconds	
Monsoon Cup Distance (about) 1 mile,	3 furlongs—	
	Mr Pannack's Silvadare (8st 11lbs), Edwards	1
	Messrs D J Gubbay and Bagree's Stage-struck (9st 1lb), Berner	2
	It Col Elliott and Mr Tindall's Warrego (9st 8lbs), Rylands	3
	Mr Uday P. Singie's Cranston (8st), Bhatou	4
Won by 1 length, 1 length, 1½ lengths	Time—2 mins 25 1/5 secs	
The Metropolitan Distance about 6 furlongs—	Messrs Bolton and McElligott's Tolerate (8st), Morris	1
	Mr Edward Esmond's Chourose (8st 8lb), W Subbrit	2
	Mr G E Nabapiet's Rammiles (7st 7lbs), Howard	3
	Mr C Hoyt	4
Won by length, 2½ lengths, half length	Time—1 min 13 1/2 secs	
Each Bihar Cup Distance about 1 mile,	3 furlongs—	
	Mr Alex J. Apear Jr's Wimalittle (8st 1lb), Bond	1
	Mr V H MacCar's Irish Times (8st 1lb), (Turrie)	2

New Year Plate Distance about 1 mile—
 Messrs B K H P and B P Poddar's
 Saskatoon (8st 8lbs), Jones
 Mr A Higgins's Dinos (9st 3lbs), Morris.
 Mr A H C Rostrom's Glissade (8st 2lbs).
 H E the Viceroy's Card Sharper (8st 7 lbs).
 Walker
 Won by half length, $\frac{1}{2}$ length, $\frac{3}{4}$ length
 Time—1 min 40 $\frac{4}{5}$ secs
 Alapherson Cup—Distance (about) 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles—
 Messrs B K and H P Poddar Riler (9st
 10lbs), Jones
 Mr C M Stewart Golden Carp (7st 11lbs),
 Baker
 Mrs G Anthony Kanade (7st 3lbs and
 7st 6lbs), W Sibbritt.
 Mrs A H C Rostrom Kama (7st 4lb-
 and 7st 6lbs), Carr.
 Won by 2 lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ length, 3 lengths Time
 2 mins 37 1-5 secs
 Jockey Cup Distance (about) 1 mile—
 Mr A Hoyt's Private Seal (9st 2lbs)
 - O Hoyt
 Messrs Rogers, Reynolds and Larrie's
 Goodah (7st 13lbs), Howard
 Messrs B K and H P Poddar's Riler
 (7st 6lbs), Halland
 Sir David Ezars's Spenser (7st 10lbs).
 W Sibbritt
 Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length, 2 lengths, a short head
 1 min 40 1-5 secs
 Merchants' Cup Distance (about) 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles—
 Mrs Alex A Aprat's Jr, Wm Little (0st 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
 Bond.
 Mrs C M Stewart's Golden Carp (8st-
 13lbs), W Sibbritt
 Mrs A H C Rostrom's Kama (8st 6lb-
 7 and 8 lb)
 Elynn
 The Maharaja of Kasimur's Billviah
 (9st 4lbs), Walker.
 Won by 2 lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ length, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths
 Time—2 mins 48 $\frac{4}{5}$ secs
 Burdwan Cup Distance (about) 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ mile—
 Mr A Higgins's Carey Dinos (10st 10lb-
 11),
 Mr C P Sherton's Tetramarie (10st 11lb-
 12),
 Owner
 The Maharaja of Kollhapur's Anant (11st-
 12 lbs), Regan
 The Maharaja of Kasimur's J C Cowan and
 (10st 4lbs), Lister
 Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, 3 lengths, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ length
 Time—3 mins 21 $\frac{4}{5}$ secs

Mr W L Fousaka's Khazal Beg (7st 11lbs),
White
Mr Alowind Haji Ali's Rayik (9st 3lbs),
Warren
Won by 2 lengths, 1 1/2 lengths Time—
1 min 25 3-5 secs
Horn Club Cup Distance 1 mile—
Capt F Kenwick's Dickdeadeye (9st 10lbs),
Folken
Mr A E de Silva's Silent Man (11st 10lbs),
Capt Barnes
Mr A C Abdeen's Red Knight (10st 13lbs),
Calington
Messrs M K Malik's and S D Singh's
Harnd (11st 8lbs), Muthukumaraswamy
Won by short head Time—1 min and 45
1-5 secs
Robert's Cup Distance 1 mile—
Messrs Bert and Brookes's Shali (7st 3lbs),
H Black
Mrs A Selvaratnam's Manushad (7st 10lbs),
Roberts
Capt Kenwick's Sea King (9st 8lbs),
Davson
Won by a head, 1/2 length Time—1 min
52 2-5 secs
Bandaranaike Cup Distance 5 furlongs,
23 yards—
Mrs Corrie's Alceover (7st 2lbs), Baker
Davson
Capt E Kenwick's Talant (7st 9lbs),
Davson
Mr Alf de Soyars's Zeebar (9st 8lbs),
Alaris
Mr H Tamm's Labjar (7st 6lbs),
Rosen
Won by 1/2 length, a neck Time—1 min
8 3-5 secs
Colombo Cup Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs—
Mr Douglas's Kornloff (9st), Ward
Mr Basulian's Gallant Knight (9st 12lbs)
Davson
Mr A B de Silva's Mountain Spy (9st),
Burgess
Mrs G N G Waller's Segestature (7st 1lb)
Rankin
Won by 1/2 length, a neck Time—2 mins
2 2-5 secs
Galle Cup Distance 1 1/2 miles—
Mr Rellowes's Sorcerer (9st), Burn
Mr M G Subbiah's Kudos (9st 11lbs),
Spackman
Major R J S Turner's Invino (9st), J
Kosen
Capt Kenwick's Forfeit (9st, 9lbs), Davison
Won by 3 lengths, 7 lengths Time—2

King Kumpoor's Cup Distance (about)
1 mile—
Mr A C Ardeslir's Ethios (9st, 3lbs),
Morris
Mr A Higgins's Tel Asni (9st 3lbs),
Raffaele
The Maharaja of Kashmir's Pougachev
(9st 3lbs), A C Walker
Mr A Hoyt's Play On (9st 3lbs), M
Hoyt
Won by 1/2 length, 1 1/2 lengths, 1 1/2 lengths
Time—1 min 41 secs
Harrington Hurdle Plate Distance (about)
2 miles—
Messrs Poddar and Somany's Old Time
(9st 13lbs), Baker
Mrs V H Bennick's Derrargan (10st
7lbs), Hardcastle
Mr C P Sherson's Tetramarte (12st
7lbs), Kungstead
Mr R M Sassoon's Kapiga (10st 11lbs),
Ermer
Won by 3 lengths, 6 lengths, 3 1/2 lengths
Time—3 mins 37 3-5 secs
Annary Hurdle Plate Distance 1 1/2 miles—
J O'Hare Murray and C B Farrar Boy
(9st), Howard
A Higgins Carey Dennis (12st 6lbs), Gle-
non
C P Sherson Tetramarte (11st 8lbs),
Owen
R K Bowie Rascal Monk (10st), Marland
Won by 30 lengths
Time 3 mins 20 2-5 secs
Imperial Cup Distance about 1 1/2 miles—
Mrs G Anthony's Gurdie (9st 8lbs),
Batham
Mrs Alex A Apear Jr's Philias (7st 11lbs),
cd (9st 1lb), Bond
Mr Victor's Aligabdo (7st 7lbs), cd
(7st 12lbs), Dhole
Mr H M Thaddeus's Holygrail (9st 2lbs),
cd (9st 4lbs), Jones
Won by a head, 1/2 length, a head Time—
6 mins 5 secs
Dominions Cup Distance about 1 1/2 miles—
Mr J Thompson's Duncan Stewart (7st
9lbs), Bartlam
Mr W Hayhoe's Battling Boy (9st 1lb),
Southey
Mrs A H O Roeston's Winter Gaiety
(9st 3lbs), Flynn
Mr A M and Mr R M Sassoon's Royal
Salmon (9st 9lbs), Ermer
Won by 2 lengths, 1/2 lengths and 1/2 length
Time—2 mins 8 3-5 secs
Colombo.

Aden Handicap Distance 6 furlongs—
Mr Abu's Bahood (9st 10lbs), Kingston
Mr S A Ghaffar's Bussad (9st 9lbs),
Black

Shri Yuvraj of Dewas Cup Distance 5 furlongs — Akbar Sahab Maharaja's Irish Night (7st 7lbs), Whiteside Mr M C Patel's Carn (8st 11lbs), Race Mr B S Roddrey's Clairette (7st 12lbs), Meebings Mr G Meebings's Bismarck II (8st 9lbs), Dall Aequa Won by 1 length, 1 length, 1 length Time— Time 3 secs	Woodward Plate Distance (about) 1½ miles — Mr S C Woodward's Mudool (8st 7lbs) Balfour Mr N M Mubarak's Abhoor (8st, 11lbs), Lesson Mr R P Sukla's Aman (10st 8lbs), Purtoosingh Mr Abdul Wahid's Unwan (7st), Ghastia Won by short head, 3 lengths, 2 lengths Time—2 mins 58 2-5 secs	New Year Chase Distance (about) 2 miles — Capt P F Hilliard's Just Cause (12st), Owner Mr C E D Cooper's Bloomsbury Square (11st 7lbs), Capt L M H Benn Major C M Stewart's Her Last (12st), Mr R L Gaudell Mr I C Teley's Donoro (12st 7lbs), 4 Won by 2 lengths, 2 lengths, 2½ lengths Time—1 min 7 3-5 secs	Gold Cup (Div I) Distance (about) 7 furlongs — Major D Vanden's Her Ladyship (9st 11lb), R R Brooks Mr Raza Mohd Khan's Merry Pass (9st), Balfour Messrs Raja Mohan Alancha and Kashi Charan's Troubadour (8st 11lbs), J J Wallace Mr K R Mebra's Bhutnath (8st 8lbs), R Black Won by 1½ lengths, 1 length, neck Time— Time 20 2-5 secs	Punjab Commission Cup (Div I) Distance (about) 7 furlongs — Mr R G Sauter's Last Post (8st, 11lbs), R R Brooks Mr R Zozoli's Alma Romeo (9st 8lbs), Balfour Mrs J Thompson's A La Violette (8st 10lbs), R Black Mr Kashi Charan's Alan Boy (9st 6lbs), J J Wallace Won by ½ length, 1½ lengths, 2 lengths Time—1 min 28 2-5 secs	Punjab Hurdles Distance about 2 miles.— Major O K Day's Offence (10st 7lbs), Mr J L Dalzell Major George Barnett and Capt R K Garrow's Balakava (11st), car (11st 11lb), Bunnetta Mrs G Dingley Mathew's Le Maire (10st 9lbs), Mr Baine Mr G H D Ritpatrick's Antaeus (11st), Owner Won by 1 length, 3 lengths, 12 lengths. Time.—3 mins 51 secs	O & M Cup Distance about 1 mile, 1 furlong — Mr R B Scully's Branhope (9st, 8lbs car 9st 18lbs) Mr R C Hubbert Capt L M H Benn's Hollywood Star (11st 13lbs) Owner Major J F Oline's Lochena (10st 2lbs), R L Gore Major R J Fulton's Curragh Rose (11st 2lbs), Capt A M Bernard Won by length, length, length Time— 2 mins 4-5 secs	Governor's Cup Distance about 1½ miles — Messrs Raja Mohan Alancha's and Kashi Charan's Philoe (7st), J J Wallace Capt J M W Martin's and Mr C P Sheston's Snow Boat (7st 12lbs), R Black Mr D B Shaw's Little Welsh (7st 18lbs), R Roxburgh Mr Raza Mohd Khan's Merry Pass (8st 9lbs), Balfour Won by 2 lengths, half length, 4 lengths Time—2 mins 9 4-5 secs	Merchant's Cup Distance about 5 furlongs — Raja Bahdur of Kattari's Dhura (8st 12lbs), R Black Mr Ranga Bahadur's Sweet Riasmeant (8st 9lbs), R Roxburgh Mr S C Woodward's Arch Lady (9st 12lbs), Ashwood Mr G Dingley Mathew's Little White Lass (7st 2lbs), J Donnelly Won by 4 lengths, short head, short head. Time—1 min 28 2-5 secs
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1	Mr. S. Khamana's Catinka (7st), Christie	1	Mr. Hazza Mohd Khan's Merry Pass (9st 12lbs), Bahour	2	Mr. G. Dudley Mathew's Little White Lass (9st, 9lbs), Cape Bernard	3	Messrs Kachicharan and Rajamohan Manucha's Philcoo (8st 10lbs), Raffale	4	Won by 1 length, neck, 1 length Time—1 min 2-5secs	5	Relangirbad Cup Distance 7 furlongs—	1	Capt T G Atherton's Minstrel Boy (8st 4lbs), Christie	1	Mr. C P Sherston and Capt J W Martin's Show Boat (8st 12lbs), Head	2	Messrs E Dudley Mathew's Nelson (7st), Bona	3	Mr. Cashl Curran and Raja Mohan Khan's Philcoo (8st 9lbs), Raffale	4	Won by 1 length, dead heat, head Time—1 min 31secs	5	Governor's Cup Distance 5 furlongs—	1	Mr. J O'Hara Murray and Major C B Murray's Boy (6-10lbs) Ghazala	2	Mr. Kaschi Charan's Alani Boy (7st 2lbs), Wallace	3	Mr. J M Judah's Ukraine (8st 6lbs), Southey	4	Mr. R G Soule's Last Post (7st), car (7st 4lbs), Bartlam	5	Won by 2 lengths, length, 1 length Time—1 min 1-2-5secs	1	Major C K Davy's Offence (10st 10lbs), car (10st 12lbs), Capt Moseley	2	Mrs R H Rennie's Derry Argan (10st 10lbs), Alford	3	Capt L M H Benn's Holly Wood Stag (10st 4lbs), Owen	4	Mr G W B Fitzpatrick's Antaeus (10st 11lbs), Barne	5	Won by 1 length, length, 1 lengths Time—3 min 31secs	1	Madras.	1	Mr. Charles' Francis (7st, 9lbs), Taylor	2	Mr. Vivanath Chanticleer (8st 7lbs), Hill	3	Mrs Wallace Savoy's (8st 2 lbs), Gethin	4	The Earl of Shinnon's Otesonnie (7st 4lbs car 7st 6lbs), Little	5	Won by 1 length, 1 length, a neck Time—1 min 19 1-5secs	1	Hayes Sir Ismail Salt Memorial Plate Distance 1 mile	2	Mr Chabildas' Nassat (8st 11 lbs), Hook	3	Messrs Rumpand and Jamad Mohammed's English Star (8st 6lbs), Hill	4	Mr Lookmanji's Alinarab (8st 2lbs), Wright	5	Mr Chabildas' Zari (8st 13lbs), S Black	6	Won by 1 length, 1 length, a neck Time—1 min 57secs		
1	Mr. Somasundaram's Fors Abbey (7st 10lbs), Forsyth	2	Mr. Somasundaram's Fors Abbey (7st 18lbs), Pinkstone	3	Devan Bahadur Murgappa Chettiar's Irish Star (7st 8lbs), Roberts	4	Mr. Mohamed Oomer's Golden Kew (8st 9lbs) Thompson	5	Won by 1 length, 1 1/2 lengths, 1/2 length Time 2 mts 9 3/5 seconds	1	The Mysore Cup—Distance 1 mile	2	Major Vimalakar's Prince Shivali, (9st 3lbs), Forsyth	3	Mr. Lalvan's Telford (7st 6lbs), B McQuade	4	Mrs Clarke's Kanelui (8st 11b), Taylor	5	Sir Annamalai Chettiar's Brutus (9st 4lbs), Meekeings	6	Won by 1 1/2 lengths, 1/2 length, 2 lengths Time 1 min 45 1/5 seconds	1	Venkatragiri Cup—Distance 6 furlongs	2	Messrs Wahab and Hamad Mohammed's Na-hoot (8st, 2lbs), Hook	3	Mr Sion of Nassau's Copper King II 7-4 car (7st 4lbs Meekeings	4	The Almarah of Kolhapur's Alaharuni (80 car 8st 2lbs), Forsyth	5	Mr Ahmed's Schidia (8st 11bs), Wright	6	Won by a neck, a short head, 1 length Time 1 min 22 4/5 seconds	1	Karimnudi Cup—Distance 6 furlongs	2	The Maharaja of Mysore's Rontop (7st 11bs), S Black	3	Mr. Wallies Gundaigur (8st, 6lbs), B Rosen	4	Mr Wallace's Arnan Comrade (7-9 car) 7st, 11lbs) Taylor	5	Mr Wallies' Molya (8st 6lbs), Aldridge	6	Won by a neck, 1 1/2 lengths, 1 length Time 1 min 15 2 5 seconds	1	Trades Cup—Distance 1 1/2 miles	2	Messrs Marland Jones, Nugent Grant and W C Jones' Alehot (8st 11b), Hook	3	Mr Somasundaram's Fors Abbey (9st 4lbs), Gethin	4	The Raja of Bobbili Rec (9st), Forsyth	5	Mr Laming's Star of the South (7st 11b), Aldridge	6	Won by 1/2 length, 2 lengths, 1/2 length Time 2 mts 9 3/5 seconds	1	Nizar's Cup—Distance 1 mile	2	Mr. Somasundaram's Fors Abbey (7st 12lbs), Pinkstone	3	The Maharaja of Mysore's Maya (9st 11b), S Black	4	Mr Wallace's Arnan Comrade (7st 7lbs), B McQuade	5	The Maharani of Venkatragiri's Frosty Bill (8-7 car 7st (10lbs), Gethin	6	Won by 1 length, 1/2 length, a head Time—1 min 41-5secs

4	Major Mansingh of Jawsantgarh's Shampur (8st 10lbs), Northmore ..	Won by 3 length, 2 length, short head	Time—1 min 44.5 secs	
1	The Western India Stakes Distance 1½ miles —			
1	Mr P B Aysan's Garcon (7st 9lbs), Stead			
2	Mr J Crawford's Varnos (8st 7lb), Walker			
3	Mr J Crawford's Private Seal (8st 7lbs), C Hoyt			
4	Mrs J E Malone's Bray Beau (8st 4lbs), Thompson			
	Won by 2 lengths, 6 lengths, 4 lengths		Time—2 mins 10.5 secs	
1	H H The First Aga Khan's Commemoration Plate Distance 1½ miles —			
1	Mr Yusuf Taha's Karam Allah (8st 4lbs), Obaid			
2	Mr Ayub Asad's Legion of Honour (7st 4lbs), Whitehead			
3	Mr D D Chawan's Baharnoor (7st 4lbs), Samdan			
4	H H the Maharaja of Idar's Amur Akhlek (7st 11lbs), Stead			
	Won by 2 lengths, 4 lengths, 1 length		Time—2 mins 24 secs	
1	The Cretion Distance 7 furlongs			
1	Mr P B Avasan's Dr Strabismus (8st 2lbs), Selby			
2	Mr O Kandali's Lady Brendan (8st 2lbs), Little			
3	Mr Kelso's Aurangzeb (7st 11lbs), Alarabie			
4	Messrs A C Ardesbur's and P D Bolton's Castleon (8st 2lbs), Raffale			
	Won by 1½ lengths, 1 length, short head		Time—1 min 28 secs	
1	The Ganeshkhand Plate Distance 6 furlongs —			
1	Mr A Higgins's Tel Asur (8st 2lbs), Raffale			
2	Mr A Hoyt's Private Seal (8st 5lbs), Al Hoyt			
3	Mr A C Ardesbur's Ethics (8st 7lbs), Evans			
4	Mr J Crawford's Varnos (8st 5lbs), Walker			
	Won by short head ½ length, 2½ lengths		Time—1 min 12.5 secs	
1	The Dealers' New Plate. Distance 1½ miles —			
1	Mr K Ardesbur's Abdul Malik (8st), Dillon			
2	H H the Maharaja of Rajpura's Madhu (8st), Selby			
3	Mr Ali Haji Hassoun's Nickel (8st 3lbs), A Clarke			
4	Mr D D Chawan's Baharnoor (8st), Samdan			
	Won by 1½ lengths, 4 lengths, neck		Time—2 mins 24.5 secs	

1	The Governor's Cup Distance R C and distance —			
1	Mr A R Taha's Bushboos (7st 9lbs), W McCarty			
2	H H Maharaja of Kolhapur's Jai Bhawan II (7st 13lbs, cd 8st), Forsyth			
3	Mr Javala bin Talib's Zoran (7st 11lbs), Harding			
4	Mr A C Ardesbur's Sarsam (7st 13lbs), Bruce			
	Won by head, 2 lengths, 2 lengths, Time—3 min 5.2.5 secs			
1	The Aga Shamsuddin Plate Distance 6 furlongs —			
1	Mr J Crawford's Varnos (8st 7lbs), Walker			
2	Mr A Hoyt's Private Seal (8st 11lbs), C Hoyt			
3	Mr Eve's Heritage (8st 2lbs, cd 7st)			
4	H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whoopee (7st 4 lbs), Bhimrao			
	Won by 2½ lengths, 3 lengths, 3 lengths		Time—1 min 13.2.5 secs	
1	The St Ledger Plate Distance R C and distance —			
1	Mr A Higgins' Alenist (7st 2lbs), J O'Neale			
2	Mr P B Avasan's Sabirno (7st 6lb) Stead			
3	Mr C Temooji's Sky Hawk (6st 12lbs), Graham			
4	Mrs T Alusry's Bucentaur (8st 5lbs), Obaid			
	Won by neck, short head, neck		Time—2 mins 49.2.5 secs	
1	The Indian Breeders Stakes Distance 1½ miles —			
1	H H the Maharaja of Kashmir's Truro (8st 5lbs) Al Hoyt			
2	Mr Eve's Knight at Arms (8st 1lb), Bruce			
3	H H the Maharaja of Kashmir's Honey-suckle (8st 5lbs), B McQuade			
4	H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Rose-water (8st 13st), Obaid			
	Won by ¾ length, 3 lengths, 2 lengths		Time—2 mins 17.1.5 secs	
1	The Trial Plate Distance 1 mile —			
1	Mr A C Ardesbur's Ethics (8st 2lbs), Walker			
2	H H the Maharaja of Rajpura's Wall Street (8st 7lbs), Selby			
3	Mr Shantidas Askan's Taj Kasra (8st 2lbs), Raffale			
4	Messrs S C Ghosh and Darbart Lal's Tuhung (8st 7lbs), Obaid			
	Won by head, 1½ lengths, 2 lengths		Time—1 min 41.5 secs	
1	The Vickers' Plate Distance 1 mile —			
1	Mr Genu's Achive (7st), H Bell			
2	H H the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Heyday (8st 1lb), Dillon			
3	Mr Kelso's Mloti Koh (8st), Marriable			

Pakhrumuk Cup (Div II) Distance 5 furlongs —
 Mr. Bryant, Rustum's Junior Sallia
 Khanum (8st 4lbs), Dilou
 Mr. Kerling's Salma (7st 13lbs), McQuande
 Mr. Sayd Mohamad's Ann Bog (8st 8lbs),
 Subeyra
 Mr. G. N. Musry's Tar Sand (8st. 13lbs),
 Stead
 Won by 1 1/2 lengths, 1 length, 1 length
 Time — 1 min 9 sec
 Pakhrumuk Cup (Div I) Distance 5 fur-
 longs —
 Mr. R. Frandoon's Packard (8st 12lbs),
 Jones

Mr A K B Hagiyaan Caprol (bat 4 lbs),
Hill
Mr Aziz Mohamed Khali (bat 6 lbs),
Obad
Mr H N Oswald's Colombo (bat 13 lbs),
Jabbur
Won by 2 lengths, 1 length, 1 length,
Time—1 min 9 1-5 secs

Mr Klaya Peralad Cup Distance 6 furlongs—
Mr P R Kering's Insat (bat 4 lbs),
Jabbur
Mr Shanila's Master (bat), Jones
Mr Hussaini Gazari's Ginger (bat 7 lbs),
J. McCarty
Mrs McKenzie's Desert Queen (bat),
W McCarty
Won by 2 lengths, 1 length, 1 length,
Time—1 min 2 1-5 secs

Mohundowla Cup Distance 6 furlongs—
Mr H Faidoon's Tea Dance (bat 6 lbs),
Dowley
Earl of Shannon's Ctesonnie (bat), Evans
Messrs Rozario and Byrnam's Rustom's
Crusor (bat, 4 lbs), Dillon
Mr U G Rangilla's Magnozie (bat 10 lbs),
Obad
Won by 1 length, 1 length and short head
Time—1 min, 17 secs

Mill Port Cup Distance 1 mile.—
Mr Syed bin Omer's Monoy Order (bat
6 lbs), Dillon
Messrs Sorobkhan and Khodabux's Islan
(bat 2 lbs), Jabbur
Nawabzada Fakr-ul-Mulk's Hamdoon (bat
7 lbs), Stead
Mr Begmohamed's Bill Agil (bat 4 lbs),
Harding
Won by 2 lengths, 1 length and 1 length
Time—1 min 53 2-5 secs

Shahyar Jung Memorial Cup Distance 5 fur-
longs.—
Mr John York's Sly Abbot (bat 13 lbs),
Dillon
Nawab Alhadi Jung's Galavalo (bat 6 lbs),
Obad
Mr Fazel's Love Parade (bat 7 lbs), J
McCarty
Mr Fulteen's Chapel (bat 12 lbs), W
McCarty
Won by 1 1/2 lengths, 2 1/2 lengths, 2 1/2 lengths
Time—1 min 1-5 secs

Hour Apparent's Cup Distance 10 furlongs—
Mr. Lookman's Alherab (bat 6 lbs), Obad
Mrs Maclean's Desert Queen (bat 3 lbs),
McCarty
Nawabzada Fakr-ul-Mulk's Jahan Ara (bat
4 lbs) Dillon
The Maharaja of Mysore's Torpedo (bat
7 lbs), J McCarty
Won by a short head, a neck, 1 length
Time—2 mins 18 secs

CRICKET.

Doncaster Plate Distance 1 mile —
 Mrs. Mlones's Meridian (9st), Stead
 1 3/4 Ml Ml Chettiar's Land of Hope (8st 11lbs), Evans
 Nawab Alahdi Jung's Magic Runner (9st 3lbs), Obad
 Nawab Alahdi Jung's Silver Fir (9st 4lbs), Clark
 Won by a short head, 1 length, a short head
 Time—1 min 42 1/2 secs

Nizam Cup Distance 10 furlongs —
 Alahdi Jung's Javanangir's Shapur (9st 12lbs), Stead
 Mr. A. Ml Ml Chettiar's Irish Star (7st 12lbs), Evans
 Mr. (Jen's) Leckwith (7st 10lbs), W
 Mr. C. R. J. (7st 10lbs), W
 Nawab Alahdi Jung's Galvark (8st 4lbs), Obad
 Won by 1 length, 1 length, a short head
 Time—2 mins 3 1/2 secs

Ahmedabad

Championship of India —
 Bombay beat Gujarat on the first innings
 Bombay 231 and 300 for 7
 Gujarat 106 and 166 for 4

Amritsar

Championship of India Northern India beat Central India by 4 wickets Central India 192 and 195, Northern India 145 and 213
 for 6
 Championship of India —
 Northern India beat Southern Punjab by 61 runs
 Northern India 142 and 106
 Southern Punjab 135 and 22

Bombay

Bombay Quadrangular, (Final)—
 Muslims beat Hindus by 91 runs

Scores —
 Muslims, 209 and 198
 Hindus, 189 and 127
 Hindus beat Europeans by an innings and 82 runs

Scores —
 Hindus, 290
 Europeans, 121 and 146
 Muslims beat Parsis by an innings and 1 run

Scores —
 Muslims, 334
 Parsis 101 and 232
 Championship of India —
 Bombay beat Western India States by 146 runs
 Bombay 377 and 164 W I States 154 and 241

Championship of India final—
 Bombay beat Northern India by 208 runs
 Bombay 266 and 300
 Northern India 219 and 139
 Purshotam Hindu Championship Shield
 Orient Cricketers 228 and 340
 Bombay Cricketers 289 and 391.

Delhi

Festival Match—
 Cricket Club of India beat Bombay by 100 runs
 Bombay 105 and 205
 Cricket Club of India 449.

Karachi

Sind Puntangular—
 Hindus beat Muslims on first innings
 Scores —
 Muslims, 184 and 216
 Hindus, 233 and 85 for 3
 Inter-Provincial Championship—
 Northern India beat Sind by 30 runs
 Scores —Northern India, (1st Innings), 146
 Northern India, (2nd Innings), 153, Sind
 (1st Innings), 114, Sind (2nd Innings) 155

Championship of India—
 Western India States beat Sind by 4 wickets
 Scores —
 Sind 125 and 210, Western India States, 219 and 118 for 6

Lahore

Championship of India—
 Northern India beat Army by an innings and 52 runs
 Scores —
 Army in India, 208 and 204
 Northern India, 459 for 7 declared

Nagpur

Championship of India —
 Central India beat Central Provinces by 10 wickets
 Scores —Central Provinces, 155 and 194
 Central India, 237 and 79 for 0
 C P and Berar Quadrangular—
 Hindus beat Parsis by 10 runs.
 Scores —Hindus, 184 and 116, Parsis, 155 and 134

C P Quadrangular—
 Parsis beat Muslims by 184 runs
 Scores —Parsis, 186 and 212, Muslims, 83 and 131.

Secunderabad.

Moynud-Dowah Gold Cup —

Retriever beat Freebooters by 3 wickets

Scores —

Freebooters 125 and 238

Retriever 181 and 180 for 7.

Championship of India —

Hyderabad beat Madras

Hyderabad 256 and 227

Madras 301 and 169

TENNIS.

Allahabad.

All-India Championships — Men's Doubles (Final) Kukuljivie and Schaffor beat Brooke Edwards and Krishnaswamy 6-3, 7-5, 3-6, 2-6, 7-5 Mixed Doubles (Final) Krishnaswamy and Miss Sandison beat Sawhney and Miss Stebbing 4-6, 7-5, 6-2 Women's Doubles (Final) Miss Sandison and Miss Harvey Johnstone beat Mrs Furrot and Miss Woodcock 6-4, 6-0 Men's Singles (Final) Palsada beat Punnec 4-6, 7-5, 6-3, 6-2. Markers' Event (Final) Ram Sowak beat Mohmedays 3-6, 0-1, 0-1, 6-0 Women's Singles (Final) Miss Sandison beat Miss Parrot 6-2, 0-3

Bandra.

Bandra Championships — Men's Doubles Final — Tew and Pitt beat Charjivie and Rambar Singh, 2-6, 0-2, 0-3 Mixed Doubles Final — Wagle and Miss L. Row beat Pitt and Mrs Bell, 7-5, 6-2 Men's Singles Final — Charanjivie beat Rambar Singh, 7-5, 0-4, 6-0 Women's Singles Final — Miss L. Row beat Mrs Vakil, 0-0, 6-0 Women's Doubles Final — Mrs Row and Miss Row beat Mrs Johnstone and Mrs Snow, 0-0, 6-2

Bombay.

Hard Court Championships — Women's Doubles — Final — Miss Iecia Row and Mrs. K. Row beat Mrs H B Clayton and Miss T. V. Bell 6-1, 0-0 Men's Singles — Final — L. V. Bobb beat Mrs. A. V. V. 6-3, 6-1 Mixed Doubles — Final — Miss Iecia Row and Mrs. V. Bobb beat Mrs Bell and J. L. Row, 6-3, 0-1.

Men's Singles — Final — Saijoo Prasad beat Kachimou, 6-3, 4-6, 8-6 Men's Doubles — Final — E. V. Bobb and A. C. Pateira beat Krishna Prasad beat J. Charanjivie and C. Bousus, 6-2, 0-3 J. Brugnion and C. Bousus beat J. E. Tew and A. M. D. Pitt, 6-3, 0-3, C. Bousus beat E. V. Bobb, 6-0 Pat Hughes vs Adam, 6-2, 6-7. Hughes and Miss Lytle vs A. M. D. Pitt and Miss Leela Row beat Miss Nancy Lytle, 6-3, 6-0 First Gymkhana Tournament — Men's Singles — Final — E. V. Bobb beat L. Men's Doubles — Final — Mrs. K. Row and Mrs. Leela Row beat Mrs. Charanjivie and Mrs. G. G. 6-2, 0-2 Women's Singles — Final — Miss Iecia Row beat Mrs S. M. Captan 6-0, 6-0 X Y C A Open Tourney — Men's Singles — (Final) — J. Charanjivie beat L. V. Bobb, 6-3, 6-0, 0-1 Men's Doubles — (Final) — L. V. Bobb and A. C. Pateira beat K. H. Sarnia and J. Gupie, 0-1, 6-2 Mixed Doubles — (Final) — Mrs. Iecia Row and Mrs. K. Row beat Mrs. (1) Stebbing and J. Charanjivie, 6-1, 6-1 Men's Singles — Final — Mrs. K. Row beat Mrs. A. H. V. 6-1, 6-1 Women's Doubles — (Final) — Mrs. K. Row and Mrs. Leela Row beat Mrs. (1) Stebbing and J. Charanjivie, 6-1, 6-1 Mrs. Gupie, 6-1, 6-2

Western India Championships—

Men's Doubles Final—F Ponce and J Palada beat F Kukuljovic and N Krishnaswami, 7-5, 11-9

Women's Singles Final—Miss Jenn Sandison beat Miss Leela Row, 3-6, 6-2, 6-4

Men's Singles Final—J Palada beat F Ponce, 6-4, 6-1

Mixed Doubles Final—Miss O Stebbing and J Brooke-Edwards beat Miss J Sandison and A M D Pitt, 6-4, 7-5

Women's Doubles Final—Miss J Sandison and Miss O Stebbing walk over Miss L Row and Mrs K Row

Women's Tournament—

Women's Doubles—Final—Mrs A R Acott and Miss G Johnstone beat Mrs A D Walvin and Mrs Bully, 6-3, 4-6, 6-4

Women's Singles—Final—Mrs N M Leven beat Mrs G Johnstone, 9-7, 6-3

International Match—

Yugoslavia beat India

Results—

E V Bobb beat F Kukuljovic, 4-6, 6-3, 6-4

J Palada beat S A Azmi, 6-3, 6-2

J Chaturvija and N Krishnaswami beat F Ponce and F Kukuljovic, 7-5, 4-6, 6-3

F Ponce beat Sohan Lal, 6-0, 1-7, 6-4

J Palada beat E V Bobb, 6-3, 7-5

J Chaturvija and N Krishnaswami beat F Ponce and F Kukuljovic, 9-7, 7-8

Calcutta.

Hard Court Championship—

Sohan Lal beat L Brooke Edwards, 6-4, 6-4

Men's Doubles—(Final)—Sohan Lal and R K De beat L Brooke Edwards and W H S Michelson, 7-5, 4-6, 6-4

Women's Singles—(Final)—Miss M. Woodcock beat Miss Harvey Johnstone, 9-7, 6-2

Mixed Doubles—R G Michelson and Miss Harvey Johnstone, 2-6, 6-4, 6-3

Exhibition Match—

Ranulion (France), beat F Ponce, (Tugoglav), 7-5, 6-2, 4-6, 7-5

Bengal Championships—

Men's Singles—(Final)—D A Hodges beat W H S Michelson, 7-6, 7-9, 6-2, 6-0

Women's Singles—(Final)—Miss Jenny Sandison beat Miss L Row, 6-3, 6-3

Women's Doubles—(Final)—Miss Sandison and Miss Graham beat Miss Alexanna Baker and Miss Parrot, 6-4, 6-1

Men's Doubles—(Final)—L Brooke-Edwards and W H S Michelson beat D Hodges and R G Michelson, 6-4, 3-6, 3-7, 6-1

Mixed Doubles—(Final)—D A Hodges and Mrs Alexanna Baker beat R G Michelson and Miss E Homan, 7-6, 6-4,

International Match—

Yugoslavia beat India

Karachi.

Sind Championships—

Men's Singles—(Final)—B T Blake beat R C Daryaman, 7-5, 6-1

Men's Doubles—(Final)—R S Hirmandani and D W Bhogwan beat M F Dastur and P Dinshaw, 4-6, 7-5, 6-4

Mixed Doubles—(Final)—M F Dastur and P G Dinshaw beat B T Blake and Miss Dubash, 6-6, 6-3, 6-0

Women's Singles—(Final)—Miss P G Dinshaw beat Miss M H Dinshaw, 6-4, 6-7,

Women's Doubles—Mrs Maves and Mrs Weather beat Mrs Helps and Mrs Hanson, 8-6, 3-6, 6-4

North West India Championships—

Results—

Men's Singles—(Final)—B T Blake beat Sohan Lal, 6-2, 6-7

Women's Singles—(Final)—Miss Dubash beat Miss P G Dinshaw, 6-4, 6-2

Men's Doubles—(Final)—B T Blake and Kanbur Singh beat Sohan Lal and Shamsher Singh, 6-2, 6-2

Mixed Doubles—Final—Miss Dubash and Blake beat Miss P G Dinshaw and M F Dastur, 6-2, 6-8

Lahore.

Army Championships—

Army Singles Final—Miss beat Cityton Reed (scores mutilated)

Army Doubles Final—Cityton-Reed and Russell-Roberts beat Minchin and Wright 6-1, 6-0, 6-2

Punjab Championships—

Veterans Doubles—(Final)—Kanwar Dalip Singh and Sundar Singh beat Condon and Hemslay 7-5, 6-3

Men's Singles Final—Punec beat Pallada 6-2, 6-4, 6-3

Men's Doubles Final—Punec and Pallada beat Kukuljovic and Schaffer 6-4, 12-10, 6-1

Women's Singles—Final—Miss Seymour beat Miss Stebbing 6-1, 6-1

Mixed Doubles—Final—Kukuljovic and Miss Bredie beat Steem and Miss Seymour 8-6, 2-6, 6-3.

Mrs and Mr Ridland, 94-16=78
 Mrs and Mr Ingles, 90-10=80
 Present's Scratch Competition—
 Carroll beat Marsden
 Four Ball Foursomes Bogey Play on Handicap—
 Caroll and Ingles, 7 up
 McCornack and McDowell, 6 up
 Men's Foursomes—
 Rankes and Kemp (Bombay) beat Carroll
 and Becker (Poona) 6 and 4
 President's Cup for Scratch Players—
 The leading scores for the Scratch Players
 are—
 Davis (Bombay) 71
 Marsden (Almudabad) 76
 Carroll (Poona) 76
 Abernethie (Bombay) 77
 Becker (Poona) 78
 Brough (Bombay) 78
Poona.
 Bombay-Poona Annual Match—
 Singles—
 Poona beat Bombay by 13 points
 Foursomes—
 Poona beat Bombay by 5 points

POLO.

Lucknow.
 Lucknow Spring Tournament 15th Husars
 Cup—
 10th Husars Subalterns
 10th Husars 'A' (+1 goal)
 4 goals
 3 goals
New Delhi.
 Prince of Wales' Commemoration Tourna-
 ment —
 Jaipur
 Leo Diables
 10 goals
 2 goals
Poona.
 Poona Open Handicap Tourney—
 Royal Decan Horse
 Public Linnies (2 goals)
 Subsidary Tournament—
 Racketeers
 Royal Engineers
 3 goals
 2½ goals
Rawalpindi.
 Muree Brewery Tournament —
 Strabowers
 P. A V O Cavalry "A"
 5 goals
 3 goals

Bangalore.
 Bangalore Open Handicap Tourney—
 Royal Decan Horse
 2nd Hyderabad Lancers
 Junior Handicap Tourney—
 Venkatagiri
 Royal Decan Horse
 6 goals
 2 goals
Bombay.
 Western India Championship —
 Kallamur
 Bhopai
 Junior Tournament—
 Poona Horse
 17th/21st/Lancers
Calcutta
 Curmichael Cup—
 Black Watch
 Assam
Hyderabad.
 Inter-Regimental Tournament —
 2nd Imperial Lancers
 3rd Golconda Lancers (1 goal)
 6 goals
 3 goals
 6 goals
 5 goals
 6 goals
 3 goals
 6 goals
 2 goals
 8 goals
 2 goals

Ladies' Foursomes —
 Mrs. Davies and Mrs. Cartwell, 107-32=75
 Mrs. Greening and Mrs. Ingles, 103-20½+82½
Military Cup—
 The leading scores are —
 Scott & G, 70-5=71
 Lang & G, 83-14=71
 Mrs. 82-0=74
Bombay (Syndicate Cup) (Stroke Competition on Handicap) —
 Marsden, 73-1=60
 R & Davies, 84-14=70
 Ingles 70-3=71
 Pitterson, 84-12=72
 H P Davis, 92-24=73
Female Cup—
 The leading returns are as follows —
 David (Bombay) (4) 3 up
 Irall (Bombay) (2) 2 up
 White (Bombay) (2) 1 up
 Keynolds (Bombay) (1) 1 up
 Bullion (Bombay) (6) all squares
Mixed Foursomes—
 The leading returns are as follows —
 Mrs. Cartwell and White, 94-21½=72½
 Mrs. Davis and Carroll, 88-14½=73½

All-India Inter-Railway Team Championship —

M I R beat (G I P) Railway

Results —

Flyweight (G I P) — N Sackett (M I R) beat O

Bantamweight — J Cardozo (G I P) beat

L. L. Lestrange (M I R) on points

Featherweight — H Harding (M I R) beat

A Jones (G I P) on points

Lightweight — D Thomas (G I P) knocked

out F. Mason (M I R) on points

Welterweight — S Boyett (M I R) beat H

Stewart (G I P) on points

Middleweight — T Carr (M I R) beat

W. Cui (G I P) the referee stopping the

fight in the second round

Light-Heavyweight — H Chatterton (G I

P) beat W. Smith (D I R) on points

Heavyweight — F. Roques (G I P) beat

T. Chabon (M I R) on points

Special Rights — Miller (B N) beat H. Green

(N W) on points

D. McDermott (N W) beat D. Brambely

(M S M) on points

V Carr (N R) beat L. Nunn (M S M)

Jubbulpore.

Gunsboat Jack beat Babi Merchant on points

Lahore

Army and Air Force Individual

Championships —

Flyweight — Pte B. Warner (1st Bn Norfolk

Rgt), beat Pte P. Barrell (2nd Bn P of

W Vols) on points.

Bantamweight — L-Cpl R. Lewis (1st Bn

K S L I) the holder, beat Pte F. Thompson

(2nd Bn Lancashire Rifles). The referee

disqualified Thompson in the third round for

holding

Featherweight — Pte B. Lari (1st Bn

W Vols), beat

W. Cui (1st Bn

W Vols) on points

Welterweight — Pte W. Smith (1st Bn

Somerset L I), beat Pte T. Otridge (2nd

Bn K O S B) on points

Middleweight — L-Cpl B. Dillol (1st Bn

East Surrey Rgt), beat Pte H. Brookes

(2nd Bn P of W Vols) on points

Light-Heavyweight — Pte J. Morris (1st Bn

Somerset L I), knocked out L-Cpl Lappin

Senior Novices

Final Flyweight — Pte W. Thomas (Green

Howards) beat M. Mahwood (M S C I)

in the fourth round. The referee stopping

the fight. Mahwood took a lot of punishment

with the better boxer possessing a good

left hand

Final Lightweight — Pte Hodkinson (Sher-

wood) beat I. Smith (Korostan League)

on points

Final Welterweights — Pte Harries (B &

C I M) beat L. Cpl Briggs (Sherwood)

in when down in the second round

Final Flyweight — N. Dhandadama (Zoron-

Khan League) beat D. Panday (Korostan

League) on points

Final Middleweights — Pte Cook (Sherwood)

beat Pte Double (Green Howards), the

medical officer intervening at the end of the

second round

Senior Open

Final Flyweights — E. Joseph (Nagada

House) beat Pte Smith (Sherwood) on

points, a fast bout in which both men took

punishment

Final Bantamweight — Pte Craddas (Green

Howards) beat M. Dillwash (Nagada House)

on points. A scrappy scrambling bout in

which Dillwash was unlucky to lose the

decision

Results —

Army beat Civilians by 21 points to 17

Batling Jimmy James (Poona) beat Robin

Neil (Calcutta) on points

Flyweight — Cpl Gray (Black Watch), beat

F. D. Santos (Civilians) on points

Bantamweight — Pte Smith (Black Watch),

beat A. Thomas (Civilians) on points. J.

Rutherford (Civilians), beat Pte Roberts

(Black Watch) on points

Flyweight — Cpl Wardrop (Black

Watch), beat L. Cpl Garrison

(Devons) on points

Welterweight — Pte Malvale (Devons), beat

F. Nichols (Civilians) on points. Pte

Davis (Black Watch), beat J. H. Marley

(Civilians) on points. Pte Bates (Black

Watch), got a v o his opponent failing to

turn up

Light-Heavyweight — A. A. Arratoon

(Civilians), beat Pte Alexander (Black

Watch) on points.

ԿԱՌԱՅՈՒՄՈՒՆԻՍՏԻԿԱՆ ԴԵՄՈՔՐԱՏԻԿԱՆ ԴՆՈՒՄՆԵՐԸ

צאנזער - 2

[illegible]

Abraham Lincoln - 1861 - 1865
 R. R. Walker (last working day) in
 the first round

[illegible][illegible]

Waltch, bent "for
Diazcoons) on point

L-cystine (1st survey) on points

Heavyweight—Pc. Ansell (Ieds and Heds),
surreys) on points

in the third round

East Surrey Regt., heat the Royal Engineers
by 8 bolts to 3

Results—

הנהגתו ופועליו, וזו היתה הסיבה העיקרית להפלתו. והנהגתו ופועליו, וזו היתה הסיבה העיקרית להפלתו.

Reithierweiglitz—Pte Jackson, (East Surrey)
West Cpl Maccully, (Royal Devonshire) on
points

Lightweight—Rust String—the Jimmie, (East Hurrovs) best L/CPI Jackson, (Koyai)

Lightweight—(Second String)—Pte Giller, (Royal
(East Surrey) boat Tm Colles, (Royal

Lightweight—(Third String)—Donr Alango, (East Surveys) beat Tpr Winkmore, (Koyai)

Robertson

— Willerwald (bismarkianer) und
Willerwald (bismarkianer) und
Willerwald (bismarkianer) und

Secunderabad.

(Grandad Jack, (lost 1915), beat Britling and James, (lost 1915), the latter's second place was in the final in the ninth

Guinea-Bissau (Bissau) 10 km from Bissau

— *Indian Citizenship of India* —

Gilbert Jack Reid Charles, the latter

Additional Championship of South India —

Alvin Karpis (1st) on points
chant (1st) on points
Gunboat Jack beat Arthur Snares on points.

Nagpur.

Willems, J. - (1840-1841) - (1842-1843) - (1844-1845) - (1846-1847) - (1848-1849) - (1850-1851) - (1852-1853) - (1854-1855) - (1856-1857) - (1858-1859) - (1860-1861) - (1862-1863) - (1864-1865) - (1866-1867) - (1868-1869) - (1870-1871) - (1872-1873) - (1874-1875) - (1876-1877) - (1878-1879) - (1880-1881) - (1882-1883) - (1884-1885) - (1886-1887) - (1888-1889) - (1890-1891) - (1892-1893) - (1894-1895) - (1896-1897) - (1898-1899) - (1900-1901) - (1902-1903) - (1904-1905) - (1906-1907) - (1908-1909) - (1910-1911) - (1912-1913) - (1914-1915) - (1916-1917) - (1918-1919) - (1920-1921) - (1922-1923) - (1924-1925) - (1926-1927) - (1928-1929) - (1930-1931) - (1932-1933) - (1934-1935) - (1936-1937) - (1938-1939) - (1940-1941) - (1942-1943) - (1944-1945) - (1946-1947) - (1948-1949) - (1950-1951) - (1952-1953) - (1954-1955) - (1956-1957) - (1958-1959) - (1960-1961) - (1962-1963) - (1964-1965) - (1966-1967) - (1968-1969) - (1970-1971) - (1972-1973) - (1974-1975) - (1976-1977) - (1978-1979) - (1980-1981) - (1982-1983) - (1984-1985) - (1986-1987) - (1988-1989) - (1990-1991) - (1992-1993) - (1994-1995) - (1996-1997) - (1998-1999) - (2000-2001) - (2002-2003) - (2004-2005) - (2006-2007) - (2008-2009) - (2010-2011) - (2012-2013) - (2014-2015) - (2016-2017) - (2018-2019) - (2020-2021) - (2022-2023) - (2024-2025) - (2026-2027) - (2028-2029) - (2030-2031) - (2032-2033) - (2034-2035) - (2036-2037) - (2038-2039) - (2040-2041) - (2042-2043) - (2044-2045) - (2046-2047) - (2048-2049) - (2050-2051) - (2052-2053) - (2054-2055) - (2056-2057) - (2058-2059) - (2060-2061) - (2062-2063) - (2064-2065) - (2066-2067) - (2068-2069) - (2070-2071) - (2072-2073) - (2074-2075) - (2076-2077) - (2078-2079) - (2080-2081) - (2082-2083) - (2084-2085) - (2086-2087) - (2088-2089) - (2090-2091) - (2092-2093) - (2094-2095) - (2096-2097) - (2098-2099) - (2100-2101) - (2102-2103) - (2104-2105) - (2106-2107) - (2108-2109) - (2110-2111) - (2112-2113) - (2114-2115) - (2116-2117) - (2118-2119) - (2120-2121) - (2122-2123) - (2124-2125) - (2126-2127) - (2128-2129) - (2130-2131) - (2132-2133) - (2134-2135) - (2136-2137) - (2138-2139) - (2140-2141) - (2142-2143) - (2144-2145) - (2146-2147) - (2148-2149) - (2150-2151) - (2152-2153) - (2154-2155) - (2156-2157) - (2158-2159) - (2160-2161) - (2162-2163) - (2164-2165) - (2166-2167) - (2168-2169) - (2170-2171) - (2172-2173) - (2174-2175) - (2176-2177) - (2178-2179) - (2180-2181) - (2182-2183) - (2184-2185) - (2186-2187) - (2188-2189) - (2190-2191) - (2192-2193) - (2194-2195) - (2196-2197) - (2198-2199) - (2200-2201) - (2202-2203) - (2204-2205) - (2206-2207) - (2208-2209) - (2210-2211) - (2212-2213) - (2214-2215) - (2216-2217) - (2218-2219) - (2220-2221) - (2222-2223) - (2224-2225) - (2226-2227) - (2228-2229) - (2230-2231) - (2232-2233) - (2234-2235) - (2236-2237) - (2238-2239) - (2240-2241) - (2242-2243) - (2244-2245) - (2246-2247) - (2248-2249) - (2250-2251) - (2252-2253) - (2254-2255) - (2256-2257) - (2258-2259) - (2260-2261) - (2262-2263) - (2264-2265) - (2266-2267) - (2268-2269) - (2270-2271) - (2272-2273) - (2274-2275) - (2276-2277) - (2278-2279) - (2280-2281) - (2282-2283) - (2284-2285) - (2286-2287) - (2288-2289) - (2290-2291) - (2292-2293) - (2294-2295) - (2296-2297) - (2298-2299) - (2300-2301) - (2302-2303) - (2304-2305) - (2306-2307) - (2308-2309) - (2310-2311) - (2312-2313) - (2314-2315) - (2316-2317) - (2318-2319) - (2320-2321) - (2322-2323) - (2324-2325) - (2326-2327) - (2328-2329) - (2330-2331) - (2332-2333) - (2334-2335) - (2336-2337) - (2338-2339) - (2340-2341) - (2342-2343) - (2344-2345) - (2346-2347) - (2348-2349) - (2350-2351) - (2352-2353) - (2354-2355) - (2356-2357) - (2358-2359) - (2360-2361) - (2362-2363) - (2364-2365) - (2366-2367) - (2368-2369) - (2370-2371) - (2372-2373) - (2374-2375) - (2376-2377) - (2378-2379) - (2380-2381) - (2382-2383) - (2384-2385) - (2386-2387) - (2388-2389) - (2390-2391) - (2392-2393) - (2394-2395) - (2396-2397) - (2398-2399) - (2400-2401) - (2402-2403) - (2404-2405) - (2406-2407) - (2408-2409) - (2410-2411) - (2412-2413) - (2414-2415) - (2416-2417) - (2418-2419) - (2420-2421) - (2422-2423) - (2424-2425) - (2426-2427) - (2428-2429) - (2430-2431) - (2432-2433) - (2434-2435) - (2436-2437) - (2438-2439) - (2440-2441) - (2442-2443) - (2444-2445) - (2446-2447) - (2448-2449) - (2450-2451) - (2452-2453) - (2454-2455) - (2456-2457) - (2458-2459) - (2460-2461) - (2462-2463) - (2464-2465) - (2466-2467) - (2468-2469) - (2470-2471) - (2472-2473) - (2474-2475) - (2476-2477) - (2478-2479) - (2480-2481) - (2482-2483) - (2484-2485) - (2486-2487) - (2488-2489) - (2490-2491) - (2492-2493) - (2494-2495) - (2496-2497) - (2498-2499) - (2500-2501) - (2502-2503) - (2504-2505) - (2506-2507) - (2508-2509) - (2510-2511) - (2512-2513) - (2514-2515) - (2516-2517) - (2518-2519) - (2520-2

Rangoon

John W. Williams (1st) (Wally) in position

[illegible]

Robertson

Whitehead, Gunboat Jack (holder)
Birtling Kid James (Poonie) best

Secunderabad.

(Continued last, (last 10-15), beat Britling and James, (10-15) the latter's triumph in the ninth

round

— Championship of India —

claimant (1st) on points

Additional Championship of South India —

chiant (11 st) on points.
Gunboat Jack beat Arthur Suares on points.

ATHLETICS.

Champion School—St Mary's High School
Individual Championship—G Walsh
(Christ Church High School)
Medallists—G Walsh, (Long Jump), H
Roch, (100 Yards under 12), Clifford
Stallion, (120 Yards Hurdles under 16)
Women's One Mile Cycle Race—Miss R.
Hendson 3 Mins 56 Secs
Gokuldas Time 3 mins 54-56 secs
Inter Collegiate Championship—
The following were the results—
10 Miles Walk—S H Kutar (G M), 2
R. R. Deshpande (W), 3 D D Junglewala,
(M) Time 1 hour, 40 mins
3 Miles Road Race—1 W R. Bastur (G M),
2 K S Salvi (St X), 3 A Meneses (St X),
Time 16 mins 21 2/5 secs
Boys 120 lbs and under—1 V Sequerra
(G M), 2 J E D'Sa (St X),
140 lbs and under—1 F W Pais (St X),
2 C S Krishnamurti (G M)
4 1/2 Miles Cross Country Run—1 V R. Bastur
(G M), 2 C S Krishnamurti (G M), 3
F V Lawrence (St X), Time 18 mins
30 Miles Cycle Race—1 R J Mistry (St X),
2 D T Daboo (St X), 3 B M Pashale
(E C & H S) Time 1 hour, 13 mins
60 secs New Record
Weighting, 120 lbs and under—1, R. S.
Sainthani (W), 2 B M Pujari (G M),
140 lbs and under—1 R M Shirof (W),
2 D G Gadre (G M)
Over 140 lbs—1 A J Agutkar (St X), 2
M N Nannavati (S)
50 Yards Swim—1 P M Bhargha (St X),
2 R H M Colah (S), 3 V R. Bastur (G M),
Time 31 4/5 secs New Record
Half Mile Swim—1 P Bhargha (St X),
2 V R. Bastur (G M), 3 N C Mitha (I),
Time 13 mins 41 2/5 secs New Record
200 Yards Swim (Relay)—1 St Xavier's,
Gunt Medical Time 2 mins 21 2/5 secs
New Records
Pole Vault—1 J Jameson (I), 2 H Ribeiro
(St X), 3 G S Krishnamurti (G M)
Height 10 feet New Record
Half Mile Run—1, J Jameson (I), 2 V R.
Bastur (G M), 3 H Ribeiro (St X), Time
2 mins 16 4/5 secs
100 Yards—1 H Ribeiro (St X), 2 J Jameson
(I), 3 T C D'Costa (S), Time
10 2/5 secs
High Jump—1 J Jameson (I), 2 K J
Jacob (G M), 3 T C D'Costa (S), Height 5
feet 2 inches
120 Yards Hurdles—1, J Jameson (I), 2
H Ribeiro (St X), 3 K V Bhambarkar
Time not taken.

The following were the placings—
15 Mile Cycle Race—1 B Malokum (B I
S T), 2 A K Hristini (Sassanum Wheel-
ers), 3 W Turkic (Christ Church Old Boys),
4 S T Shroff (Sassanum Wheelers), 5 F
P Hider (Bombay Amateur Athletic Club),
6 S M Bayed (Bombay Amateur Athletic Club)
(Club) Time 37 mins 8 secs
The lap times were won by Malokum and J
Gunn
50 Mile Cycle Race—1 A B Malokum, 2
K Gerrard
Tata School Shield—
Open Events—
100 Yards—1 G Walsh, 2 W Gairley, 3
P Santos
120 Yards Hurdles—1 P Santos, 2 W
Gairley, 3 B Rodrigues
Quarter Mile—1 S Rose, 2 R Gairley, 3
G Walsh
One Mile—1 S D'Souza, 2 J Amies, 3
D Joseph
Cycle Race—1 K K Patel, 2 B N Syed,
3 A Patterson
High Jump—1 O Staniel, 2 Hys Khan,
3 P Santos
Long Jump—1 G Walsh, 2 P Santos, 3
I Pereira
Pole Jump—1 J D'Silva, 2 P Santos,
3 T Malsquith
Throwing the Cricket Ball—1 G Walsh,
2 B Rodrigues, 3 W Gerrard
Under 16 Events—
100 Yards—1 H Charles, 2 V Smith,
3 C Mciver
120 Yards Hurdles—1 C Stanley, 2 G
Mistry, 3 V Smith
Quarter Mile—1, C Hearn, 2 R. Shore,
3 D Claudius
Half Mile—1 J Var, 2 R. Shore, 3 A
Hussain
High Jump—1 G Reid, 2 R Whyte,
3 C Hearn
100 Yards—1 A Khannaz, 2 M Morton,
3 C Hearn
220 Yards—1 Gabriel Ganto 2 G Douglas,
3 M Curran
100 Yards—1 H Roich, 2 Khaliddin,
3 M Curran
Tur-of-War (Open)—Bhanda New High
School

Bombay

PICSTICKING.

140 Yards — L H Thorpe 1 Time 58½ secs	50 Yards (Juniors) — Akbar Khan 1 Time 6 secs	40 Yards — Dal Singh Bar 1 Time 60-8 secs	Three Miles — Ram Singh 1 Time 15 mins 3 7/10 secs	100 Yards (Women) — V Matthews 1 Time 12-6 secs
220 Yards — B Whiteside 1 Time 22 7-10 secs	Discus Throw (Women) — M Lewis 1 Distance 48 ft 1 inch	880 Yards — Hazura Singh 1 Time 2 mins 3 7-10 secs	86 Yards Hurdles (Women) — V Matthews 1 Time 15-9 secs	

Lightweight —

Captain Harvey's "Spider" and Captain Atherton's "Refuge" Dead heat; Mr Longden's "Red Cherry"

Poona.

Bhima Cup —

Lt M B Turner, R A, on "Golden Shred"

Meerut.

Kadir Cup — Hon J Hamilton Russell's "Loudy Loo", Whist

Mr A M Teacher's "Gunmaster", Runner-up Heavyweight Hog Hunters Cup —

Mrs Watehels' "Jill Punch," Captain Harvey's "Battler," Mr Norman's "Kha-apu"

NON CENTRAL MATCHES

The following are the results of the Army Rifle Association (India) Non Central matches, 1933-34 —

THE BROOKS BOND CUP

2nd Bn The K O Y Light Infantry 957

THE NAYARA CUP

8 Pl 2nd K O Y Light Infantry 218
1 Pl 2nd K O Y Light Infantry 209
1 Pl 1st Bn The Norfolk Regiment 190
1 Pl 1st Bn The Buffs 103

THE KING-KAPLOR'S CUP

2-15th Punjab Regiment 5,335
2-14th Punjab Regiment 4,800
2-2nd K R O Gurkha Rifles 4,593
3-17th Dogra Regiment 4,087

88TH GARHWALI INFANTRY MEMORIAL

2-15th Punjab Regiment
2-2nd K R O Gurkha Rifles
1-17th Dogra Regiment
3-11th Sikh Regiment

GOLD CUP

THE RAWLINSON TROPHY

110 Wing 2-15th Punjab Regiment 1,380
B Coy 2-14th Punjab Regiment 1,280
C Coy 1-5th B Gurkha Rifles 1,229
A Coy 1-5th B Gurkha Rifles 1,216

ARMY RIFLE SHOOTING.

THE CAWPORE WOOLLEN MILLS CUP

6 Pl 2-14th Punjab Regiment 780
1 Pl The Nepal Escort 659
3 Pl 1st Infantry Bn 645
2 Pl The Nepal Escort 641

THE PRINCE OF WALES (MATTERKOTLA) CUP

3 Pl 2-15th Punjab Regiment 284
1 Pl 2-15th Punjab Regiment 271
8 Pl 1-2nd Punjab Regiment 256
15 Pl 1st Patana Rajender Sikhs Inf 256

THE O'MOORE CROAGH CUP

1st Rajender Patana Lancers 594
Al G Sec Tr A No 2 team 1st 548
("A" Bn 1st Pl No 1 team) 1st 515
(G Bn 2nd Pl No 2 team) 18th K I 584

THE MOUR COURTESY CUP

Al G Coy 2-15th Punjab Regiment 460
Al G Coy 1-7th Rajput Regiment 431
Al G Coy 4-5th Mahatta Light Inf 429

THE FRANKS MEMORIAL CUP

No 1 team 2-15th Punjab Regiment 805
No 1 team 2-2nd K I O Gurkha Rifles 761
No 1 team 3-17th Dogra Regiment 744
No 1 team 3-11th Sikh Regiment 739

THE TRAINING BATTALIONS

Year	10-2nd Punjab Regiment	10-5th Punjab Regiment	10-7th Punjab Regiment	10-1st Punjab Regiment
1904	1	1	1	1
1905	1	1	1	1
1906	1	1	1	1
1907	1	1	1	1
1908	1	1	1	1
1909	1	1	1	1
1910	1	1	1	1
1911	1	1	1	1
1912	1	1	1	1
1913	1	1	1	1
1914	1	1	1	1
1915	1	1	1	1
1916	1	1	1	1
1917	1	1	1	1
1918	1	1	1	1
1919	1	1	1	1
1920	1	1	1	1
1921	1	1	1	1
1922	1	1	1	1
1923	1	1	1	1
1924	1	1	1	1
1925	1	1	1	1
1926	1	1	1	1
1927	1	1	1	1
1928	1	1	1	1
1929	1	1	1	1
1930	1	1	1	1
1931	1	1	1	1
1932	1	1	1	1
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1985	1	1	1	1
1986	1	1	1	1
1987	1	1	1	1
1988	1	1	1	1
1989	1	1	1	1
1990	1	1	1	1
1991	1	1	1	1
1992	1	1	1	1
1993	1	1	1	1

THE GURKHA CUP

No 1 team D Co 10-13th F F Rifles
No 1 team P Co 2-9th Gurkha Rifles
No 1 team T Co 1-4th PVO Gurkha Rif
No 1 team T Co 1-2nd KEO Gurkha Rif

SETH (KRAVITZ) INFANTRY B O GOLD CUP

No 1 team 2-5th Punjab Regiment
No 1 team 3-17th Dogra Regiment
No 1 team 2-nd KEO Gurkha Rifles
No 1 team 3-11th Sikh Regiment

THE LADY'S GLAZES DIAMOND JUBILEE
SHIELD

2,007	Allahabad Contingent A F I
2,435	1st Bn G I P Ry Regt, A F I
2,429	2nd Bn M E S M Ry Rifles
2,012	The Simla Rifles, A F I

200
 267
 272

THE READING (UP)

No 1	Terni Allahabad Contingent,	1 P.L.	810
No 1	1st Battalion Rifles		780
No 1	1st Coy 2nd M and S M Ry		740

Bengal

—*Chlamydomonas*—

— ۱۱۱ —

(10) *Alara*, —1 *Mayam* 5 *ihoo*, (Center), 2
 It is *Alukhahim*, (Center), 1 *ihoo*—1 *ihoo*
 3 *ihoo*—1 *ihoo*, (Indian word)
 100 *Alara*—1 *Alara* 5 *ihoo* (Xatlon), 2

1. The first stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 2. The second stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 3. The third stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 4. The fourth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 5. The fifth stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 6. The sixth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 7. The seventh stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 8. The eighth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 9. The ninth stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 10. The tenth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 11. The eleventh stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 12. The twelfth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 13. The thirteenth stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 14. The fourteenth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 15. The fifteenth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 16. The sixteenth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 17. The seventeenth stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 18. The eighteenth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 19. The nineteenth stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 20. The twentieth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 21. The twenty-first stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 22. The twenty-second stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 23. The twenty-third stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 24. The twenty-fourth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 25. The twenty-fifth stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 26. The twenty-sixth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 27. The twenty-seventh stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 28. The twenty-eighth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 29. The twenty-ninth stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 30. The thirtieth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 31. The thirty-first stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 32. The thirty-second stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 33. The thirty-third stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 34. The thirty-fourth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 35. The thirty-fifth stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 36. The thirty-sixth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 37. The thirty-seventh stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 38. The thirty-eighth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 39. The thirty-ninth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 40. The fortieth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 41. The forty-first stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 42. The forty-second stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 43. The forty-third stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 44. The forty-fourth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 45. The forty-fifth stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 46. The forty-sixth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 47. The forty-seventh stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 48. The forty-eighth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 49. The forty-ninth stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 50. The fiftieth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 51. The fifty-first stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 52. The fifty-second stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 53. The fifty-third stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 54. The fifty-fourth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 55. The fifty-fifth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 56. The fifty-sixth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 57. The fifty-seventh stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 58. The fifty-eighth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 59. The fifty-ninth stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 60. The sixtieth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 61. The sixty-first stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 62. The sixty-second stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 63. The sixty-third stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 64. The sixty-fourth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 65. The sixty-fifth stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 66. The sixty-sixth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 67. The sixty-seventh stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 68. The sixty-eighth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 69. The sixty-ninth stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 70. The seventieth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 71. The seventy-first stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 72. The seventy-second stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 73. The seventy-third stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 74. The seventy-fourth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 75. The seventy-fifth stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 76. The seventy-sixth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 77. The seventy-seventh stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 78. The seventy-eighth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 79. The seventy-ninth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 80. The eightieth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 81. The eighty-first stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 82. The eighty-second stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 83. The eighty-third stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 84. The eighty-fourth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 85. The eighty-fifth stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 86. The eighty-sixth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 87. The eighty-seventh stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 88. The eighty-eighth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 89. The eighty-ninth stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 90. The ninetieth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 91. The ninety-first stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 92. The ninety-second stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.
 93. The ninety-third stroke is a horizontal line from right to left.
 94. The ninety-fourth stroke is a vertical line from bottom to top.
 95. The ninety-fifth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-left to top-right.
 96. The ninety-sixth stroke is a diagonal line from bottom-right to top-left.
 97. The ninety-seventh stroke is a horizontal line from left to right.
 98. The ninety-eighth stroke is a vertical line from top to bottom.
 99. The ninety-ninth stroke is a diagonal line from top-left to bottom-right.
 100. The hundredth stroke is a diagonal line from top-right to bottom-left.

160) Water—(Black, Sterco) —1 N G Males (Sterile)
1 mm—7 mm—30 1-5-10-20

1 mile (1.6 km), (London) — 1 mile — 1.6 km

[illegible]

SWIMMING.

810	I. T. URBAN AND U. T. O. MATEURS	145
780	A Coy 4th (U. P.) Urban Infantry	301
	B Coy 4th (U. P.) Urban Infantry	270
740	D Coy 6th (Burma) Bn U. T. C	231
722	B Coy (Burma) Bn U. T. C	

700	I T F PROVINCIAL BATTALIONS AT MCH	B Coy 11-18th B Garhwal Rifles	725
764		A Coy 11-1st Punjab Regiment	735
		C Coy 11-6th Rajputana Rifles	768
		A Coy 11-6th Rajputana Rifles	769

607	A	Coy	and Infantry	1,165
435	C	Coy	1st Battalion (Rajinder) Sikh Inf	1,160
012	B	Coy	1st Battalion (Rajinder) Sikh Inf	1,085
1,078	B	Coy	4th M B Gharior Infantry	

THE SCANDAL COP

Jodhpur Sardar Bhisala	1,739
Jodhpur Sardar Infantry	1,193
4th XI S Cavalry Infantry	1,422
Bhopal Sultanah Infantry	1,158

THE MILITARY ADVISERS CUP

182	A Coy 1st G I P Bty Regt
183	Punjab Contingent, Punjab Balads
181	"D" Coy 1st G I P Bty Regt
171	"C" Coy 1st G I P Bty Regt
165	

THE SIMLA RULES COP

256	T. M. P. Allahabad Contingent, A. R. I.
257	A. Co. 2nd M. & S. M. Ky. Rifles, A. R. I.
263	Jharkhand Debt Delhra Duan Contingent
267	'P. A. Coy. N. W. Ky. Bu., A. R. I.

THE B P R & C

256	T. M. P. Allahabad Contingent, A. R. I.
257	A. Co. 2nd M. & S. M. Ky. Rifles, A. R. I.
263	Jharkhand Debt Delhra Duan Contingent
267	'P. A. Coy. N. W. Ky. Bu., A. R. I.

Bombay

Medley Relay—Won by National, who were represented by J. S. Park, N. C. Mah, S. Rose and S. Dey. Time—7 mins 30.35
Diving—1. Earl Chase, (National), 2. H. L. Rhoad, (Tarkenton Institute)
Water Polo—Bowditch Bay team finally beat Central in the final by 4 goals to 1.

145	A Coy 4th (U F) Urban Infantry	301
	D Coy 4th (U F) Urban Infantry	270
	B Coy 6th (Burma) Bn U F C	231
	B Coy (Burma) Bn U F C	

I T F PROVINCIAL BATTALIONS MATCH

B Coy	11-18th B Garwhal Rifles	100
A Coy	11-18th Punjab Regiment	173
C Coy	11-6th Rajputana Rifles	168
A Coy	11-6th Rajputana Rifles	163

A Coy	2nd Infantry	1,165
C Coy	1st Patania (Raynder) Sikh Inf	1,160
B Coy	1st Patania (Raynder) Sikh Inf	1,085
B Coy	4th M B Ghazior Infantry	1,078

THE SCANDAL COP

Jodhpur Sardar Bhisala	1,739
Jodhpur Sardar Infantry	1,193
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267	'P. A. Coy. N. W. Ky. Bu., A. R. I.

Men's Open Diving—J T Jordan, 110 7 points, 2 H P Waegeli, 108 8 points, 3 H Brown, 97 9 points

Mixed Relay Race (Handicap)—1 Miss Xyome Kabron and H J Wasbie (Time—2 secs), 2 Miss Marjorie Bellamy and G MacDonald (Time—3 secs), 3 Miss Fonda Guderian and Guderian (Time—14 sec), 4 Miss Joan Boudry and D W McChumpha (Scratch)

Services Kelly—1 Green Howards (Time—1 min 16 2-5 secs), 2 14th Heavy Battery, H A, "A" (Time—1 min 10 3-5 secs), 3 2nd Bn, Sherwood Foresters, "A", HQ Wing Company, 4 2nd Bn, Sherwood Foresters

Western India Quarter Mile, Championship (Hammond Cup)—1 Jack Flower, Cathedral Old Boys (Time—6 mins 3 4-5 secs), 2 H Buid, Bombay Gymkhana (Time—6 mins 6 4-5 secs), 3 M Hillol, Zionsists, (Time—6 mins 44 secs)

Bombay.

Results—
Senior Sculls—Slater beat Hude by 1 length
Time—3mins 29 3-5 secs
Senior Four Fmals—"D" Crew beat "A" Crew by 1 length
Time—2mins 6 secs
Senior Pairs—Coulton and Dumaresque beat Slater and Hude by distance
Junior Pairs—Kollenborg and Schumacher beat Haw and Leaven by 1 length
Time—2 mins 41 secs
Junior Sculls—Whalley beat Hutchings easily
Time—2mins 35 secs
Serpentine Sculls—Haw beat Burns easily.
Time—2 mins 1 sec

Calcutta.

Chartered and Alhabad Banks beat Mercantile Bank
Time—3 mins 2 secs

Madras.

All-India Regatta—
Challenge Fours Distance (1,025 yds)—
Bombay Gymkhana J S Dumaresque (Bow), H S Waters 2, P S Green 3, R T Coulton (Stroke), A W Parker (Cov)
Calcutta Rowing Club L R Duncan (Bow), R W Moncrieff 2, A J Peppercorn 3, R J L Oakley (Stroke), J S Harding (Cov)
Bombay beat Calcutta by 1 length
Time—3 mins, 38 secs.

ROWING.

Colombo vs Madras, Annual Competition—
Madras beat Colombo by 42 points to 28.

YACHTING.

Madras.

Punjab Olympic Championships—
Lahore
One Mile—Sydney Joseph Wallis (Time—55 mins 17 1-2 secs)
50 Yards Free Style—1 Dennis Holman, 2 Sharnsher Ali, 3 Robert Sparrow (Time—28 1-2 secs)
100 Yards Free Style—1 Dennis Holman, 2 Robert Sparrow (Time—1 min 6 3-5 secs)
440 Yards Free Style—Dennis Holman (Time—6 mins 25 3-5 secs)
100 Yards Back Stroke—1 Thomas Turnbull, 2 Sharnsher Ali, 3 Lalit Khan (Time—1 min 10 secs)
Diving—Lalit Khan, there being only one competitor
220 Yards Breast Stroke—1 Mahmood Ali, 2 E Lawrie Smith, 3 P Chaudhry (Time—3 mins 38 1-2 secs)
Water Polo—
Bengal beat Government College, Lahore by 7 goals to 4.

Senior Pairs Distance 1,025 yards—
S A Bindon and I C Bosson (Madras) vs R J L Oakley and A J Peppercorn (Calcutta) Madras won easily
Time—3 mins 57 secs
Senior Sculls Distance 1,025 yards—
T R Duncan (Calcutta) beat S A Bindon (Madras) by 3 lengths
Time—4 mins 5 secs
Hot Weather Regatta—
Madras-Colombo Challenge Fours Cup
Distance 1,025 yards S A Bindon and J R Pearce (Madras) beat J R H Bendon and H S M Bore (Colombo) by 5 lengths
Time—4 mins 6 secs
Cup for Junior Pairs—
J W Conning and S M Maritz (Madras) beat E H Fry and A Vassio (Madras) by two lengths in 3 mins 12 secs
Clinker Coxless Pairs—
R H Wilson and D N Stephens beat J L Anderson and R C Cross by six lengths
Time—2 mins 37 secs
Barnbridge Cup for Sculls—
E H Fry beat S M Maritz by lengths
Services Fours—
Army won from S P M. R., who, coming up fast, fouled and were disqualified,
Challenge Sculls Cup—
J. R. Pierce beat J O Cochrane by 2 1-2 lengths,
Time—4 mins 11 3-5 secs.

DOG SHOWS.

Bombay.

The following are the principal awards —

CHALLENGE CUPS

No 1 For best exhibit in Show — Lt-Col G H Chamber's Wire Fox Terrier — "Dogberry Golden Favour of Dingley Dell"
No 2 For best exhibit in Show of opposite sex to the winner of No 1 — Miss P Wright's Cocker "Leading String of Ware"
No 3 For best exhibit Bred in India — Lt-Col G H Chamber's Wire Fox Terrier — "Ch Cinderella of Dingley Dell"
No 4 For best exhibit Bred in India, opposite sex to winner of No 3 — Miss P Wright's Cocker "Wembley Wanderer"

No 5 For best Puppy in Show — Sir Dinslaw Pettit's Great Dane "Olaf Ivanoff"
No 6 For best Puppy in Show, opposite sex to winner of No 5 — Miss D Small's Smooth Fox Terrier "Tito Jinks"
No 7. For best exhibit in Show, born in the Bombay Presidency, under 18 months old — Sir Dinslaw Pettit's "Olaf Ivanoff"

No 8 For best Terrier in Show — Lt-Col G H Chamber's "Dogberry Golden Favour of Dingley Dell"
No 9 For best exhibit in Show, other than Terrier — Miss P Wright's "Leading String of Ware"
No 10 For best exhibit in Show, born in Bombay Presidency and owned by a Member — Lt J D Kothawala's Cocker "Bestpal Binecoar"

No 11 For best Terrier, born in Bombay Presidency and owned by a Member — Miss D Small's "Upto Jinks"
The following special prizes were conferred to members of the Bombay Presidency Kennel Club —

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY KENNEL CLUB SPECIAL PRIZES

No 12. A Cup presented by H E the Governor of Bombay for best exhibit in Show — Lt-Col G H Chamber's "Dogberry Golden Favour of Dingley Dell"

No 13 A Cup for best exhibit in Show of opposite sex to winner of No 12 — Miss P Wright's "Leading String of Ware"
No 14 A Cup for best exhibit in Show bred in India — Lt-Col G H Chamber's "Cinderella of Dingley Dell"
No 15 A Cup for best exhibit in Show, bred in India of opposite sex to winner of No 14 — Miss P Wright's "Wembley Wanderer."

No 16 A Cup for the best Wire Fox Terrier Dog owned by a Lady Member — Miss E Macpherson's "Ch Lanthorn Passing Cloud"
No 17. The Times of India Jubilee Commemoration Cup for the best exhibit under 2 years — Mrs Watson's Scottish Terrier "Appin Robin."

SPECIAL PRIZES OPEN TO ALL

No 18 A Cup for best exhibit under 2 years of opposite sex to winner of No 17 — Lt H Ford's Smooth Fox Terrier "Fox Trotter of the Bores"
No 19 A Cup for best exhibit in Show, bred in India, under 18 months — Mrs H V Fido's Scottish Terrier "Sporty Cluckum"
No 20 A Cup for best Puppy owned by a Member — Sir Dinslaw Pettit's "Olaf Ivanoff"

No 21 A Cup for the best Borzoi, Saluki or Greyhound — Mrs M Sara's Borzois "The Martushka"
No 22 A Cup for the best Great Dane — Sir Dinslaw Pettit's "Salina of Gammaton"
No 23 A Cup for the best Alsatian — Dr L C Smith's "Krieger Vom Haus Schutting"
No 24 A Cup for the best Alsatian, opposite sex to the winner of No 23 — Mrs L C Smith's "Trudel Vom Wiegertelsen of Maresquel"
No 25 A Cup for the best Labrador Retriever or English Springer Spaniel — Lt-Col S Shanshere Jung Bahadur Hana's Labrador "Laud Leimer"

No 26 A Cup for the best Golden Retriever or Irish Setter — Mr D G Dyve's Golden Retriever "Biefengler Korysun of Nutwood"
No 27 A Cup for the best Bulldog Chow (Chow or Dalmatian — Mr W Pedler's Bulldog "Oakville Premier."
No 28 A Cup for the best Japanese Boston Terrier or Yorkshire Terrier — Capt Flander's Boston Terrier "Dot of Wow"

No 29 A Cup for the best Cocker Spaniel — Miss P Wright's "Leading String of Ware"
No 30 A Cup for the best Cocker Spaniel of opposite sex to the winner of No 29 — Lt J D Kothawala's "Bestpal Delight or Merok"

No 31. A Cup for the best Cocker Spaniel Bred in India — Miss P Wright's "Wembley Wanderer"
No 32. A Cup for the best Bull Terrier — Mrs. A G Granville's "Kragan Duchess"
No 33 A Cup for the best Airedale or Irish Terrier — Mrs Andrey's Airedale "Sascot Statesman"

No 34 A Cup for the best Smooth Fox Terrier — Mr. A Wright's "Ch. Clunker of Xootla"
No 35. A Cup for the best Smooth Fox Terrier of opposite sex to the winner of No 34 — Mr H H Fido's "Cradley Madance"
No 36. A Cup for the best Wire Fox Terrier — Lt-Col G H Chamber's "Dogberry Golden Favour of Dingley Dell"

Simla.

The following is the list of winners of special trophies and challenge cups in the 14th Simla Championship Dog Show

Their Excellencies the Viceroy and the Countess of Willesdon's Cup for the best dog in the show Mr H H Pridg, Smooth Fox Terrier Reserve H H Pridg, Smooth Fox Terrier "Solus" Muted Gold "Reserve H H the Maharaja Dhruaj of Patiala "Coronet of Malwa" Challenge Cup for the best exhibit in the show Mr H H Pridg, Smooth Fox Terrier "Solus" Muted Gold "Reserve H H the Maharaja Dhruaj of Patiala "Coronet of Malwa" Challenge Cup for the best exhibit bred by county bred exhibit H H Maharaja Dhruaj of Patiala's English Springer Spaniel "Coronet of Malwa" Reserve Mrs K C Webb's "Pekingese "Chin Chin in Both" Challenge Cup for the best puppy, bred in India Pehli Hunt Club's Foxhound "Nomination Reserve H H the Maharaja Dhruaj of Patiala Labrador Retriever Barabuan of Malwa

The Kennel Club of India Special for the best exhibit owned by a member of an associate. H H Maharaja Dhruaj of Patiala "Coronet of Malwa" Reserve Mrs A S Kirkwood Black and Tan Terrier "Cabra Hall Moon Twilight" U P Kennel Club Cup for best exhibit bred by a member Mrs P Penn's Great Dane "Blaze of Fairlight" Reserve Same owners "Vendetta of Fairlight" Reserve

U P Kennel Club Cup for best exhibit bred by a member Mrs P Penn's Great Dane "Blaze of Fairlight" Reserve Same owners "Vendetta of Fairlight" Reserve

U P Kennel Club of India Cup for the best sporting dog which has not won a Spanish Chib Special this season, owned by a member H H the Maharaja Dhruaj of Patiala "Coronet of Malwa" Reserve Mrs K. H Wheatley "Selection of Bhadri" "Mayurbhanj" Cup for the best puppy in the show, the property of a member of the G D C I Mrs P Penn "Vendetta of Fairlight" "Tanora Tiger" Cup, presented by H H. Pridg's India of Khyberia for the best exhibit in the show "The property of a member of the G D C I Mrs P Penn "Blaze of Fairlight" "Bushby" Cup, presented by Lady Xethersole for the best exhibit by a member of the G D C I Mrs P Penn "Blaze of Fairlight" "Kanika" Cup, for the best race bird in India by a member of the G D C I Mrs P. Penn "Blaze of Fairlight" and "Vendetta of Fairlight"

No 37 A Cup for the best Wire Fox Terrier of opposite sex to the winner of No 36 — Mr N J Hamilton's "Clackey Stageman" Mr C V Watson's "Appin Robin" — No 39 A Cup for the best Scottish Terrier Puppies — Mrs H V Pridg's "Sports Cluetin" — No 40 A Cup for the best Chinn Terrier — Mr L. M. Vaire's "Blacken of Hemmington" — No 41 A Cup for the best Scottish Terrier — Mr J. M. Vaire's "Blacken of Hemmington" — No 42 A Cup for the best Sydney Silkie — Mr A. M. Vaire's "Pukki" — No 43 A Cup for the best Dachshund — Mrs J. I. Guthrie's "Beatie Dune Dessy" — No 44 A Cup for the best Dackhund of opposite sex to the winner of No 43 — Mrs Noel Pridg's "Savoy Hildgarde" — No 45 A Cup for the best Pomeranian — Miss Sarah John's "Misty Boy" — No 46 A Cup for the best Pomeranian of opposite sex to the winner of No 45 — Mr L. D. Ldwars "Misture" — No 47 A Cup for the best Pekingese — Mrs V. Macdonnell's "Ch Wu-Ti of Clairborne" — No 48 A Cup for the best Pekingese of opposite sex to the winner of No 47 — Mrs V. Macdonnell's "Vatsi Ru of Clairborne" — No 49 A Cup for the best Pekingese Puppy — Mrs V. Macdonnell's "Vatsi Ru of Clairborne" — No 50 A Cup for the best Rhodesian Ridgeback, Theban Terrier, Theban Boobee or Maltese — Mrs L. J. Currie's "Rhodesian Ridgeback" "Russell's Patis Pidi" — No 51 A Spoon for the best Wire Fox Terrier whose owner has never won a Challenge Certificate in the breed — Capt Lawrence Aitcher's "Hunstreet Pussier" — No 52 A Cup for the best exhibit shown for the first time and owned by an exhibitor for the first time — Mrs Sarah John's "Misty Boy" — No 53 A Cup for the best litter — Miss D. Small's Smooth Fox Terrier — No 54 A Cup for the best Soldier's Dog — Sgt Ramsay's "Ripper" 2, Gunner Thomas "Peggie" —

KENNEL CLUB OF INDIA SPECIAL

IT. Col G H Chambers "Cunderella of Dingley Doll"

ALSTAYAN CLUB OF INDIA SPECIALS

Best Imported — Dr L. C. Smith's "Kreger-Vom Haus Schuetting"

Best Opposite Sex — Mrs L. C. Smith's "Trudel Vom Wiegertesen of Maresquel"

Best Bred in India — I. C. P. W. Quick's "Kinneth."

WEIGHT LIFTING.

All-India Championships—

11 Stone (Class—A) Kunthakannon (Madrass) two hands military press (170 pounds), two hands snatch (120 pounds), clean and jerk (230 pounds) Total 370 pounds

12 Stone (Class—Zw) Welk (Burma) two hands military press (180 pounds), two hands snatch (200 pounds), clean and jerk (250 pounds) Total 430 pounds

Heavy weight—Zw Welk (Burma) two hands military press (190 pounds), two hands snatch (270 pounds), clean and jerk (280 pounds) Total 680 pounds

Weight per weight was won by A M Bhattacharam (Madrass) with 112 pounds -

—All-India Amateur Championship—

— All-India Professional Championship —
 Result: —
 Mike Lillis (holder) led by 1,037 points to 1,025

"Erwinston" "Lisette" Mr. J. Fraser
 "Scottish Tern" "Gleanville Charity"
 Cup for best dog owned by a resident of Shish
 Mr. A. Gordon-Murray, Hounslow,
 "Sunset Phalaris" "Lisette" Mr. E. C.
 "Felix's Chihuahua" "Warrior"

(Cup for the best Labrador retriever of female's Labrador
 the Victorian Society of English Ladies
 "Worthless" "Jill" "Mrs. B. Sells
 Cup for the best puppy in the show Mrs. M
 M. Gurney-Lakes "Bourne" "Sunset"
 "Fidelity" "Reverie" "Miss Hume" "Lilacs"
 Fox-Hounds Association
 Cup for the best Wire Fox Terrier Puppy Mrs.
 E. L. Woodridge's Wire Fox Terrier "Simon's"
 (combined)

Poona.

Lord Lloyd's Cup for Athletics won by
Beryl Mann

The Boston Herald (tip for Senator Hickey was won by Belgium. Amundsen were the runners-up

The Gault Cup for Junior Hockey was won by the B and C Railway. Runners-up—G I Railway.

The Kennedy Cup for The-Ol-War was won by Lieutenant Bickner the runner-up received the Sir Walter Raleigh Cup

The Sir Francis Griffith Cup for Cross-Country was won by Belgium

The Rao Bahadur Kojee (up for Westling was won by Alibux Khadir of Bijnpur second prize to Mannu Dhanraj of Nasik

The Lord Sydenham Cup for Physical Training was won by Sholapur Runners-up.

The Sir Leslie Wilson Cup for the best all round man was won by Mohammed Hanif of Belgium, who also won a gold medal!

The Down Challenge Shield was won by Belgium

Individual Prizes—

100 Yards—1. Alahomed Hanif (Belgium)
2. Jiala (P. T. School), 3. Tapram Sukha-
ram (West Khandesh)
Quarter Mile—1. Alahomed Hanif (Belgium);
2. Parnatham Yelapa (Belgium), 3. James
John (Dhruvwar)
Half Mile—1. Kasha Dasraya (West Khan-
desh), 2. Ganpat Balaji (Bombay City),
3. Dawood Ajam (Belgium)
Obstacle Race—1. Ramchandarra Balwant
(Belgium), 2. Hannant Yeshwant
(Belgium)
Relay Race—1. Belgium, 2. Poona
The MacDonald Challenge Cup for Sub-
jectors Shooting Competition was won by
Maleshwar Singh Gokul Singh of Ahmedabad
Kao Sahab B. M. Hane & Cup for H. Q. Sub-
jectors 100 yards was won by Haroon-
Khan Kadharan of Sholapur
—
Indian Officers' Events—
Beatty Memorial Cup for Revolver Shooting
was won by Mr. W. L. K. Harapath
The Souker Cup for Revolver Snaps shooting
was won by Mr. P. M. Stewart
I. P. Officers' Rifle Shooting Cup was won by
Mr. D. W. B. Carmaghan
Mr. D. Healy's Cup for Musket Snaps shooting
was won by Mr. U. N. Hama
The Kennedy Challenge Cup for the best aggre-
gate score in Officers' events was won by
Mr. P. M. Stewart
Officers' 100 Yards Prizes presented by H. B.
the Governor—1. Mr. W. L. K. Harapath,
2. Mr. Paddon-Row

34 Additional Judicial Commissioners, Chief Kangoon, within their charges, Chief Inspector Commissioners or the Aborigine and Nigro of James Commissioners or Police in the Res- Secretary to the Government of Assam - Chief Kangoon, and Settlement

Secretary to the Government of the North-West Frontier Province, Commissioners of Division, Judicial Commissioner, Western India States Agency, and Members of the 2nd Class, Revenue and Divisional Commissioners of the North-West Frontier Province

35 Non-Official Presidents of Municipal Corporations in Presidency Towns and Bazaar, within their respective municipal jurisdictions, Private Secretary to the Viceroy, and Secretaries, Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to Local Governments

41 Collectors of Customs Collectors and Magistrates of Districts, Collector of Salt Revenue and Bombay Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta, Commissioner of Amherst-Nagpur, Deputy Commissioners or Districts, Deputy District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur), Political Agents and Superintendents, and Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class), Commissioners of Income Tax, and

Chief Auditor for State Railways, Chief Com-
missioner General Officer, East Indian Railway,
of Legal Affairs and Government Advertisers
under Local Governments

[illegible]

It Assistant to the Inspector-General of Forests, Budget Officer, Finance Department, Chief Electrical Engineer, Civilian Superintendents of Clothing Factories, Civilian Superintendents of Ordnance Factories, East Indian Railway, Frontier Constabulary, North-West Frontier Province, Comptroller, Assam, Factory Accounts, Controller of Marine Accounts, Controller, Royal Air Force Accounts, Deputy Traffic Managers, and Officers of similar status of State Railways, Deputy Inspectors-General of Police, and various other posts in the Civil Hospitals, Inspector-General of Police, and in the North-West Frontier Province, Inspector-General of Prisons under Local Governments, Master of Sooty Press, Nask, Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Indian Political Department of 28 years' civil service, whose position but for this article would not be lower than article 55, Joint Masters, Calcutta and Bombay, President of the Forest College and Research Institute, Provincial Directors of Public Health, and Traffic Managers and Locomotive Superintendents of State Railways.

37. Military Secretary to the Viceroy
38. Solicitor to the Government of India
and Standing Counsel for the Presidency of Bengal
39. Presidency Senior Chaplains of the Church of Scotland
40. Chairman of Port Trusts and of Improvement Works of the Presidency Towns, Rangoon and Karachi, Chief Revenue Officers of the Municipalities of the Presidency Towns and Municipalities of the Presidency Towns and European Telegraph Department, Directors of the Indian Medical Research, Directors of the Persian Gulf Deputy Military Accountant-General, Director, Deputy Assistant-General of Police, (Arabian), Deputy Inspectors-General of Police, Ordnance Factories and Manufacture (a Director), Intelligence Bureau, Deputy Director-General, Telegraph Transo; Deputy Director-General of the Post Office, Deputy Director, Indian Medical Service, Under Engineer, Telegraphs, Deputy Director-General of the Government of India

* Present incumbents of the office of Chief Engineer who have ranked in entry 33 of the Warrant of 1898 will rank in entry 33 of this Warrant until they relinquish their office as Chief Engineers.

Officers of similar status are Deputy Superintendents, Locomotive Superintendents, Carriage and Wagon Department, Chief Medical Officer, Senior Signaler, Deputy Chief Transporters, State Railways Coal Superintendents, Deputy Chief Commercial Managers, Deputy Chief Mechanical Engineers, and Deputy Chief Inspectors.

[illegible]

Salutes of 9 guns

Basahar Raja Padam Singh, Raja of.
 Maharaja Nawab Sir Amir-ud-din Ahmad Khan
 Bahadur, K O I R, ex-Nawab of
 Along Mte, Uchun Mlang, K S K, Sawbwa of

Local Salutes.

Salutes of 21 guns

Bhopal The Begam (or Nawab) of. Within
 the limits of her (or his) own territories,
 permanently

Indore The Maharaja (Holkar) of. Within
 the limits of his own territories, permanently
 Udaipur (Mewar) The Maharana of. With-
 in the limits of his own territories, per-
 manently.

Salute of 19 guns

Bharatpur The Maharaja of.
 Bikaner The Maharaja of.
 Cutch The Maharaja of
 Jaipur The Maharaja of
 Jodhpur (Marwar). The Maharaja of
 Patana The Maharaja of
 (Within the limits of their own territories
 permanently)

Salute of 17 guns

Alwar The Maharaja of
 Khalpur The Mir of
 (Within the limits of their own territories
 permanently)

Salutes of 16 guns.

Benares. The Maharaja of.
 Bhanuagar The Maharaja of.
 Jind The Maharaja of.
 Jansagdh The Nawab of
 Kapurthala. The Maharaja of
 Nabha The Maharaja of
 Nawansagar. The Maharaja of
 Ratlam The Maharaja of
 (Within the limits of their own territories,
 permanently)

Salutes of 13 guns

Tanjore The Nawab of (Within the limits
 of his own territory, permanently).

Salutes of 17 guns.

Alwar Colonel His Highness Sewai Maharaj
 Shri Jey Singhji, G O I R, K O S I., Maharaja of

Dholpur Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
 Maharajadhiraja Shri Sawai Maharaj-Rana
 Sir Udaibhan Singh Lokandar Bahadur Dier
 Jang Jal Deo, K O S I., K O V O., Maharaja
 Rana of

Oroina His Highness Alabartia Mahendra
 Sir Pratal Singh Bahadur, G O S I.,
 G O I R, Maharaja of

Salutes of 16 guns

Benares Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
 Maharaja Sir Parbhu Narayan, Singh
 Bahadur, G O S I., G O I R, Maharaja of
 Jind. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
 Maharaja Sir Kanbir Singh Rajendra Baba-
 dur, G O I R, K O S I., Maharaja of

Jungnadh His Highness Vahi Abad Mohabai
 Khauri Rasulkhanji, Nawab of.

Kapurthala Colonel His Highness Maharaja
 Sir Jagrajit Singh Bahadur, G O S I., G O I R,
 G U R, Maharaja of

Nawansagar Colonel His Highness, Maharaja
 Shri Digvijaysinghi, Maharaja of
 Aga Khan, His Highness Aga Sir Sulkan
 Muhammad Shah, G O S I., G O I R, G O V O., of
 Bombay

Salutes of 11 guns.

Baria Captain H. H. Maharawal Shri Sir
 Ranjitsinghi Mansinghi, K O S I., Raja of
 Chitral His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja-u-
 Milk, K O I R, Mehtar of

Dharwadpur H H Maharaja Vijayadevi of
 Lunawada. His Highness Maharana Birbhadra-
 singhi, Raja of

Sangli, Lt-Meherban Sir Chintamurao
 Dhandro alias Appa Sahab Patwardhan,
 K O I R, Raja of

Vankar Captain His Highness Raj Sahab
 Sir Amarsinghi Banesinghi, K O I R, Raja
 Sahab of.

Salutes of 11 guns. Within the limits of his own territory, permanently.

Salutes of 5 guns. Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Abu Dhabi, The Shaikh of
Emir Abdu, The Governor of
Muscat, The Governor of
Uman, The Governor of
Uman-ul-Qawain, The Shaikh of

I fire on occasions when he visits one of his Majesty's ships as his father's representative

Salutes of 3 guns.

Uman, The Shaikh of
Uman-ul-Qawain, The Shaikh of
Uman, The Shaikh of
Uman-ul-Qawain, The Shaikh of

I fire by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of official visits by these Chiefs.

Salutes of 11 guns.

His Excellency Shakh Sir Izzat Ali Khan, Shaikh of Bahrein.

Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL LOCAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 17 guns.

Council of Ministers (as a whole) of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat.

Salutes of 13 guns.

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat, when a member of the ruling family.

Salutes of 9 guns.

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat when not a member of the ruling family.

Salutes of 7 guns.

Bahrein. The Shaikh of
Kuwait. The Shaikh of
Mubarrak. The Shaikh of
Qatar. The Shaikh of.

Salutes of 5 guns.

Bahrein eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family.
Kuwait eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family.
Individual Members of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat.

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 13 guns.

His Excellency Shakh Sir Khanal Khan, Shaikh of Mubarrak.
G.O.P., Nos. 1, Shaikh of Mubarrak.
Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Indian Orders.

The Star of India.

Sovereign of the Order.—His Most Gracious Majesty The King Emperor of India.

Grand Master of the Order.—His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of India, the Right Honourable Viscount Willingdon, P. C. G. M. S. I., G. M. I. M., G. B. E.

Officers of the Order.—*Registrar* Col the Hon Sir George Arthur Charles Creighton, K. C. V. O., Secretary of the Central Chancery of the Orders of Knighthood, St James' Palace London, W. 1

Secretary The Hon'ble Sir Bertrand Glanville C. I. D., C. S. I., Secretary to the Government of India in the Foreign and Political Department

Extra Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

H. I. M. The Queen-Empress
H. R. H. The Duke of Connaught
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales.

Honorary Knights Commanders (K. C. S. I.)

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khazim Khan, G. C. I. E., Sardar Aqdas, Shaikh of Mubram-march and dependences

Prince Ismail Mirza, Mohammad-ed-Don Jeli Amir-i-Akram, son of His Royal Highness Edward-Dowell, Zul-es-Sultan of Persia

Honorary Colonel Supradipita Janyabdar (General) Sir Baber Shum Shere Jung, Bahadur Khan, G. B. E., K. C. I. E., of Nepal-ese Army (Nepal)

Honorary Sir Tammur bin Rasal bin-us-Sayid Turki, K. C. I. D., Sultan of Masagat and Oman Shaikh Hamad bin Isa al Khatib, son of the Shaikh of Bahrain

His Excellency Shaikh Ahmad bin Jabina Sabah, O. I. E., Ruler of Kuwait

Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

H. H. The Gaskwar of Baroda
Baron Amphill
H. H. The Maharaja of Mysore
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst
Sir John Hewitt
H. H. The Maharaja of Bilkaner
H. H. Alauddin of Kotah
H. H. The Maharaja of Kapurthala
His Royal Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad

H. H. The Gaskwar of Baroda
Baron Amphill
H. H. The Maharaja of Mysore
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst
Sir John Hewitt
H. H. The Maharaja of Bilkaner
H. H. Alauddin of Kotah
H. H. The Maharaja of Kapurthala
His Royal Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad
H. H. The Aza Khan
H. H. The Maharaja of Dutch
Viscount Willingdon
H. H. The Maharaja of Patiala
The Marquess of Reading

The Order of the Star of India was instituted by Queen Victoria in 1861, and enlarged in 1866, 1875, 1876, 1897, 1902, 1911, 1915 and 1920 and conferred on Princes or Chiefs of India, or upon British subjects for important and loyal services rendered to the Indian Empire, the second and third classes for services in the Indian Empire thirty years in the department of the Secretary of State for India. It consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master (the Viceroy of India), the first class of forty-four Knights Grand Commanders (22 British and 22 Indian), the second class of one hundred Knights Commanders, and the third class of two hundred and twenty-five Companions, exclusive of Extra and Honorary Members, as well as certain additional Knights and Companions.

The insignia are (1) the Collar of gold, composed of the lobes of India, of palm branches tied together in satire, of the united red and white rose, and in the centre an Imperial Crown. Knight Grand Commander is composed of rays of gold issuing from a centre, having thereon a light blue enamelled circular ribbon, tied at the ends and inscribed with the motto of the Order, *Heaven's light our guide*, also in diamonds. That of a Knight Commander is somewhat different, and is described below (ii) The Badge, an oval, having Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy thereon, set in a performed and ornamental oval, containing the motto of the Order surmounted by a star of five points, all in diamonds (iv) The Mantle of light blue satin lined with white, and fastened with a cord of white silk with blue and silver tassels. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order

The ribbon of the Order (four inches wide for Knights Grand Commanders) is sky-blue, having a narrow white stripe towards either edge, and is worn from the right shoulder to the left side. A Knight Commander wears (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width of the same colours and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander, and pendant therefrom a badge of a smaller size, (b) on his left breast a Star composed of rays of silver issuing from a gold centre, having thereon a silver star of five points resting upon a light blue enamelled circular ribbon, tied at the ends, inscribed with the motto of the Order in diamonds. A Companion wears around his neck a badge of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of a smaller size pendant to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches. All insignia are returnable at death to the Central Chancery, or if the recipient was resident in India, to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

The Marquess of Zetland.
H. H. The Maharaja of Alwar
Baron Lloyd
Viscount Lee of Fareham
The Earl of Lytton

Baron Irwin

Sir Harcourt Butler

Sir Leslie Wilson

Viscount Goschen

Field Marshal Sir William Birdwood

The Right Honourable Sir John Allsobrook

Simon

Field-Marshal Sir Claud William Jacob

His Highness The Maharaja of Udaipur

His Highness The Maharaja of Kolhapur

Viscount Peel

Lieut.-Col. The Right Honourable Sir Francis

Stanley Jackson

H. H. The Nawab of Bhopal

H. H. Sir William Malcolm Hailey.

H. H. The Maharaja of Kashmir

Lieutenant-Colonel The Right Honourable Sir

Samuel John Gurney Hoare

The Right Honourable Sir Frederick Hugh Sykes.

Lt.-Col. The Right Honble Sir George Frederick

Stanley

Field Marshal His Excellency Sir Philip

Crichton

Knights Commanders (K.C.S.I.)

Sir Hugh Shakespear Barnes

Sir Arthur Henry Temple Martindale

Sir Joseph Bampfylde Fuller

Sir Charles Stuart Bayley

H. H. Maharaja of Jind

Sir George Stuart Forbes

H. H. Maharaja of Baham

Sir Harvey Adamson

Nawab of Murshidabad

Sir John Ontario Miller

Sir Murray Hammett

Sir Reginald Henry Craddock

Sir James McCrone Douie

Lord Meston of Agre and Dunottar

Sir Benjamin Robertson

Maharajadhiraja of Burdwan

Sir Elliot Graham Colvin

Sir Frederick Racheigh Wyne

Sir M. J. O'Dwyer

H. H. Maharaja of Dewas State (Senior Branch)

Sir Michael William Kenyon

Colonel Sir Sidney Gerald Burrard

Sir P. Sundaram Alvar Sivaswami Alvar

Sir Edward Albert Galt

H. H. Nawab of Alwar Kotla

Sir William Henry Clark

Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox

Sir Steynning William Ridgeway

Sir Harrington Vernon Lovett

Sir Robert Woodburn Gillan

Maharaja Sri Bharon Singh Bahadur

Sir Alexander Gordon Cardew

Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly

H. H. The Maharaja of Dharmagadhra

Lieut.-Col. Sir F. B. Youngusband

Sir T. Morrison

Lieut.-Gen R. O. Stuart

Sir George Rivers Lowndes

H. H. Maharajadhiraja Maharawal Sri

Sir Stuart Milford Fraser

H. H. The Maharaja of Datta

H. H. The Maharaja of Dholpur

Lieut.-General Sir William Raine Marshall

Sir William Vincent

Sir James Bennett Brundage

Sir Sydney Arthur Taylor Rowland

Sir G. Carmichael

Dr. Sir M. B. Sadler

Major-General Sir Harry Triggott Brooking

Major-General Sir George Frederick MacLennan

The Right Honble Lord Southborough

Sir George Barnes

Sir Edward MacLagan

Sir William Murray

Sir D. Beilison-Bell

Sir L. J. Kerzhaw

Sir L. Davidson

The Honble Sir O. G. Toddhunter

Sir Henry Wheeler

Captain His Highness Maharawal Shri Sir R.

His Highness Maharawal Shri Sir R.

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His Highness Maharawal Shri Sir R.

Major Edmund Vivian Gabriel	Major Edmund Vivian Gabriel
Sir John Stuart Donald	Sir John Stuart Donald
Henry Montague Segundo Mathews	Henry Montague Segundo Mathews
Majut Sir Ahmad Hussain Nawab Amir Jang	Majut Sir Ahmad Hussain Nawab Amir Jang
Sir Horace Charles Miles	Sir Horace Charles Miles
Lieut-Col Arthur Ransell Aldridge	Lieut-Col Arthur Ransell Aldridge
Lieut-Col Sir Llewellyn Richard Henry Wilson	Lieut-Col Sir Llewellyn Richard Henry Wilson
John Charles Burnham	John Charles Burnham
Col. Thomas Francis Bruce Kenny-Tallour	Col. Thomas Francis Bruce Kenny-Tallour
Col. Alvin Charter de Lobbiere Joly de	Col. Alvin Charter de Lobbiere Joly de
Lobbiere	Lobbiere
Lieut-Col Charles Mowbray Dallas	Lieut-Col Charles Mowbray Dallas
Edward Henry Beaumander Clarke	Edward Henry Beaumander Clarke
Sir Jagdish Chandra Bose	Sir Jagdish Chandra Bose
General Campbell Lees	General Campbell Lees
Lieut-Col Albert Edward Woods	Lieut-Col Albert Edward Woods
William Rexall Tennest Bennett	William Rexall Tennest Bennett
William Ogilvie Horne	William Ogilvie Horne
William Harrington Reid	William Harrington Reid
Sir Henry Ashbrooke Crump	Sir Henry Ashbrooke Crump
Sir William James Reid	Sir William James Reid
Valter Gunnell Wood	Valter Gunnell Wood
John Cornwalle Godley	John Cornwalle Godley
A Butterworth	A Butterworth
Sir Hubert John Maynard	Sir Hubert John Maynard
Lt-Col. A. B. Dow	Lt-Col. A. B. Dow
Sir Hugh T. Keeling	Sir Hugh T. Keeling
Sir Henry Sharp	Sir Henry Sharp
Sir Robert R. Scott	Sir Robert R. Scott
Rear-Admiral Arthur Hayes-Sadler	Rear-Admiral Arthur Hayes-Sadler
Laurence Robertson	Laurence Robertson
Sir John Ghest Cumming	Sir John Ghest Cumming
Lieut-Col Stephen Lushington Ailin	Lieut-Col Stephen Lushington Ailin
Sir James Houseman Duboulay	Sir James Houseman Duboulay
Major-General Sir Arthur Wigram Money	Major-General Sir Arthur Wigram Money
T. A. Chalmers	T. A. Chalmers
R. Burn	R. Burn
Sir Godfrey B. H. Fell	Sir Godfrey B. H. Fell
Major-General Sir W. C. Knight	Major-General Sir W. C. Knight
Sir Patrick James Ragan	Sir Patrick James Ragan
Lt-Col Lawrence Impey	Lt-Col Lawrence Impey
Col Benjamin William Marlow	Col Benjamin William Marlow
Lt-Col Harold Renton Jacob	Lt-Col Harold Renton Jacob
Lt-Col Francis Beville Fridesaux	Lt-Col Francis Beville Fridesaux
Lt-Col Stuart George Knox	Lt-Col Stuart George Knox
Col Sir Hugh Whitechurch Perry	Col Sir Hugh Whitechurch Perry
Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William Oldham	Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William Oldham
Francis Cooper French	Francis Cooper French
Sir Horatio Norman Bolton	Sir Horatio Norman Bolton
Colonel H. B. Hopwood	Colonel H. B. Hopwood
Brig-General R. H. W. Hughes	Brig-General R. H. W. Hughes
L. E. Buckley	L. E. Buckley
O. H. Bompas	O. H. Bompas
M. J. S. Gubbay	M. J. S. Gubbay
Major-General J. M. Walker	Major-General J. M. Walker
Brig-General W. G. Hamilton	Brig-General W. G. Hamilton
Major Sir Alexander J. Anderson	Major Sir Alexander J. Anderson
H. E. Sir James David Sifton	H. E. Sir James David Sifton
H. J. Sir Michael Kenne	H. J. Sir Michael Kenne
Lieut-Col H. Sir Ralph Grimeth	Lieut-Col H. Sir Ralph Grimeth
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Alian Sir Fazl-i-	The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Alian Sir Fazl-i-
Hussain	Hussain
The Hon'ble Sir Joseph William Bhore	The Hon'ble Sir Joseph William Bhore
The Hon'ble Sir Harry Haig	The Hon'ble Sir Harry Haig
The Hon'ble Captain Nawab Sir Muhammad	The Hon'ble Captain Nawab Sir Muhammad
Ahmed Said Khan, of Chitral	Ahmed Said Khan, of Chitral
The Hon'ble Sir Henry Dailch Cank	The Hon'ble Sir Henry Dailch Cank
Vice-Admiral Sir Humphrey Thomas Walyn	Vice-Admiral Sir Humphrey Thomas Walyn
Sir Reginald Arthur Mant	Sir Reginald Arthur Mant
H. L. Sir Herbert William Emerson	H. L. Sir Herbert William Emerson
H. II the Maharaja of Benares	H. II the Maharaja of Benares
Sir Ghulam Husain Hidayatullah	Sir Ghulam Husain Hidayatullah
H. I Sir Clarence Gown	H. I Sir Clarence Gown
H. H the Maharaja of Manipur	H. H the Maharaja of Manipur
Sir Edward Maynard des Champs Chamner	Sir Edward Maynard des Champs Chamner
The Hon'ble Sir Frank Noyes	The Hon'ble Sir Frank Noyes
H. H the Raja of Sanyatrad	H. H the Raja of Sanyatrad
The Hon'ble Sir John Achroyd Woodhead	The Hon'ble Sir John Achroyd Woodhead
H. H The Maharaja of Karauli	H. H The Maharaja of Karauli
His Highness Sri Lakshman Singh of Durgapur	His Highness Sri Lakshman Singh of Durgapur
His Highness the Maharaja Jam Sahab of	His Highness the Maharaja Jam Sahab of
Nawabgarh	Nawabgarh
The Hon'ble Sir D. Bell	The Hon'ble Sir D. Bell
Sir M. L. Gwyer	Sir M. L. Gwyer
Companions (C S I)	Companions (C S I)
Col Charles Edward Yate.	Col Charles Edward Yate.
Henry Aiken Anderson	Henry Aiken Anderson
Lieut-Col Sir Arthur Henry McAlhoun	Lieut-Col Sir Arthur Henry McAlhoun
Charles Gerwen Bayno	Charles Gerwen Bayno
Hartley Kennedy	Hartley Kennedy
William Charles Macpherson	William Charles Macpherson
Col James Alexander Lawrence Montgomery	Col James Alexander Lawrence Montgomery
Richard Townsend Greer	Richard Townsend Greer
Sir Louis William Dane	Sir Louis William Dane
Hermann Michael Kisch	Hermann Michael Kisch
Sir Cecil Michael Willford Brett	Sir Cecil Michael Willford Brett
Sir Frank Campbell Gates	Sir Frank Campbell Gates
John Mitchell Holmes	John Mitchell Holmes
Oscar Theodore Barrow	Oscar Theodore Barrow
Francis Alexander Slacks	Francis Alexander Slacks
Frey Comyn Lyon	Frey Comyn Lyon
William Arbuthnot Inglis	William Arbuthnot Inglis
John Alexander Brown	John Alexander Brown
Manrice Walter Fox-Stangways	Manrice Walter Fox-Stangways
William Lochiel Sapie Lovett Cameron	William Lochiel Sapie Lovett Cameron
Maj-Gen. Sir Henry Montague Pakington	Maj-Gen. Sir Henry Montague Pakington
Hawkes	Hawkes
Francis Capel Harrison	Francis Capel Harrison
Andrew Edmund Castle Stuart	Andrew Edmund Castle Stuart
Norman Goodford Cholmsley	Norman Goodford Cholmsley
Walter Francis Rice	Walter Francis Rice
Rear-Admiral Allen Thomas Hunt	Rear-Admiral Allen Thomas Hunt
Sir John Walter Rose	Sir John Walter Rose
Charles Ernest Fear Goumont	Charles Ernest Fear Goumont
George Moss Harriot	George Moss Harriot
Ernest Herbert Cooper Walsh	Ernest Herbert Cooper Walsh
Sir Edward Vere Levinge	Sir Edward Vere Levinge
James Peter Orr	James Peter Orr
Herbert Alexander Casson	Herbert Alexander Casson
William Axel Hertz	William Axel Hertz
Brevet-Colonel Sir Chive Wigram	Brevet-Colonel Sir Chive Wigram
Herbert Thompson	Herbert Thompson
Lieut-Col John Ramsay	Lieut-Col John Ramsay
Stuart Lockwood Maddox	Stuart Lockwood Maddox
Lieut-Col Phillip Richard Thornburgh Gurdon	Lieut-Col Phillip Richard Thornburgh Gurdon

Major-General Sir Theodore Fraser
Major-General L. O. Dunsterville
Sir Hugh Macpherson
Sir Henry Fraser Mowbray
Lieut.-Col. Berber Des Vaux
Col. Charles Fitzroy
Sir Evelyn Baillie Llewellyn
Major-General Sir John Fordal Macdonald
Col. Herbert Evans Bayley Nepean
Lieut.-Col. Patrick Robert Cadell
Lieut.-Col. Montagu William Douglas
Richard Meredith
Sir Vardaval Nandahankar Mehta
Lieut.-Col. Sir Thomas Wolseley Haig
Herbert Cameron Norman
Major-General James Wilson O'Dowd
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson
Colonel (Temporary) Colonel-on-the-staff Charles Ernest Graham Norton
Captain Wilfrid Nunn
Major-General Hubert Isako
Colonel Stewart Gordon Loch
Col. Frederick James Moberly
Brigadier-General Robert Fox Somble
Major-General William Cross Barratt
Temporary Brigadier-General Sir Edward Hugh Bray
Col. (Honorary Brigadier-General) Arthur Howarth
Ptyce Harrison
Colonel (Temporary Major-General) Frank Ernest Johnson
Major-General Robert Archibald Cassels
Frederick Campbell Rose
Sir Selwyn Ilwaco Freemanble
Peter William N'omie
Major-General Charles Ashley Fowler
Colonel Michael Edward Willoughby
Major-General Edward Arthur Ragan
Major-General Herbert William Jackson
Lieut.-Col. Arthur Leslie Jacob
The Hon'ble William Fell Barton
C. E. Payne
W. J. J. Howley
Sir Benjamin P. Standen
Sir John L. Mailey
Lieut.-Col. J. T. W. R. French-Mullen
Lieut.-Col. J. T. H. Gordon, O.B.
Colonel C. W. Proteit
H. M. R. Hopkins
R. A. Graham
Clara Alexander Barton
Sir Geoffrey R. Clarke
Lieut.-Col. D. Donald
Khan Bahadur Sardar Muhammad Ali Khan Qazilbash
Col. G. B. M. Sarel
Col. D. A. D. McVean
Col. H. G. Burford
Col. J. H. Foster Lakin
Major-General G. A. H. Bostly.
Sir Robert Holland
O. J. Halliday
Lieut.-General H. F. Cooke
Lieut.-Col. H. M. P. P. P.
T. T. Harris
Sir Albion Bakker Bhaneri
Sir Reginald Ghaney
W. H. Gourlay
Lieut.-General Sir Kenneth Wigram, I.A.

Real Bahadur Dewan Bishan Das
Sir Arthur Kowland Knapp
Charles Montagu King
Raj Bahadur Raju Pandit Hari Kishan Kaul
S. R. Mignell
Major-General S. R. Mignell
W. E. Coppleston
Frederick B. Evans
R. O. Allen
J. B. Webster
Dhan Bahadur Raghunatha Rao Bann Chandra
Rao Avargal
Sardar Bahadur Nawab Mehrab Khan, Chhel
of Bught Tribe
Sir Godfrey John Vignoles Thomas, Bart.
Cape Dingley Burton Napier North
Sir Edward N. Cook, I.O.S.
Sir Francis Charles Griffith
Major-General Sir Katoji Shingh
Sir John R. Campbell
J. Milne
The Hon'ble Sir James Donald
Lieut.-Col. Sir W. P. O'Connor
E. S. Lloyd
L. B. Morehead
Sir S. A. Smith
Colonel W. H. Jellicoe
G. G. Adam
Dewan Bahadur T. Raghavaya Pantulu Gann
Raja Biju Bhasi Khan of Johannabad
D. H. Lees
H. P. Tillington
I. W. McNair
W. Sutherland
Captain Sir E. J. Meadlam
S. J. Stewart
Sir D. J. Chadwick
M. R. Conchman
R. G. Pratt
Sir R. Oakden
Major-General Sir T. H. Symons
R. Lewisohn
W. P. Sangster
J. Emerson
A. H. Ley
Sir E. Burton
A. W. Pym
The Hon'ble Sir A. W. Rothman
L. Bailey
N. M. M. M.
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B. Foley
A. Langley
Lieutenant-Colonel M. L. Ferrar
The Hon'ble Brigadier-General Sir T. H. Keyes
R. J. S. Dodd
Major H. G. Vaux
Sir Leonard Reynolds
H. G. Stokes
Rana Bhagatchand, Raja of Jubbah
J. O. Ker
Sir M. G. Simpson
Lieut.-Colonel O. H. Bruce
R. T. Harrison
O. T. Mullings
H. L. Birdwood
J. Ghosal

The Most Eminent Order of the

Indian Empire.

This Order, instituted by H. M. Queen Victoria, Empress of India, December 1877, and extended and enlarged in 1886, 1887, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1911, 1915 and 1920 is conferred for services rendered to the Indian Empire, and consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master, forty Knights and Commanders (of whom the Grand Master is first and principal), one hundred and forty Knights Commanders, and an indefinite number of Companions (not exceeding, without special authority, 20 nominations in any one year), also Extra and Honorary Members over and above the vacancies caused by promotion to a higher class of the Order, as well as certain additional Knights and Companions appointed by special statute Jan 1st, 1909, commemorative of the 60th Anniversary of the assumption of Crown Govt in India.

The insignia are (i) The Collar of gold formed of elephants, lotus flowers, peacocks in their pride, and Indian roses, in the centre the Imperial Crown, the whole linked together with chains; (ii) The Star of the Knight Grand Commander, comprised of five rays of silver, having a small ray of gold between each of them, the whole alternately plain and scaled, issuing from a gold centre, having thereon Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold inscribed *Imperatrix Austrie*, and surmounted by an Imperial Crown gold; (iii) The Badge consisting of a rose, enamelled silver, barbed vert, and having in the centre Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold, also surmounted by an Imperial Crown, also gold; (iv) The Master is of Imperial purple satin, lined with and fastened by a cord of white silk, with purple silk and gold tassels attached. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

A Knight Commander wears (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width, of the same colour (purple) and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander, pendant therefrom a badge of smaller size. (b) on his left breast a star, similar to that of the first class, but the rays of which are all of silver.

The above mentioned Insignia are returned at death to the Central Chancery, or if the Knight was resident in India to the Secretary of the Order.

A Companion wears around his neck a cord (not returnable at death) of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of smaller size, pendant to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches.

Sovereign of the Order.—His Most Gracious Majesty The King—Emperor of India.
Grand Master of the Order.—H. R. the Viceroy (Viscount Alington).
Officers of the Order.—The same as for the Order of the Star of India.
Extra Knight Grand Commanders
 (G. C. I. E.)
 The Duke of Connaught
 H. R. H. The Prince of Wales

J. H. Field
 W. H. J. Wilkinson-Guillemard.
 W. H. J. Thomson
 O. J. Irvine
 J. E. C. Jones
 H. A. B. Vernon
 The Hon'ble Mr. Thomas Cooper
 Nawab Malik Hayat Khan Nizam.
 Kunwar Jagdish Prasad.
 H. K. Briscoe.
 Sir Charles Tegart.
 G. Wiles
 O. Lister
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 C. B. Cunningham.
 T. H. Morgan.
 Rajah Padam Singh, Raja of Bashahr
 T. M. Stubbs
 G. Cunningham
 Col. W. H. Evans.
 G. S. Wilson.
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 Robert Duncan Bell
 John Taitton White
 Henry George Walton, I.O.S.
 Sir George Anderson, Kt.
 Colonel John Philip Cameron, I.M.S.
 David George Mitchell, I.O.S.
 Douglas Gordon Harris.
 Brevet-Colonel Frederic Percival Mackie
 The Hon'ble Mr. David George Lloyd, I.O.S.
 The Hon'ble Mr. Bertrand James Clancy
 The Hon'ble Mr. John Collard Bernard Drake,
 Charles William Aldis Turner, I.O.S.
 Charles Alexander Souter, I.O.S.
 The Hon'ble Mr. John Austen Hubback, I.O.S.
 Major Livingston Drake-Brockman, I.O.S.
 John Arthur Laing Swan, I.O.S.
 Arthur Ralph Astbury.
 H. A. F. Macdonald
 H. Calvert.
 C. B. Cockerell.
 B. M. Maxwell
 A. H. MacKenzie
 W. H. Lewis
 A. H. Lloyd
 B. N. Reid
 J. M. Clay
 B. H. Thomas
 B. H. Webb
 The Hon'ble Mr. G. Hallett.
 G. T. H. Bracken
 P. C. Talbot
 B. H. Bockett
 J. J. Patrick.
 V. Hart
 G. Gordon
 T. A. Stewart
 A. G. Clow
 F. A. Sachse
 E. R. Thomas
 C. O. Garbett
 Holy Brigadier G. P. Sanders
 Col. D. B. Ross

Honorary Knights Grand Commanders

(G C I. E.)

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Mokannurah and Dependences.
II. H. Inam Sir Abdul Aziz bin Abdul
Rahman bin Fatah-al-Saud Sultan of Nejd
and Dependences.
II. H. the Prime Minister of Nepal.

Honorary Knights Commanders

(K. C. I. E.)

Sir Leon R. Clement-Thomas
Dr. Sir Sven Von Hedin
Cavaliere Sir Filippo De' Rippoli
Honorary Colonel Supraditka Mangabur,
General Sir Baber Shumshere Jung Bahadur,
Rana of Nepal
II. H. Sultan Sir Abdul Karim Badshah bin Ali
Sultan of Lashay
Sir Alfred Martinson
Commanding General Sir Padma Shum Shere
Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal
Gen. Sir Tej Shum Shere Jung Bahadur, Rana
of Nepal
II. H. General Sir Yang-tseng-hai, Ohlang Chue
and Governor of Hain Kiang Province
General Sir Mohan Shumshere Jung Bahadur,
Rana of Nepal.
II. H. Sayid Sir Talmar bin Fatah bin-us-
Said Turk, CSI, Sultan of Muscat and
Oman
His Highness the Maharaja of Bhutan,
II. H. Shaikh Sir Ahmed bin Jabbar Sabab,
Ruler of Kuwait
II. H. Shaikh Hamid bin Tas Al
Khalaf Shaikh of Bahrain, CSI.

Knights Grand Commanders (G.C.I.E.)

II. H. The Maharaja of Cutch
II. H. The Maharaja of Gondal
Lord Ampthill
II. H. The Aga Khan
Lord Lamington
Sir Walter Lawrence
II. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner
II. H. The Maharaja of Kotab
Maharaja Peshkar Sir Kishan Parbhad
Lord Hardinge
Sir Louis Dane
Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson
II. H. The Maharaja of Patiala
Lord Willington
The Yuvaraja of Mysore
Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
II. H. the Maharaja of Sind
The Marquess of Zetland
Sir Michael Francis O'Dwyer
Sir Gulam Muhammad Ali, Prince of Arcoo
Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox
II. H. Tukoji Rao III, ex-Maharaja of Indore
Lord Lloyd
II. H. The Maharaja of Baroda
II. H. The Maharaja of Alwar
II. H. The Maharaja of Kapurthala
The Marquess of Reading
Lord Lytton
II. H. The Maharaja of Dhargadhra.

Knights Commanders (K. C. I. E.)

The Right Hon'ble Rowland Thomas Baring,
Kart of Crompton, & Co.
Sir William Henry Moore Vincent.
Sir Isaacourt Butler
Sir Reginald Craddock.
Lt. Hon. Sir Leslie Orme Wilson
Maharajadhiraj Sir Bijay Chand Mahab
Bahadur of Burwad
Viscount Glesdon
II. H. The Maharaja of Kolhapur.
Lord Irwin
The Rt Hon Sir Francis Stanley Jackson.
II. H. Sir Malcolm Hayley.
II. H. Maharaja Sir Hari Singh of Kashmir
The Right Hon'ble Sir Frederick Stiles
II. H. the Nawab of Bhopal
Viscountess of Linlithgow
Lt.-Col The Right Hon'ble Sir George Frederick
Stanley.
II. H. the Maharaja of Jodhpur
His Highness the Maharaja of Rewa
His Highness the Maharaja of Kota
His Highness the Nawab of Junagadh.
His Highness the Maharaja of Bahawalpur.
His Highness the Maharaja of Khatim
His Highness the Maharaja of Bahawalpur
Sir Kham Singh Bahadur, Maharaja of
Sirohi
Major His Highness Nawab Sir Talay Maham
mad Khan, Nawab of Balapur
II. H. the Right Hon'ble Sir John Anderson.
II. H. The Maharaja of Datta
II. H. Sir Geoffrey Fitzherby De Montmorency
Sir Laili Chandra Chatterjee.
His Excellency Lt. H. R. Baron Bramboun
II. H. John Francis Ashley Lord Keshw
II. H. The Maharaja of Cochin
His Highness the Maharaja of Travancore
Sir Findlater Stewart.
Bx-Nawab of Loharn
Sir Andrew Wingate
Sir Alexander Cunningham
Sir James George Scott
Sir Frederick Augustus Nicholson
Sir Gangadharrao Ganesh, Chief of (Mrs)
(Senior Branch)
Brevel-Col. Sir Buchanan Scott
Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edward Youngusband
Dr. Sir Thomas Henry Holland
Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
II. H. the Maharaja of Sind
The Marquess of Zetland
Sir Michael Francis O'Dwyer
Sir Gulam Muhammad Ali, Prince of Arcoo
Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox
II. H. Tukoji Rao III, ex-Maharaja of Indore
Lord Lloyd
II. H. The Maharaja of Baroda
II. H. The Maharaja of Alwar
II. H. The Maharaja of Kapurthala
The Marquess of Reading
Lord Lytton
II. H. The Maharaja of Dhargadhra.
H. II. The Raja of Sitawan
H. H. The Nawab of Jaora
Lieut.-Col Sir Henry Beauloy Thornhill
Sir Rajendra Nath Mukherji
Sir James Houssemayne Duboulay
Sir Henry Farnall Burt
Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
Gen Sir Malcolm Henry Stanley Grover
Sir Charles Stewart-Wilson
Gen. Sir Robert Irwin Scallan
Sir Theodore Morton
Sir Richard Morris Dane
Sir Trevellyn Haskeligh Wynne
Lieut.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry Maltahan
Dr. Sir Thomas Henry Holland
Brevel-Col. Sir Buchanan Scott
Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edward Youngusband

* Personal Hereditary title is Raja

The Raj Sabab of Wankner	H. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner
Rear-Adm Sir Collin Richard Koppel	Sir John Twigg
Sir George Abraham Grieron	Dr Sir Mare Aurel Stein
Dr Sir Alfred Gibbs Bourne	Sir Frank Campbell Gates
Sir George Macartney	Sir Edward Douglas Macleagan
Major-Gen. Sir George John Youngblood	Sir Brian Gordon
Sir Prabhakar D. Pathani	Lieut.-Col. Sir John Ramsay
Sir William Maxwell	Sir Mokshagundam Visveswaraiah
His Highness the Maharaja of Saurashtra	Sir John Stuart Lonsdale
Lieut.-Col. Sir Percy Moleworth Sykes	Sir Edward Vere Levinge
The Hon'ble Lt.-Col. Nawab Malik Sir Umar	Hayat Khan Thwana
H. E. Sir Henry Wheeler	Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul
Qaim	Lieut.-Gen. Sir Henry D'Urban Keary
Sir George Cunningham Buchanan	Major-Gen. Sir William George Lawrence Beynon
H. H. The Raja of Rajgarh	Maharaja of Sonpur
Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant	Lieut.-Col. Maharaja* Sir Jai Chand, of
Rear-Admiral Sir D. St. A. Wake	Sir Godfrey Butler Hunter Fell
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Alfred Horford Bingley	Lieut.-Gen. Sir Thomas Joseph O'Donnell
Major-Gen. Sir Godfrey William	Sir Nicholas Dodd Beaton Bell
Sir William Simpson Harris	His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja-ul-Mulk Mehtar of
Chitral	Manu Sir Rahim Bakhsh
Sir C. B. Low, I O S	H. H. The Maharaja of Udaipur
Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Mir Shams Shah,	180
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Locke Elliot	Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Alexander Anderson
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Altham Altham	Gen. Sir Havelock Hindson
Major-Gen. Sir Wynndham Charles Knight	Major-Gen. Sir Herbert Aveling Hault
Major-Gen. Sir H. B. Freeland	Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson
2nd Lt. Lieberon Sir M. V. Raje Ghorpade,	Raja of Mirdol
Sir W. Mande, I O S	Sir O. M. Stevenson Moore, I O S
Major-Gen. Sir William Malleson	Major-Gen. Sir Patrick Hehir
Sir J. G. Cunningham	Sir H. J. Maynard
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Andrew Skeen	H. H. The Nawab of Malerkotla
The Thakor Sabab of Limbdi	Sir H. A. Crump
Lt.-Col. Sir A. B. Dew	Raja Sir Muhammad Nazim Khan, Mir of Hunza
Col. Sir W. H. Willcox	H. H. The Maharaja of Panna
Sir P. J. Fagan	Sir Norcott Warren
Raja Sahib Sri Sur Govinda Krishna Yashodattuliv-	varu of Venkatsagiri
Sir O. A. Bell	Manu Sir Ahmad Husain Nawab Amin Jang
Bahadur	Lieutenant-Colonel Sir T. W. Haig
Vice-Admiral Sir Lionel Halsey	H. H. The Maharaja of Sikkim
H. H. The Raja of Sargol	Sir A. R. Knapp
Sir H. R. Howard	H. E. Sir H. L. Stephenson
Sir B. N. Mitra	Sir B. A. Mant
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Muhammad-	mad Muzammil-Ullah Khan of Bhikrampur,
U P	Sir Chhannalal H. Setalvad
Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad Habibulla	Sir H. McPherson
Sir W. J. Reid	Sir B. M. D. Channer
Sir B. B. Holland	The Hon'ble Sir M. B. Dadabhai
Sir G. Balney	Sir O. P. Ramaswami Ayyar
Sir C. P. O'Donnell	Sir D. P. Standen
Sir Denys Bray	Sir H. N. Bolton
Sir M. V. Joshi	Sir John Thompson
Sir William Barton	Sir Frederick William Johnstone
Sir Greenwood Meares	Sir Norman Macdonalds
The Hon'ble Lieutenant Sir Muhammad Ahme-	dan Sarai Khan of Chahatari, U P.
Sir Reginald Ghiesey	Sir Clement Hindley
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Alian	Sir Thomas Middleton
The Hon'ble Sir Alan Pim	Sir Frederic Gamblett
The Hon'ble Lt.-Col. Sir B. H. St John	Sir Alexander M. Stow
The Thakor Sabab of Palitana	The Hon'ble Sir Lancelot Graham
Sir Edwin Lutyens	The Hon'ble Sir Joseph Rhore
Sir Ross Barker	Sir Herbert Baker
Sir Samuel Stewart	Sir Samuel Smyth

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Edward Giles	Col Frank Goodwin	Col Frank Goodwin
Lieut - Col Douglas Donald	Lieut - Col George Frederick Chenavix-Trench	James Adolph Ginder
Raja Sri Srikandhar Khan of Nagar	Charles Henry Wilson	George Huddleston
Lieut - Col Sir Arthur D'Arey Gordon Bannerman	William Bell	Edward Henry Beaumander Clarke
Walter Boyie Gordon	Lieut - Col Robert Arthur Edward Benn	Sir C. Sankaran Nayar
Walter Home	Lieut - Col C W Waddington	Lieut - Col Sir W. R. T. O'Connor
Lionel Truninger	William Harrison Moreland	Sir Montague de Pomeroy Webb
Sir Hugh Villiam Orange	Lieut - Col Charles Archer	Sir Hugh Villiam Orange
Major Lionel Maling Wynch	Major-General William Arthur Watson	Col Alvin Chartier de Lobiniere Joly de
Herbert Cunningham Clogston	Sir Thomas Robert John Ward	Major-General Sir Harry Davis Watson
Sir Derek William George Keppel	Lt-Col Sir David Fraim	Col, William John Daniell Dundee
The Hon'ble Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola	Sir Edward Albert Gait	Robert Greig Kennedy
Col, Henry Thomas Fense	Col Malcolm Sydenham Clarke Campbell	May - Genl, Arthur Le Grand Jacob
Sir Fazlamarin Sundersam Alagar Sivaswami	Francis St George Ramen-Smich	Sir Pabzamarin Sundersam Alagar
Alagar	Field-Marshal Sir William Riddell Birdwood	William Herbert Dobbie
Ralph Butler Hughes-Buller	Lieut - Col Francis Frederico Percy	Dewan Bahadur Sir Daya Krishen Kaul
Lieut - Col Stuart Hill Godfrey	Brigadier-General Ernest William Stuart King	Macdonough
William Ellis Jardine	Sir Frederick Looch Halliday	Percy Wyndham
Cecil Ward Chichele-Powden	Albert Claude Vertieres	Albammad Aziz-ul-din Khan
Nizamdar Mubary	Raj Bahadur Kall Prasanna Ghosh	John Newlands
Lieut - Col Henry Parkin	H B Sir Montagu Sberard Dawes Butler	Lieut - Col Stuart George Knox
Reginald Hugh Breton	Henry Venn Cobb	Reginald Hugh Breton
William Loochiel Berkeley Bouter	Dr Sir John Hubert Marshall	Joseph John Mulla
Alexander Macdonald Rouse	Naja Hrahi Keab Laha	Joseph Terence Owen Barnard
Dunlop	Hony. Lieut - Col, Sir Robert William Layard	Ernest Adrian Lodge
Walter Stanley Talbot	Atkinson	Lieutenant-General Sir Edwin H de Vere
Alexander Blake Shakespear	Sir John Hope Simpson	Lieut - Col William Glen Liston
Lieut - Col Charles Henry James	Lieut - Col Frederick William Wodehouse	Raj Bahadur Raja Kandit Hari Krishan Kaul
Col, Reginald O'Bryan Taylor	Khan	Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad Israr Hasan
Sir Edward Denison Ross	Major-General Sir William Bernard James	Colonel Sir Sydney D'Aguilar Crookshank
Dr Sir Patricia Chander Roy	Col, Francis Raymond	Major-General Sir William Bernard James
Albert John Harrison	Lt-Col John Lawrence William Trench-Mullen	Major Arthur Abercromby Duff
Sir Alfred Chatterton	Pierre Langrathbe Alcoue	Lieut - Col, Arthur Denys Gilbert Ramsay
Charles Archibald Walker Rose	C. A. Barton	Brig - Genl R. B. T. Hogg
Lieut - Col John Glennie Treig	Gerard Francis Keatinge	Col Robert Edward Pemberton Pigott
Col Robert Edward Pemberton Pigott	Col Gilbert Walter Fain	Raja Sir Gurbaksh Singh Bedi
Cecil Archibald Smith	Lieut - Col Frederick Denn Elwes	Lieut - Col Lawrence Impney
Lieut - Col, Sir James Reed Roberts	Lieut - Col, John McKenzie	Lieut - Col, Ernest Douglas Monev
Fandit Kailas Narayan Haksar	Hugh Murray	William Taylor Cathcart
Sir Louis James Kersting	Rev Dr John Anderson Graham	Col, Henry Burden
Col, George Henry Evans	Sir George Sanky Hart	Kaye Edward Robert Blenkinsop
Alexander Emmanuel English	Lieut - Col Sir Leonard Rogers	Sir Henry Sharp
Raj Bahadur Dwan Jamlat Rai	Lieut - Col Sir Leonard Rogers	Lieut - Col Ramsay Frederick Clayton Gordon
deans	Lieut - Col Ramsay Frederick Clayton Gordon	The Hon'ble Lieut - Col, Francis Beville Pri-
Col Benjamin William Marlow	Lieut - Col Edward Gelson Gregon	Lieut - Col Wallace Christopher Ramsay Stratton
Walter Cullley Mudge	James Adolph Ginder	Lieut - Col George Frederick Chenavix-Trench

Charles Chahli Sherdan
 Lieut.-Colonel Herbert de Lisle Pollard-Lowsley
 Colonel William Willard Bickford
 Henry Gustbert Streasfeld
 Lt.-Col Sir Cecil Kaye
 Sir William Foster
 Col G. K. Walker
 Sir Joseph Henry Stone
 Col G. S. Crawford
 Sardar Sir Appaji Rao Bitole Anklikar
 Major W. L. Campbell
 Hony. Lieut.-Col. P. R. Cadell
 Abanindra Nath Tagore
 J. R. Pearson
 Col R. J. Blackham
 Hugh Edward Clerk
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 Frank Charles Daly
 James Gargrave Covertoun
 Louis B. Cobden-Ramsay
 The Hon'ble Rao Bahadur Ranganath Narasingh
 Mudothkar
 Rao Bahadur Sir Raghunath Venkaji Sabnis
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 Leonard Birley
 Frank Frederick Lyall
 Lt.-Col. Frank Currie Lowis
 Lewis French
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 Sir Albert Howard
 Lieut.-Col. B. D. Wilson Greig
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 Francis Samuel Alfred Slocock
 Lieut.-Col Arthur Leslie Jacob
 Dr. Thomas Summers
 Kiran Chandra De
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 Charles Alonstague King
 Shiekh Haiz Hussain, Khan Bahadur Nawab
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 William Peter Sangster
 Lieut.-Col Frederick Marsbman Bailey
 Sahibzada Sir Abdus Samad, Khan of Rampur
 Cecil Bernard Cottrell
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 Dr Zu-ud-din Ahmed
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 Kumar Sir Maharsj Singh
 Sir David Petrie
 Godfrey Charles Denham
 Lt.-Col. Charles Joseph Windham
 Herbert George Chioke
 Col Charles Henry Dudley Ryder
 Col. Cecil Lyon John Allanson
 Rao Bahadur Chummal Harilal Setalwad
 John Norman Taylor
 Khan Bahadur Sardar Din Muhammad Khan
 Sir Lionel Linton Tomkins
 Douglas Marshall Straigne
 Matthew Hunter
 John Tarrion Whitty

Moses Mordecai Simeon Gubbay
 Major-General Robert Charles MacWatt
 George Paris Dick
 Lieut.-Col. William John Keon
 Khan Bahadur Shiekh Maqbul Husain
 Col. George Sims Ogg.
 Capt. M. W. Raweall
 Lieut.-Col. John Bertram Cunliffe
 Colonel William Montague Mills
 Raja Sir Vengannad Vangudera, Raja Avargni
 Major-General James Jackson
 James Anderson Dickson McEhin
 Christophor Addams-Williams
 Flammett Reginald Clode Hailey
 Robert Thomas Dundas
 Reginald George Kilby
 Robert Egerton Fyves
 Arthur Bradley Kettlewell
 The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Saran Das
 Hugh Aspiner Thornton
 Charles Stewart Middleton
 Major Frederick Norman White
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 William Newton May
 John Edward Webster
 Brevet-Major A. G. J. MacLiwaine
 Col T. G. Penelope
 Lieut.-Col. B. J. Morrison
 Thomas Avery
 Captain E. W. Huddleston
 Lt.-Col. J. W. B. Moreweather
 Lt.-Col. Ambrose Boxwell
 Lt.-Col. William Gillett
 Major G. B. Fowler
 Bdg.-General d'Arvy Charles Brownlow
 Temporarily Major R. W. Bullard
 Charles John Emile Oberoi
 Lt.-Col. A. K. Rawlin
 Sir William John Keith
 A. J. W. Kitchin
 W. R. Gourlay
 W. B. Coult
 Col Westwood Norman Hay
 Sir Charles Augustus Tegar
 H. B. Lieut.-Colonel Sir Ralph Grimth
 Charles Francis Piche
 Dr. M. Y. Young
 Sir F. J. Haikog
 Col. (Brig.-Genl.) H. A. Young
 Col. J. H. Dickson
 Lt.-Col W. H. R. Dickson
 Col. William Edmund Fye
 Lt.-Col. B. M. Rice
 Col O. B. Stokes
 Major E. B. Gillett
 Commandant R. C. Withers
 Lieut.-Col. Edmund Walter
 Duncan William Wilson
 Francis Gryvester Grimston
 Capt Victor Bayley
 John Dillon Flynn
 Col Shatto Longfield Cresser
 Sidney Robert Higgin
 Henry Phillips Tolinton
 Sir James Mackenna

Edward Fisher	Lt.-Col. David Waters Sutherland
Sir James Cressar	Col. Henry Robert Crosshwaite
Hony Lieut. Hilary Lushington Hoilman-Hunt	Gerald Aylmer Levegh-Eggs
Dewan Bahadur Pandit Krishna Rao Lukman	Phonakkar
Dewan Bahadur Sir Krishnarajapuram Pallo	Gondal Futanna Chetty
Lt.-Col. John Anderson	Sir Robert Glover Jaques
Colonel Ralph Ellis Carr-Hall	Lt.-Col. (Alexander Hiero) Ogilvy Spence
Lt.-Col. Ernest Arthur Frederick Redl	Harry Seymour Hoyte Pilkington
Lt.-Colonel David Lockhart Robertson Lormier	Lieut.-Col. Harold Hay Thorburn
The Hon'ble Major Nawab Muhammad Akbar	Khan
Hony Capt. Nuh-ul-din Khan, Sardar Bahadur	Hony Capt. Sardar Naths Singh, Sardar Bahadur
Sardar Pooran Singh Sardar Bahadur Maj.-Gen.	Girdhar Singh, Sardar Bahadur Lt.-Col.
Haider Ali Khan, Sardar Bahadur Lt.-Col.	Philip Ja nes Griffiths Fyton
Tempy Capt. Cecil Sutherland Waite	Air Commodore David Munro
Reverend William Robert Park	Brevet-Col. Francis William Pirrie
Capt. Hubert McKenzie Salmon	Lt.-Col. Felix Oswald Newton Moll
Hony, Lt.-Col. Beahorn Guthrie Arthur May	Major Harold Richard Patrick Dickson
Major Harold Richard Patrick Dickson	Knox
Major (Tempy, Brig.-General) Henry Owen	Charles Rowlat Watkins
Joseph Murbert Owens	Harry St John Bridger Philby
Lieut.-Col. Lewis Cecil Wagstaff	Lieut.-Col. W. R. J. Scroggie, I.M.S.
Lieut.-Col. Arthur Mowbray Berkeley	Lieut.-Col. Gay Sinton Bouchette
Lieut.-Col. Gubbett Vivian Bliss	Colin Campbell Garbette
Lieut.-Col. Wyndham Madden Peapoint Wood	Sir Plovash Chandra Mitter
T. S. Stewart O'Malley	John Brown Sydney Thubron
Sir Plovash Chandra Mitter	James George Jennings
Sir R. M. Cook	Christian Tindall
Arthur Innes Mayhew	Austin Low
Lieut.-Col. Andrew Alexander Irvine	Hubert Digby Watson
Lieut.-Col. John Telfer Calvert	Charles Gilbert Rogers
Sir Bernard D'Olier Davoy	Thomas Reed Davy Bell
Walter Francis Petre	Bertam Beresford Osmaston
Lieut.-Col. John Hanna Murray	The Rev. Dr. William Skinner
Col. Herbert Augustus Ingham	Col. Comdt. Richard Strakeley St. John
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. S. W. Paddon	

Lieut.-Col Walter Mason
 William Alfred Rae Wood
 Lieut.-Col Andrew Louis Charles McCormick
 Lieut.-Col J. O. Lamont
 Capt. Charles James Coppe Kendall
 Muhammad Afzal Khan Lieut.-Col.
 Sir Ernest Albert Seymour Bell
 Col. Francis Richard Souther Gervais
 Albert Harton Silver
 Khan Bahadur Nawab Bakhsh
 Sardar Lakhmangouda Basava Prabhu Sir Desai
 Col W. W. Omessha, I.M.S.
 Col Napier George Burns Goodell
 Col P. Francis Chapman
 Lieut.-Col H. J. Crossley
 Lieut.-Col. (Temporary Col) W. A. Gordon
 Major-General Sir J. D. Graham
 Col E. O. Alexander
 Lieut.-Col. W. H. Hamilton
 Lieut.-Col O. A. Sprawson
 Lieut.-Col H. C. Prescott
 Commander J. C. Ward
 Temporary Major O. E. Macpherson
 Captain E. C. O. Balfour
 Sir H. A. Sams
 Sir F. L. Bowles
 H. E. Forbes
 Col. O. L. Peart
 Hon. Brigadier-General H. De C. O'Grady
 Hon. Brigadier-General J. R. Gausson
 Major G. B. Murray
 Sir Purushottamdas Thakurdas
 R. D. Bell
 Hal Bahadur Bala Ram
 Lieut.-Col H. O. Beadon
 Lt.-Col H. O. Barnes
 H. Clayton
 C. Devan Pethman, Bar-at-Law
 R. A. M. H. Vincent
 Sir R. Clarke
 H. H. Haines
 R. S. Hole
 Oursell Nowroji Wadia
 E. Telichman
 Dr D. Choudhron
 Maharaja Rao Jogendra Narayan Ray
 Col. R. A. Needham
 J. Crosby
 Sir Charles Innes
 P. P. J. Woodhouse
 Captain R. I. M. Barret
 Col. P. T. O'Neil
 Lieut.-Col. G. G. Jolly
 Major A. P. Manning
 Sir Henry Tyler
 Col H. W. R. Senior
 Lieut.-Col. R. H. Maddox
 Col H. W. Bowen
 Col J. B. Keogh
 Col E. A. Poreh
 Col A. B. Fry
 Col A. V. W. Hope
 Lieut.-Col L. E. Gilbert
 Col W. D. A. Keys
 Lieut.-Col W. M. Anderson
 Lieut.-Col de L. Christopher
 Major E. M. Garpendale
 Major A. H. Chenevix Trench

Temporary Major L. E. Nalder
 Lt.-Col. C. G. Lloyd
 Temporary Captain R. Marrs
 G. Evans
 S. H. Slater
 Agba Mirza Muhammad
 Sir E. Bonham-Carter
 Col. J. H. Howell Jones
 Major-General W. E. Wilson-Johnston
 Major W. S. R. May
 W. R. Dockrill
 G. M. O'Rourke
 Capt O. R. Watson
 Rear-Admiral C. Mackenzie
 Lieut.-Col J. B. Hamlin
 Lieut.-Col M. O. Raymond
 W. H. J. Wilkinson—Guilemard
 Lieut.-Col J. B. Jameson
 Lieut.-General A. G. Vanchope
 Col Hon Brig General G. R. White
 Hon. Major R. W. Hildyard-Morris
 Hon Lieut. Mehr Muhammad Khan Sirdar
 Bahadur
 Col. Hon Brig General R. M. Behnam.
 Col. W. R. P. Bollenau
 Col. W. L. J. Carey
 Sir J. A. Cherry
 Col. H. B. Cook
 Col G. M. Duff
 Col. E. G. Hall
 Lieut.-Col D. R. Hewitt
 Lieut.-Col. L. Hirsch
 Col O. Hodgkinson
 Lieut.-Col. G. Howson
 Lieut.-Col. K. M. Kirkhope
 Lt.-Col. J. H. Lawrence-Archer
 Lieut.-Col. O. N. Koberly
 Col Honorary Brig General H. O. Nulton.
 R. P. Newham
 Sir Louis Stuart
 Lieut.-Col. J. W. Watson
 Major-Gen. G. Woodgate
 Lieut.-Col H. N. Young
 Lieut.-Col E. L. Mackenzie
 Lieut.-Col C. N. Watney
 Resaid Hony Capt. Khan Sahib Sirdar
 Bahadur Habibur Rahman Khan.
 Col Charles Faltie Dobbs
 Lieut.-Col George Stuart Douglas
 Col. Charles Edward Howard Collins
 Major-Genl Hugh Edward Herdon
 Major Harold Bertridg
 Major-Genl. M. R. W. Nightingale
 The Honble Sardar Bahadur Sir Sardar Bhandar
 Singh Majithla
 Sir H. Moncreiff Smith
 Sir E. St. J. Gobbie
 Khan Bahadur Pir Bakhsh Wajid Khan
 Muhammad
 S. S. Ayyangar
 E. W. Woods
 Lieut.-Col O. A. Smith
 R. S. Troup
 A. Brebner
 Sir G. Anderson
 Col. Rao Bahadur Thakur Sadul Singh
 Sayid Nur-ul-Huda
 Col John Anderson Dealy
 Major-General Sir Harry Christophers-Tyler
 Major A. H. Chenevix Trench

Major-General A. T. Thayer
General Sir Cyril Norman Macmillan
Col. Harry Dixon Packer
Temporary Lieut.-Col. John Francis Haswell
Col. Henry Charles Bynburne Ward
Lieut.-Col. Duncan Ogilvie
Sir James Scott Pickenbury
Lt.-Col. Charles Edward Bruce
Lieut.-Col. Alexander Frederick Babonau
Colonel Campbell Comin
W. C. Bennett
Sorabji Bezorji Mehta
Lt.-Col. B. Verney
Lt.-Col. R. A. Bond
O. M. Hutchinson
Lieut.-Col. Sir F. H. Humphrys
Major F. W. Gerard
R. B. Pearson
O. T. Allen
O. B. La Touche
Col. G. B. Francis Kirwan Macquoid
Capt. R. J. Calveley Horden
John Comyn Higgins
John Henry Hinton
John Brown Marshall
Lieut.-Col. Clendon Turberville Dukes
O. L. T. Crosswell
O. L. T. Crosswell
Col. B. H. Payne
Col. B. B. Steele
Col. B. C. W. Conway-Gordon
Ally-Gentl C. Hudson
Col. H. Ross
Col. D. M. Watt
Ibhal Muhammad Khan, Lieut.-Col.
If Sir Michael Keaney,
Lieut.-Colonel Philip Sykes Murphy Burton
Sir Charles Morgan Webb
Sir David Thomas Chadwick
Harry William Maclean Ives
Charles Maurice Baker
The Hon'ble Sir Geoffrey Lamban Corbett Salt
James
John Tudor Gwynn
Lieut.-Col. Frederick O'Kineally
Lieut.-Col. William Frederick Harvey
Honorary-Col. Lionel Augustus Grimston
Major-General Sydney Frederick Muspratt
Major Henry George Vaux
Arthur Charles Chamboil
Hugh Charles Sampson
Doctor Edwin John Butler
Alexander Vaddell Poda
Sur Dadiha Mervani Dalai
Narayan Malhar Joshi
Raman
Sir Harry Ryan Auguste Cotton
The Hon'ble Mr. Frank Herbert Brown
Colonel Arthur Holroyd Bridges
Maj.-Genl. Clement Arthur Milward
Colonel Arthur Hugh Morton
Lieut.-Col. Henry Warwick Illius
Lt.-Col. Frederick Lawrence Gore
Col. Alexander Henderson Burn
Col. Charles Harold Ayns Tuck
Colonel Henry George Young
Lieut.-Col. Sir Malcolm Donald Murray

Blacet Colonel Sir Edward Scott Worthington
John Edwin Chapman Jules
Alexander Montgomerie
Evelyn Robins Abbot
James Cowlishaw Smith
John Richard Cunningham
Stephen Cox
Major Rivers Nevill
Hugh Kynaston Biscoe
Major-General Benjamin Hobbs Denare
Col. Lewis Macleagaid Heath
Lieut.-Col. Lionel Edward Lang
James Wallis Jackson
Arthur Lambert Playfair
De-aj John Gould
Francis Pepsy Kenzie
Sir Stewart Blakey Agnew Patterson
Lieut.-Col. James Buchanan
Alexander Carmichael Stewart
Adrian James Robert Hope
John Willoughby Meares
Major Kenneth Oswald Goldie
Edward Francis Thomas
Edward Luttrell Moysey
The Hon'ble, Mr. Justice Thomas Stewart
Macpherson
Nanung Po Hia
Arthur Campbell Armstrong
Sir Horne Williamson
Alexander Newman
Gerard Anstutcher Washen
Khan Bahadur Mir, Bahadur Khan
Nabha Singh Sardar Bahadur
Raja Manmoh Singh Roy
Khan Bahadur Dr. Sir Nasarwanji Hormasji Choksy
Alexander Mart
Lawrence Morley Stubbs
Colonel Robert St. John Hickman
Lieut.-Col. Michael Lloyd Ferrar
Levee MacKenzie Kaye
Corston Jonathan Webster Mayne
Walter Swain
Cyril James Trwin
Edwin Leasward Price
Horace Mason Haywood
Lieut.-Col. the Honourable Piers Walter Leigh
Harry Tomkinson
Alexander Shirley Montgomerie
Kunwar Jagdish Prasad
Lieut.-Col. Andrew Thomas Gage
Col. John Phillip Cameron
Frederick Alexander Leete
Lieut.-Col. Henry Ross
Captain Victor Felix Gamble
Major General Alfred Hooton
Arnold Albert Alusto
Abdoot Rahim
John Arthur Jones
The Reverend Canon Edward Guilford
Major Henry Benedict Fox
William Stenball
Khan Bahadur Diwan Sir Abdul Hamid
W. Alder
I. R. Martin
Lt.-Col. D. G. Mitchell
Lt.-Col. Sir R. H. Chenevix Trench
R. G. B. Peel

R. G. Arnold
O. S. O. Hartson
A. H. Mackenzie
Col. C. F. Gunter
Prof. H. Goupand
W. S. Hopkyns
Lt.-Col. W. E. O. Bradfield
Lt.-Col. T. Cook
Majest-Col. G. D. Brankin
Lt.-Col. (Hon. Col.) R. B. Will
Lt.-Col. J. Cunningham
H. A. F. Metcalfe
S. D. Smith
G. B. C. Wakefield
Maj. Bahadur Sir Radhradas Goenka
Dr. H. G. Roberts
Dr. J. A. Voelcker
O. B. Pooley
T. M. Lyle
Lieut.-Colonel H. S. Strong
G. Macworth Young
H. A. B. Vernon
J. F. Dyer
William Mayes
Lieut.-Colonel C. I. Belderly
J. M. D. Wrench
H. A. R. Delves
N. N. Gangulies
Lieut.-Colonel W. G. Neale
Lieut.-Colonel I. H. L. Burne
J. R. Datta, I.C.S.
R. H. Beasley Whittingstall
Lieut.-Colonel R. B. Wright
Lieut.-Colonel H. H. Broome
R. F. Gunter
J. A. Madan, I.C.S.
J. W. H. Smith
R. S. Rhulow
W. L. Scott
H. T. Holland
G. H. Stoker
D. G. Isl
Lt.-Col. H. R. N. Fitzchard
Maj. Bahadur Kirtub-ud-Din Ahmed
P. O. Tallents
R. A. Hamilton
O. A. Beasley
J. Coakman
P. W. Marsh
J. G. Acheson
J. D. V. Hodges
Lt.-Col. A. H. Palla
Lt.-Col. D. D. Pott
R. J. Flaymen
T. A. L. S. O'Connor
R. V. Wythe
Captain H. Morland
J. McGlashan
M. Lea
J. Hormasji
Maj. Bahadur Sir Ghosh
Divan Bahadur G. N. Chetti Garu
Lt.-Col. R. J. W. Heale
M. B. Cameron
R. A. Sashas
M. G. Hallett
A. J. Lalne
D. J. Boyd
J. Clague

W. B. Brande
G. W. Hutton
O. U. Wells
H. A. Lano
K. H. Framji
Col. W. H. Evans
G. B. Rawcus
R. Armistange
Lieut.-Col. A. O. Tancock
Col. H. L. Haughton
Lieut.-Col. H. D. Marshall
H. D. G. Law
R. W. Hanson
H. R. Wilkinson
Lieut.-Col. J. W. Cornwal
R. D. Ansland
D. Milne
W. Roeb
G. K. Dewdhar
Chandhart Sir Chhaj Ram
Sir John H. B. Fraser
Lt.-Col. J. C. H. Leicester
O. W. O. Carson
J. N. Gupta
G. B. Soames
H. C. Laddell
A. G. Edle
Sir Joseph B. G. Smith
D. L. Drake-Brockman
D. M. Stewart
R. Littlehalls
J. A. Baker
Lt.-Col. R. W. Macdonald
O. S. Whitworth
A. B. Briggs
Col. L. D. E. Leinfesey
J. R. Armstrong
R. J. Hirst
R. F. V. Gompertz
Lieut.-Col. A. G. Treasider
Major A. F. R. Lumby
P. L. Orde
Maj. Bahadur Janak Singh
Divan Bahadur T. K. Mehta
H. W. Nicholson
A. G. Clow, I.C.S.
A. H. Lloyd, I.C.S.
A. T. Stowell
His Excellency Sir Alexander Gowan, I.C.S.
Colonel O. C. Palmer
J. Hezlett, I.C.S.
G. T. Boag, I.C.S.
G. W. A. Turner, I.C.S.
Lt.-Col. C. L. Dunn, I.M.S.
A. B. Asbury
J. N. G. Johnson, I.C.S.
Lieut.-Col. O. E. T. Kraline
Major R. O. Chamer
R. H. Berthoud, I.C.S.
R. A. Horton
W. H. Dozbi
Sir G. Morgan
K. B. Chong
R. W. Thomas
Durbar Shri V. M. Suras
G. G. Day
J. G. Beasley
A. B. Gilliat
R. H. Beckett
J. B. Copeland

- Khan Bahadur Sayid Ahmad Hasan
 John Carson Nixon, 108.
 Lodhi Karim Hyder.
 Gilbert Fitzclark Hogg, 108
 Colonel Nell Charles Bannatyne.
 Alma Lath, O B M, 108.
 Tom Lister, 108.
 Claude Henry Gidney.
 Thomas Joseph Alexander Craig
 Robert Daniel Richmond
 Colonel Henry MacKenzie, 1 M D
 Colonel Henry Robert Baynes Hood, D S O,
 M O, 1 A
 Edmund James Rowlandson
 John Henry Darwin, 108
 Captain Mathew John Clarke
 Sam Carter Mould
 Gurnath Venkatesh Bewoor
 Lieut-Col Walter Edwin Beazley
 Khan Bahadur Nabil Baksh Muhammad
 Husam.
 Khan Bahadur Shah Muhammad Yallya.
 Allan Macleod, 108.
 Ram Chandra, 108
 Maj-Genl. William Charles Hughan Foster,
 1 M S
 Sao Kine Maung, Sawba of Mong Mit State.
 James Reid Taylor, 108
 Charles Lyall Philip, 108
 Captain Sher Mohammad Khan.
 Edmund Nicolas Blandy, 108.
 Noel James Houghton, 108
 Charles Gerald Thevor.
 Colonel John Norman Walker.
 Lieut-Col Robert Seymour Sewell.
 Lieut-Col Arthur Kenry Kyre Mosee
 Lieut-Col Charles Teenee Chichale-Flowden
 Edgar Stewart Roddy.
 Adrian Augustus Short.
 William Duncan MacGregor
 Lieut-Col David Seton Johnston.
 Harold Riley Roe
 Hugh George Rawlinson
 John Gordon Cameron Scott
 The Rev. William Herbert Greenland Padfield
 Rai Bahadur Pandit Soetta Prasad Bajpai.
 Khan Bahadur Haffiz Hidayat Husam.
 Rai Bahadur Abinash Chandra Banarji.
 David Keith Cunningham
 Thakor Sahib Shri Maharaj Shriji Vakhatsinhji
 Lie-Col J. L. R. Welf
 B O Gibson
 W N. Anklesaria
 V B. Brett
 O St Ledger Teyen
 Col. R. H. Anderson
 J H Adam
 H. P. Thomas
 T P. M O Callaghan
 J Davidson
 Captain L O B Crabbe
 Bt-Col J McPherson
 J de Graaff Hunter
 D H O Drake
 A G Leach.
 D B. Meek.
 Lt-Col. H. F. B. Childers.
 Lt-Col. E. J. D. Colvin.
- R S Purcell
 Lt-Col. V L Hartnell
 Khan Bahadur K. J. Petigara
 A M Green
 J N Duggan
 A J Leach
 H M Shillcore
 A S Hands
 Captain T I Stevenson.
 J A Stewart
 J A Rastman
 K I B Hamilton
 H J. Twynam
 J. Prasad
 Col (Temp Brigadier) G A Hare
 B N Rau
 T H Greg.
 J R T Booth
 C O Chitham
 L H Colson
 R B Russell
 N Fitzmaurice
 A O. Lobbman
 Major G L Betham
 Rai Bahadur Dhwani G Nathi
 Major W P Hay
 O E S Rawweather
 Lt-Col A D Stewart
 Lt-Col R N Chopra
 Major R T Lawrence
 K G Mitchell
 W D. Croft
 Khan Bahadur M N Alekta
 Khan Bahadur Shaikh Wahid-uddin
 Raja Bahadur Jawahir Singh, Raja of Solangar
 Rana Shri Chhatra Saji, Thakore of
 M T Darling
 H O Green field.
 J W Kelly
 Col (Temporary Brigadier), R S Scott
 Major Nawab Ahmed Nawaz Khan
 S H Government
 R N Giebrist
 E Cannung
 Capt E H Daughish
 J M Blackwood Stuart
 P B Atchison
 Lt-Col J A S Phillips
 F T de Alonde
 W Mc Rae
 Capt A W Ibbotson
 A J Manuwarung
 Major G V B Gilliam
 Brevet-Major H H Johnson
 Lt-Col H H King
 A D Gordon.
 E L Moriott
 S H Bigsby
 J Matthei
 V A S Stow
 W Roberts
 A F Stuart
 Lt-Col D M Field.
 C P. Burton.
 Rai Bahadur Daya Ram S ibni
 Sardar Gangadharao Naraynarao Muzumdar
 R G McDowell.
 Col A J G Bird.
 F. Tymins.

Order of British India.—This order was instituted at the same time as the Order of Merit, to reward native commissioned officers for long and faithful service in the Indian Army. Since 1878, however, any person, European or native, holding a commission in a native regiment, became eligible for admission to the Order without reference to creed or colour. The First Class consists of a gold eight-pointed star 1½ in in diameter. The centre is occupied by a lion standing guard upon a ground of light-blue enamel, with a dark-blue band inscribed Order of British India, and surrounded by two laurel wreaths of gold. A gold loop and ring are attached to the crown of the star, through which the ribbon, once blue, now red, is passed for suspension from a broad ornamental band. The Second Class is 1½ in. in diameter with dark-blue enamelled centre. There is no crown on this class, and the suspended star is 1½ in. in diameter. The ribbon is 1½ in. wide. This medal may be conferred by the Viceroy of India.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal.—This medal was instituted on June 28th, 1907, by an Army Order published in Simla as a reward for both commissioned and non-commissioned officers of the regular and other forces in India. It bears on the obverse the bust of King Edward VII, and on the reverse a laurel wreath encircling the words *For Distinguished Service*. The medal, 1½ inches in diameter, is ordered to be worn immediately to the right of all war medals suspended by a red ribbon 1½ in. wide, with blue edges ½ in. wide. This medal may be conferred by the Viceroy of India.

Indian Meritorious Service Medal.—This was instituted on July 27th, 1888, and on receipt of the medal the order states "a non-commissioned officer must surrender his Long Service and Good Conduct medal... but on being promoted to a commission he may retain the M. S. medal, but the annuity attached to it will cease. On the obverse is the daimonded bust of Queen Victoria facing left, with a veil falling over the crown behind, encircled by the legend *Victoria Kaisar-i-Hind*. On the reverse is a wreath of lotus leaves encircling a star beneath, palm tied at the base, having a star beneath, between the two wreaths is the inscription *For Meritorious Service*. Within the palm wreath is the word *India*. The medal, 1½ in. in diameter, is suspended from a scroll by means of a red ribbon 1½ in. wide. The medals issued during the reigns of Queen Victoria's successors bear on the obverse their bust in profile with the legend altered to EDWARDS, or GEORGE V.

THE KAISAR-I-HIND MEDAL.

The Medal is an oval-shaped Badge or Decoration—in gold for the First Class and in silver for the Second Class—with the Royal Cypher on one side and on the reverse the words "Kaisar-i-Hind for Public Service in India". It is suspended on the left breast by a dark blue ribbon.

Recipients of the 1st Class.

Abdul Gaiyum, Khan Bhadur Nwab Sir Sahibzada, K O I R, M L A
Abdus Samad Khan of Rampur
Advani, M. S.
Aiyaz, Mr. Faruqi Ahamad Chandra Sahana
Aiyaz, Her Highness the Donager Maharaj
Alexander, A. I.
Allen, The Rev J H.
Allyn, Dr. (Mrs) Jessie Matilda, M D.
Aloysia, Rev. Mother Mary

have decided that they should be worn, and not suspended round the neck by a brooch, and not suspended from the neck by a ribbon as prescribed in the case of the badge itself. When the distinctions are worn in conjunction with other decorations, they should be placed immediately after the Kaisar-i-Hind Medal.

hould be worn, and have decided that they should be worn, and not suspended round the neck by a brooch, and not suspended from the neck by a ribbon as prescribed in the case of the badge itself. When the distinctions are worn in conjunction with other decorations, they should be placed immediately after the Kaisar-i-Hind Medal.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal.—This medal was instituted on June 28th, 1907, by an Army Order published in Simla as a reward for both commissioned and non-commissioned officers of the regular and other forces in India. It bears on the obverse the bust of King Edward VII, and on the reverse a laurel wreath encircling the words *For Distinguished Service*. The medal, 1½ inches in diameter, is ordered to be worn immediately to the right of all war medals suspended by a red ribbon 1½ in. wide, with blue edges ½ in. wide. This medal may be conferred by the Viceroy of India.

Indian Order of Merit.—This reward of Valour was instituted by the H. M. I Co. in 1837, to reward personal bravery without any reference to length of service or good conduct. It is divided into three classes and is awarded to native officers and men for distinguished conduct in the field. On the advancement from one class to another the star is surrendered to the Government, and the superior class substituted, but in the event of the death of the recipient his relatives retain the decoration in the order carried with it as an increase of one-third in the pay of the recipient, and in the event of his death the allowance is continued to his widow for three years. The First Class consists of a star of eight points, 1½ in. in diameter, having in the centre a ground of dark-blue enamel bearing crossed swords in gold, with a gold circle, and the inscription *Reward of Valour*, the whole being surrounded by two wreaths of laurel in gold. The Second Class is of silver, with the wreath of laurel in gold; and the Third Class entirely of silver. The decoration is suspended from a simple loop and bar from a dark-blue ribbon 1½ in. in width with red edges, bearing a gold or silver buckle according to class.

This decoration was instituted in 1900, the preamble to the Royal Warrant—which was amended in 1901 and 1912—being as follows:—"Whereas We, taking into Our Royal consideration that there do not exist adequate means whereby We can reward Us in Our Indian Empire in the advancement of the public interests of Our said Empire, and taking also into consideration the expediency of distinguishing such services by some mark of Our Royal favour. Now for the purpose of attaining an end so desirable as that of thus distinguishing such services, and by these presents for Us, Our Heirs, and Successors," do institute and create a new Decoration." The decoration is styled "The Kaisar-i-Hind Medal for Public Service in India," and consists of two classes, vice in India."

Hoyle, John Somerset
 Hudson, Sister L. R. M.
 Hume, The Rev. R. A.
 Human, Mr W.
 Husband, Lieut-Col James
 Hutchinson, Lieut-Col William Gordon
 Hutchinson, Sir Sydney Hutton Cooper
 Hutchison, J.
 Hutwa, The Maharani Tuan Manjari Kuan
 Hyatt, Mrs. Emma
 Inglis, Mrs Ellen
 Innes, Lady Agatha Rosalie.
 Irvine, Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Waer
 Irving, Lady
 Ives, Harry William Maclean
 Iyer, Diwan Bahadur C. S.
 Jackson, Lady Julia Honoria
 Jackson, Lady Kathleen Anna Dorothy
 Jackson, Rev James Chadwick
 James, Lieutenant-Colonel Charles Henry
 Jamset Bai, Diwan Bahadur
 Janvier, Rev C. A. R.
 Jassawala, J S.
 Jehangir, Mrs Cowasji
 Jehangir (Senior), Lady Dhanbai Cowasji
 Jewood, Miss H D
 Josephine, Sister (Bombay)
 Kamrabi, Shri Rani Sahaba, of Jassan
 Kaye, G R.
 Keane, Miss H.
 Kennedy, The Right Rev K. W. S.
 Kerr, Mrs. Isabel
 Kerr, Rev George McGlashan
 Keyes, Lady E B.
 Khan, Khan Bahadur Kuli
 Khan, Khan Bahadur Moghal Bax
 King, Mrs. D.
 Klopsch, Dr Louis
 Klobart, Sir Jehanji Hormusji
 Krishnamachari, Lady Rangamma
 Kuer, Sumati Phulpati
 Kugleberg, Dr C F.
 Kunwar, Alaham Suni
 Lamb, The Hon'ble Sir Richard Amphlett
 Lane, The Rev W. B.
 Lee, Mrs
 Lee Ah Yam
 Lewis, The Rev B H.
 Lindsay, Sir D'Arcy
 Ling, Miss Catharine Frances
 Littlewood, Miss G B.
 Longmore, Miss Mary
 Loubiere, Rev. Father B. R. A.
 Lovett, The Hon'ble Mr Harrington Verney
 Love, Miss Irene Helen
 Luck, Wilfred Henry
 Lukis, Lady
 Lyons, Surgeon-General Robert William Steele
 Maclean, Rev J. H.
 Macnaghen, Mr. R. M.
 Macrae, Major-General Sir Charles
 Madhav Rao Vishwanath Patankar
 Mahant Purn Nath
 Malagaon, Raja of
 Malvi, Tribhuvandas Narottandas
 Manekchand, Seth Motilal
 Mann, Dr. Harold

Breen, Dr A L.
 Brown, The Rev. J. O.
 Bulmer, Miss C.
 Burgess, Father A.
 Buter, Miss E. M.
 Butts, Mrs. Ida Margaret
 Butts, Mrs. A.
 Butts, Sister Dorothy
 Butts, Edward Beliam
 Franklin, Miss H M.
 Fremont-Moore, C R.
 Gadge, Miss B.
 Ghose, Mr. Jyotannath
 Gibson, Mr. B.
 Gilmore, The Rev. David Chandie
 Glazebrook, M. S.
 Glen, Henry James Hamesey
 Goheen, Mr. R. H. K.
 Gonzalez, Rev Mother
 Gordon, The Rev D. B.
 Goschen, Viscountess
 Gould, Miss Julia
 Graham, Miss A. S.
 Graham, Miss D. L.
 Graham, The Rev John Anderson
 Gratian, Colonel Henry William
 Greenfield, Miss C B.
 Gregory, Brother
 Griffin, Miss B.
 Gullford, The Rev. B. (with gold bar)
 Guyer, H O.
 Gwyther, Lieut-Colonel Arthur
 Hahn, The Rev. Ferdinand
 Haig, Lieutenant-Colonel Patrick Balfour
 Hall, Harold Fielding Patrick
 Hamilton, Lieut-Col. Robert Edward
 Archibald
 Hankin, R. H.
 Hanson, The Rev. O.
 Harper, Dr B.
 Hart, Dr. Louisa Helena
 Hargrave, Lieut-Colonel Herbert de Vere
 Harvey, Miss B.
 Hatch, Miss Sarah Isabel
 Houghton, Miss A. M.
 Hawker, Lady Edith
 Henderson, Mr A H.
 Henricke, Mother
 Hey, Miss D. O de la
 Hibberd, Miss J E.
 Hickinbotham, The Rev. J H.
 Higginbotham, S.
 Hildesley, The Rev. Alfred Herbert
 Hodgson, Edward Marsden
 Hodgson, (Mrs) E. A.
 Hoek, Rev Father T. V.
 Hogan, W. J. Alexander
 Hoderess, Sir Thomas William
 Holland, H T (also bar)
 Holmes, Mrs B M.
 Holmes, Major J. A. H.
 Home, Walter
 Hope, Mrs T. M.
 Hopkins, Mrs. Jessie
 Hormusji, Dr. S O.
 Houston, Dr. (Miss) Charlotte, & D.
 Howard, Mrs. Gabrielle Louise Caroline

- Sige, Miss M. D.
 Sibal, Ram (also Bar).
 Sabin, Ham Kall.
 Sahay, Lala Deodath.
 Sahnattullah, Capt. Mohammad
 Salkeld, Tom.
 Saunders, Joseph.
 Saunders, Miss V. C.
 Savidgo, Rev. Frederick William.
 Saw Ba Lo.
 Sawhney, Lala-Isher Das.
 Schultze, The Rev Frederick Volkmar Pau.
 Scott, Miss I.
 Scott, Dr. D. M. (also Bar).
 Scotland, Lieut-Colonel David Wilson.
 Seagrave, G. S.
 Sen, Dr. P. C.
 Sen, Dr. K. S.
 Shah Babu Lal Behar.
 Shah, Mohammed Kamaz.
 Shah, Mohammad Nawaz.
 Shah, Reverend Ahmad.
 Shamash, Rai Bahadur (also Bar).
 Sharla Hamid Abdul Ali, Mrs.
 Sharpo, Miss N.
 Sharpo, Miss P. E.
 Shastriyar, C. V.
 Shaw, Mrs Hawthorne.
 Shivewarkar, R. V.
 Shripad Krishna Belvalkar.
 Shroff, Dr. B. D.
 Shukker, Gooli Persival Vansont.
 Shyam Chaman Bhattecharji, Rai Bahadur.
 Siddens, Mrs.
 Simcox, Arthur Henry Aldenbrook.
 Smith, Miss J. H.
 Smith, Miss J. R.
 Simons, Charles Wykies.
 Simonsen, J. L.
 Sims, Mrs A.
 Sindaur, Reginald Leidy.
 Singh, Kanwar Ghemandi.
 Singh, Ajai Dhuil.
 Singh, Babu Kesho.
 Singh, Babu Ramdhari.
 Singh, Bhai Gangga.
 Singh, Bhai Lehua.
 Singh, Bhai Takhat.
 Singh, Bhakhan.
 Singh, Hev. P. L.
 Singh, Hari Bahadur Bundar.
 Singh, Kulkhanna.
 Singh, Bhisadhar Major, Hanmant.
 Singh, Sardar Gurdit.
 Singh, G. Shor.
 Singh, Sohan.
 Singhe, Miss I. N. V.
 Singhi, J. D. R.
 Slater, A. B.
 Small, Miss J. M.
 Smith, Miss Ellen.
 Smith, The Rev Frederick William Ambrey.
 Smith, Miss Katherine Mabel.
 Smith, Miss Jessie Edith.
 Solomon, Dr. Jacob.
 Somerville, T. W.
 Somerville, The Rev. Dr. James.
 Sornby, Miss S.
 Spender, Lady M. M.
 Spurlin, Mrs Frances Clare.
 Sri Ram Kunwar.
 Strassavay, B. S.
 Stanley, Mrs S. A.
 Stacte, Oliver Harold Baptist.
 Steel, Alexander.
 Steele, The Rev John Ferguson.
 Steels, M. I. A.
 Stephens, John Hewitt.
 Stephens, Mrs Grace.
 Stevens, Miss I. K.
 Stevens, Mrs (Ethel).
 Stevenson, Surgeon-General Henry Wlokham.
 Stewart, Miss B. R.
 Stewart, Major Hugh.
 Stewart, Mrs Lilian Dorothea.
 Stewart, Thomas.
 Stillwell, Dr (Miss) Ethel, M. D.
 St Collete, The Rev Mother.
 St Gregory, Rev. Mother.
 St Joseph, J. D.
 Stookings, The Rev. H. M.
 Stulp, Samuel Algenon.
 Stuart, Dr (Miss) Gertrude.
 Subbu Lakshmi Ammal, Kishayar Subrahmanyas.
 Ayyar.
 Sundar Singh Sardar, Sardar Bahadur.
 Sultan Ahmed Khan.
 Sunder Lal.
 Sunderabai, Bai.
 Swain, Mrs Walker.
 Swainson, Miss Florence (also Bar).
 Swami Shyamamand.
 Swanzy, Mrs M. A.
 Swift, Miss Eva.
 Swinchart, C. H.
 Swinhoe, R. O. J.
 Swiles, Miss Emily Constance.
 Symes, Miss Kathleen Mabel.
 Taharullness, Chandhuran.
 Tachokkar, M. C. A.
 Talaykhan, Mrs M.
 Talaykhan, Madakeshah Cawasha.
 Talib Mahdi Khan, Malik.
 Tambie, Dr Gopal Rao Ramchandra.
 Taradair, S. K.
 Tarr, Mrs.
 Taylor, Rev. Alfred Pridoux (also Bar).
 Taylor, Mrs Florence Pridoux.
 Taylor, Mrs Martine Louise.
 Taylor, John Norman.
 The, Miss Shwe.
 Thell, Miss Po.
 Theobald, Mrs (also Bar).
 Thimmarayya, Mrs K. S.
 Thiruvankata, Acharyar, Mrs Sita.
 Thomas, Miss Frances Elizabeth.
 Thomas, H. S.
 Thomas, Mrs Mabel Rox.
 Thomas, Samuel Gilbert.
 Thompson, Mrs. Alice.
 Thompson, R. O.
 Thoy, Herbert Dominick.

Woerner, Miss Lydia

Wood, R. A.

Wood, The Rev. A.

Wright, Mrs. F. G.

Wright, Mrs. B.

Wright, Mrs. S.

Wyle, Miss Eleanore

Wyness, Mrs. Ada

Yen Singh

Yerbury, Dr. J.

Young, Dr. M. Y.

Recipients of the 3rd Class.

Chandera Singh, Lance-Quik, Chin Hills Battalion

Choudhury, Mrs. N. B.

Doss, P. T. J.

Ghodo, B. N.

Gorde, S. B.

Johnstone, Miss A. C.

Joshi, K. H.

Kama, Miss D. D.

Karnat, V. M.

Karnat, G. K.

Kotwal, Hawidar Mastu Singh.

Kulkarni, B. D.

Lahuri, K. N.

Lewis, Mrs. M. C.

Lobo, J. I.

Mannu, Mrs. J. R. D.

Maryadi, K. M.

Mulla, I. K.

Negi, Hawidar Major Mor Singh

Parasad, M. J.

Patil, M. G.

Patil, S. R.

Punthakey, J. R.

Purnik, (Dharmar Vamta Seva Shamaj)

Rahman, M. H.

Rangacharya, Mrs. B.

Richards, Miss A. M.

Routh, Babu J. C.

Roy, Babu S. B.

Saran, S.

Sen, The Rev. P. A. N.

U. P.

Wadhvani, H. R.

Wahia, Saeed Abdul

Thungamma, Miss Bolat

Thak, H. Vishwanath

Timothy, Samuel

Trunaryan Acharyar, M. R. G. M. A. P.

Tomkins, Sir Lionel Linton

Tonkinson, Mrs. Edith

Tudball, Miss Emma

Tullo, Miss I. M. C.

Turner, Mrs. Vera

U. Ba. Lwin

Umbabai, Mrs. P.

Umar Khan, Malik Zorwar Khan

Uman Sahib Bahadur, Khan

Muhammad

Vall, C. E.

Vajidhar, Mrs. Hormusji Manackji

Valentine, Capt. C. H.

Vale, Mrs. K.

Vardoon, A. C.

Varmas, Babu Mahendra Deo

Veronica, Mother Mary, Indore

Vijayaraghava Acharyar

Visweswara, Sir Mokshagundam

Varghese, Divan Bahadur George Thomas

Walt, William Robert Hamilton

Wakeman, Mrs. E.

Walayabulab, Khan Bahadur Hafez Muhammad

Walewalker, P. Baburao

Walford, Miss Zoe

Walker, Frederick Chighton

Walters, Mrs. W. B.

Walton, Mrs. Julia

Ward, Mr. W. A. F.

Warhurst, Capt. A. E.

Warren, Miss Rasmund

Wares, Donald Horne

Webb-Ware, Mrs. Dorothy

Wegern, Miss Mary Francis

Welch, Mrs. Rosa

Whitaker, Miss M. B.

White, Miss J.

White, Mrs. A. M. W.

White, The Rev. T. J.

Whitecombe, Miss A.

Wigall, H. G.

Wildman, Miss Elizabeth Annie

Williams, David Phillips

Wilkinson, Mrs. A.

Williams, Mrs. E.

Willis, Mrs. Florence Grace

Willis, Miss S.

Wilson, Francis Henry

Wilson, Miss Anna Margaret (also Bar)

Wise, Miss Jane

Wiseman, Capt. Charles Shirre

Wiser, Mrs. C. V.

ABOGASWAMI MUDALIAR, DWAKA BABA-
DUR HAZARWAK NATAVAKKAY, B.A., B.C.B.
Bao Bahadur (1915) and Diwan Bahadur
(1925), b 18th April 1870 *Bduc*. Madras
Christian College and College of Engineering,
Madras Entered service under Madras
Government asst Engineer in 1896 and
retired as Superintending Engineer in 1925
Minister for Public Health and Excise (resigned
in March 1928) *Address* Leth Castle, San
Thome, Mylapore.

ABUNDALÉ, GEORGE STREY, M.A., LL.B.
(Canb.), D Litt (Lond), F.R.Hist.
S (Lond) President of the Theosophical
Society since June 1934 b Surrey, England,
1 Dec 1878 m Ruthven, daughter of Fendit
Niekantba Sastri, Madras, 1920 *Bduc*
Cambriana University and Continent of Europe
Came to India, 1903 and became Principal of
the Central Hindu College, Benares, affiliated
with the University of Alibabad, and was
Examiner both to University and to Govern-
ment Inspected and reported on Kashimur
educational system For some years Organ-
iser Secretary for the All-India Home Rule
League In 1917 was interned with Dr
Bansat under Defence of India Act in 1917
appointed Principal of National University,
Madras, which conferred upon him honorary
degree of D Litt, his diploma being signed by
Dr. Rabindranath Tagore, who was Chancellor
In 1920 became Head of the Education
Department of the Holkar State In 1925
travelled extensively in Europe In 1926
consecrated Bishop of the Liberal Church
Church, visited Australia, elected General
Secretary, Theosophical Society, and there-
himself into various activities for Australia's
development, founding the journal *Advance*
Australia and becoming chairman of directors
of Theosophical Broadcasting Station, 2GB,
an office he still holds In 1929 was a power
in the W.P.O. for Australia League, uncon-
promisingly devoted to Australia's political
well being, in a public address designated
"Australia, The Land of the Larger Hope"
Has visited Europe and America every year
since 1921 on lecture tours Deeply interested
in Internationalism, the place of Nations in
the world, and works for the national re-
generation and freedom of India within this
League Publications *Address* Mount
Lisle, Bedford of Education, etc is a
Fellow of the City of London, and a member
of the Worshipful Society of Jewellers,
London W 1

ASH, HERBERT DUNN, M.I.E.E., Director,
Turner Hoare & Co, Ltd, b. 1879, m. Madeline
Ridith Ash, *Bduc*, Hanleybury College Alibach-
Indian Cav. Brigade, 1917-17, Staff Captain
ed 28th Lancers, 1916-17, Twice men-
tioned in despatches *Address* C/o Turner
Hoare and Co, Ltd, Bombay.

AYANGAR, VILAKKAY KUNHAYSWAMI
AYAYALUDHA, M.A. (1914); O.I.B. (1928),
Secretary, Indian Central Banking Enquiry
Committee b 15th December 1891, d. or
Prof. R. B. Hamsawami Ayyangar, *Bduc*,
Madras Engineering College, Madras
(retired), *Bduc*. Kumbhakomam Government

"Christianity and the Labour Problem"
"North India", "The Renaissance in
India", "Christ and Labour", "The
Indian Problem", "Indians in South Africa"
"To the Students", "The Drink and Drug
Evil", "Militant Gandhi's Ideas"
"Militant Gandhi's own Story", "Militant
Gandhi at Work", "Siddha Sundar Singh, a
Memoir", "What I owe to Christ", "Christ in
the Silence" Correspondent *Manchester
Guardian* Cape Argus, Natal *Address*
Bengal.

ANBY, MADHAI SANKARAN, B.A., B.L. (Cal), M
L.A. Member b 29 August 1880 m Ramana
(died 1925) *Bduc* Morris College, Nagpur
Teacher, Kashiabai Private High School,
Amravati, 1904-07, joined bar 1908 at Bombay,
Vice-President, Indian Home Rule League,
President, Bharat Provincial Congress Com-
mittee, 1921-1930, joined Civil Disobedience
Movement, Ag. President, Indian National
Congress, 1933, Member, Legislative Assembly
for Bharat, 1924-1926, 1927-1930 and 1935,
Member, Congress Working Committee, 1924-
25 and 1931-34, founded *Veekant* District
Association, 1916, Member, Nehru Committee,
Vice-President, Congress Nationalist Party, General
Secretary, Congress Nationalist Party, 1934,
Leader, Congress Nationalist Assembly Group,
1935, General Secretary, Anti-Communist
Award Conference Working Committee, 1935
Publications Collection of writings and
speeches (in Marathi) *Address* *Veekant*
(Bharat)

ANKLAKRE, COL. AMAR-UT-DHRA SARDAR
SIR ARYASAR SINGH SARDAR, SAKA,
HARDOO, SAK-SHAK, K.B.E. (1919), C.I.B.
(1913) b 1874 *Bduc* Belgium etc Secre-
tary to the Maharaja of Gwalior, 1897 m
the youngest daughter of the late Maharaja
Jaijrao Sahib Scindia of Gwalior
Member of the Gwalior Government Depart-
ment of Revenue, 1918-1934 and Vice-Pre-
sident, Council of Regency, 1925 *Address*.
Ankhi, Dist Belgium

ANNA BAO, CHALIKANI, B.A. (Chemistry),
Landholder and Director of Laxmi Hangan
Copper Mines b 1 January 1909 m. to Ann-
sundevi, d. of Rajah of Ramnagar *Bduc*
Presidency College, Madras *Address*.
Bobbili, Vizagapatnam District.

ARHOT, RAJENDR, SIR GHULAM KHANQAD
AR K.I.B. (1909) b 22 Feb. 1882 s father,
1908 Premier Mahomedan nobleman of
Southern India, being the direct male
descendant and representative of the Sovereign
Ruler of the Karnataka, *Bduc*. Newington Court
Wardens Institutions, Madras under C. J. Mout-
son, M.A., Member of the Imperial Legislative Coun-
cil, 1904-6, Member of the Imperial Legislative
Council (Mahomedan Directorate) of the Madras
Presidency, 1910-13, Member of the Madras
Legislative Council by nomination, 1916, Presi-
dent, All-India Muslim Association, Lahore,
President, South India Muslim League,
Madras Presided All-India Muslim League,
1910, Life Member, Law Institute, C.O.P.,
Association, Gymkhana Madras *Address*.
Amir Alahai Palace, Madras

Maharaja of Cochin, 1907-11; reverted to British service, 1916, Collector and District Magistrate, Cuddapah, Collector placed at the disposal of Government of India, Foreign Department, for employment as Member of the Executive Council of H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore, March 1916. Retired from the I.C.S. Division of Mysore, 1922-26. Foreign Minister, Kashmir, 1927-29. Awarded 1 Class title "Rajmatsya" of Gandabherunda Order, Jamnabhadra by H. H. The Maharaja in open Durbar, Oct. 1928. *Publications*: The "Indian Tangle" (Published by Hutchinson & Co.) "An Indian Pathfinder" (Published by Kimp Hall Press, Ltd.) *Address*: C/o Courts and Co., 440, Strand, London, W. C. 2

BANERJI, BHABU NATH, M. Sc (Allahabad) Ph.D (Cantab), Meteorologist, (on leave) 6.15 August 1905, m. Hemanka Devi Educ. Allahabad University, Central Hindu College, Benares, 1912-16, and Canning College, Lucknow, 1916-18, Research Scholar and Assistant Lecturer of Physics, University of Allahabad, with Sir C. V. Raman, Government Post-graduate College of Science, Calcutta, 1918-20, with Sir C. V. Raman, Government of India University State Scholar from Allahabad Univ. at Cavendish Laboratory, Cambridge, with Sir J. J. Thomson, 1920-22. Joined Indian Meteorological Service January 1923, Meteorologist, Simla, 1923-26. As Meteorologist, Karachi Decr 1926 to Nov 1932. Founded and organized an international lines the first aeroplane and airship meteorological centre at Karachi including a first class Observatory equipped with all self-recording meteorological instruments and international installations at the Airship Base, Ditch Road, On deputation to England, Scotland, Norway, Germany, Belgium, France, Italy and Egypt Oct 1927 to August 1928 in connection with a balloon meteorology with particular reference to airships. Fellow of the Royal Meteorological Society, London, 1928. Made special study of the Meteorology of the uninvestigated Persian Gulf and Mesopotamia, the first of its kind for that region. Under London Air Ministry programme for the expected trial flight of the airship R 101 being responsible for the section bases to Karachi set up a complete temporary organization for all the detailed requirements of the airship. Honorary member, Karachi Aero Club. Member from India on the "Commission de l'Application de la Meteorologie a la Navigation Aeronautique". Permanent member, Indian Science Congress Meteorologists, Bombay, November 1932. *Publications*: The book "Meteorology of the Persian Gulf and Mesopotamia" and other original contributions in Physics and Meteorology published in various Indian and European Journals.

BANERJI, SUKUMAR, B.A. Sc, B.A., Assistant and Commissioner of Police in charge of North suburbs, Calcutta 6.5 October 1880 m. to Chandra, wife of late Kumar Sanyal, near Ghosol Bungalows Raj Loke St Xavier's College, Calcutta, Law class, Government College, Kirtipuragar, Bengal Police Training

BAPNA, WASIR-UD-DOWLA, RAJ BAHADUR S.M., O.I.B., B.A., B.Sc, LL.B., Prime Minister to His Highness the Maharaja Holkar 6.24th April 1882 m. Shreemati Anand Kumari, d. of the late Akhta Bhopal Singh, born at Udaipur Educ. at Maharaja High School, Udaipur, Govt College, Amer, and Aligarh College, Allahabad. For about a year practised law in Ajmer Alwar, served in Alwar for about a year and a half as Judicial Officer, appointed District and Sessions Judge in the Indore State in Jan 1907, In 1908 was appointed Law Tutor to H. H. Maharaja Tukoji Rao Holkar III; appointed His Highness' Second Secretary in 1911 and First Secretary in 1913, on special pension in April 1921, joined Patna State as Minister and remained there till August 1928, rejoined Holkar State Service as Home Minister in 1923, soon after appointed Deputy Prime Minister and President of the Appeal Committee of the Cabinet. In February 1926 was appointed Prime Minister and President of the Cabinet, *Address* Bakharg, Indore, C. I.

BARIA, MAJOR (HON.) HIS HIGHNESS MAJORITY, MAJOR SIR KANAKPRASAD, RAJA OF, K.C.S.I. (1922), 6.10 July 1886, one of one d. Educ. Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Imperial Cadet Corps, Dehra Dun, and in England. Served in European War, 1914-16 and in the Afghan War, 1919. Received a Baria (Baria State Rly) *Address* Devgad

BARKER, JOHN STEVENSON, M.A.O. (1911), P. W. Member and Chief Engineer, Holkar State 6.6 Sept 1879 m. Mary Gertrude, only d. of the late H. L. Moseley, I.S.O. (Colon) Civil Service, Educ. Bedford School and Royal Military Academy Commissioned in March 1909; Electrical Engineer, Delhi March 1911; Chief Engineer, Holkar State 1912 to 1916, 1919-1922 and since February 1929 Served in Mesopotamia 1915 to fall of Kut-el-Amara, April 1916; mentioned in despatches for defence of Kut-el-Amara. Was O.I.B. Quetta for three and a half years before retirement from the Army. *Address*, Indore, Central India

BARTLE, KILMURRAY WILLIAM, B.A. (Dublin), The Hon. Mr Justice, Bar-at-Law, LL.B., Judge, Bombay High Court 6.20 Nov 1877, Educ. at Warwick School and Dublin Law School, at Warwick High Court 6.20 Nov 1877, and Foreign Solicitor General, 1906, Under Secretary to Govt. Political, Judicial, and various Judge and Sessions Judge, 1919, Solicitor Agent to Government, Kathiawar, 1919, Judge and Sessions Judge, 1919, Solicitor

Legislative Council, 1926; Off. Jdg. Bombay High Court, 1930; continued May 1931. *Address*: "Chissmilli", Narayan Dabholkar Road, Bombay.

BARNEY, THE RT. REV. GEORGE DUNSTON, M.A. (Oxon), C.I.B. (1923), O.B.E. (1919), V.D. (1923), Bletted Bishop of Lahore, April, 1932. b May 6, 1879 in Dorothy Kate Akeman *Rue* Clifton College and Oriel Coll, Oxford. Asst. Master, Summerfields, Oxford, 1902-08, Curate of Christ Church, Shill, 1908-10, Chaplain of Shill, 1910, and Chaplain of Hyderabad, Sind, 1911, and Asst. Chaplain of Karachi, 1911-13. Principal, Lawrence H. Military School, Samawar *Address*: Lahore.

BARRY, CHARLES HAROLD, M.A. (Cambr.), Principal, Aitchison College, Lahore b 17 Feb 1906 in Mrs Maclean of Lankar *Rue* at B. N. G. Oboorn, Bradford College, Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Assistant Master, Bishop Cotton School, Simla, 1926-31, Inspector of Schools, Rawalpindi Division, Punjab, 1932-33, appointed Principal, Aitchison College, 1933. Publications: "Gleanings Aitches", 1929, "White Sails", 1930, "Bridges of Song", 1936 (for the University of the Punjab) *Address*: Aitchison College, Lahore.

BARTHE, RW. REV. JAM. MARTIN: Bishop of Trichinopoly, 1890-1914. *Address*: Shem-bagaur, Madras Presidency.

BARTHOLOMEW, LIEUT. GENERAL SIR WILLIAM HENRY, K.C.B. (1934), C.B. (1919), (M.A. 1917), D.S.O. (1917), A.D.C. to the King, 1926, Chief of the General Staff b 16 March 1877, s of J.S. Bartholomew, Major-General H.B. Penton (late) Indian Army, one s one d, *Rue* Newton College and R. Military Academy. Entered Royal Artillery, 1907, European War, 1914-18, Commanded 6th Infantry Brigade, Aldershot, 1914-18, Commander Imperial Defence College, Director of Operations and Intelligence, War Office, Major-General, 1926, Lieut. General, 1933, Chief of the General Staff, India, Legion of Honour, Crown of Belgium, Order of the Nile, Second Class Order of Sacred Treasure, *Address*: Ayns Headquaters, Delhi and Simla.

BARUA, RAJ BAHADUR DEVICHAN, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Tez Bhanter b 1864, *Rue* City College, Presidency College and the General Assembly's Institution, Calcutta, joined the Bar in 1888 and taking to tea plantation and having acquired 3 tea gardens at Jorhat retired from the Bar in 1917; Secretary, Jorhat Sarvamukh Sabha for nearly 17 years since 1900. Bletted member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921; Hon. Magistrate, Jorhat Bench *Address*: Jorhat, Assam.

BASU, JAYRAM NATH, M.A. Solicitor b 7 Feb 1872 in Mrs Basu Basu *Rue* Hindu School and Presidency College, Calcutta. He has been a member of the Bengal Legislative Council.

BATLEY, CLAUDE, A.B.A., Professor of Architecture, Bombay School of Art, and India on architectural subjects *Address*: Bombay.

BATTILIA, SORABJI HORWART, B.A. Eng. b 21 March, 1878. *Rue* St Xavier's School and College. Connected with the Cotton Industry, Technical Adviser to the Court Receiver of the Felt Group of Mills in Liquidation (1931). Has travelled extensively and studied the economic systems of various countries. Publications: Contributions on financial and economic subjects *Address*: Green's Mansion, Apollo-Bhandar, Bombay.

BEADON, DR. MARY, M.B.B.S. (Lond), Kaiser-I-Hind Second Class (1920); Principal, Lady Harding College, New Delhi; m R.O. Beadon, K.C.S.G. *Rue*: at London (Royal Free Hospital) School of Medicine for Women joined W.M.S. in 1914, in charge Dundrum Hospital, Luskow, 1909-1918, Superintendent, Women's Medical School, Agre, 1918-1920, Superintendent, Government Victoria Hospital, Madras and Lady Williamson Medical School for Women, Madras, 1921-1930, Principal, Lady Harding Medical College, New Delhi, June 1930 *Address*: Lady Harding College, New Delhi.

BEASTLEY, SIR HORACE OWEN COURTON, K.C. b 1830, O.B., Hon. Mr Justice Beasley, Chief Justice of Madras since 1929 b 2nd July 1877 in 1909, Evelyn Augusta Atherton *Rue* Westminster School, Teas two s *Rue* Cambridge Called to Bar, Inner Temple, 1902, Finsane Judge, High Court of Burma, 1923-24, a Judge in the High Court of Madras, 1924-29, served in the European War, 1914-19, Western Front 1916-19 (Major O.B., despatches); Major Regular Army. Recrute of Officers *Address*: High Court, Madras.

BEAUMONT, THE HON. SIR JOHN WILLIAM FRISER, M.A. (Cambridge); King's Counsel, 1930, Chief Justice of Bombay b 4th September 1877 in Isabel Edith d of William Wallace (deceased) *Rue*: Wimpolester and Pembroke College, Cambridge, First Class Historical Tripos, 1899 Called to Bar Chancery Division Lent R.G.A., 1910-1918 *Address*: "Colchester Court", Harpness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

BEEDFORD, EARL ADAMANT, ARTHUR EDWARD
FRANKLIN, C.B. (1934), ROYAL NAVY, Flag
Officer Commanding and Director, Royal
Indian Navy since 1934. 1881, in 1914,
Gladys, d of William Klye Mior, Sydney. One
s. Ethel. H.M.S. Britannia, joined R.N.
1896, Rear-Admiral 1931; served European
War 1914-1918, A.D.C. to the King, 1931
Address Admirals' House, Bombay.

BEDI RAJA, SIR BABA GURDIT SINGH, Kt
1916; K.B.M. (1920), C.I.M. 1911; Hon.
Extra Asst. Commissioner in the Punjab
1892. A lineal descendant and of Gurm
Nanak, founder of Sikh religion, now head
of Sukan Sikhs of N.W. Province, Punjab
and Afghanistan. A fellow of the Punjab
the Indo-Afghan Peace Conference in 1919
Address Kullar, Punjab.

BELL, SIR ROBERT DUNAN, K.C.S.I. (1936),
C.I.B. (1918), Member of Council of the Govern-
ment of Bombay. Educ. Hertford's School, Herts-
burgh, Edinburgh University and Trinity Col-
lege, Cambridge in Jussie, & D. Spence, Esq.
Appointed I.C.S. Bombay, 1902. Secretary,
Indian Industrial Commission, 1914-17,
Controller, Industrial Intelligence, 1917-18,
Controller, Oils and Fats, 1918-19, Director
of Industries, Bombay, 1919-21. Secretary
to Government, Development Department and
Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division,
1924-30. Chief Secretary to Government,
Revenue Department, 1930-32. Address
Secretariat, Bombay.

BELVALKAR, SHIVRAO KASHMA, M.A., Ph.D.
Deccan College, Poona, 6.11 Dec 1881
Educ. Rajaram College, Kolhapur and Deccan
College, Poona and at Harvard, U.S.A.
1907. Prof., Deccan Educational Department,
joined Bombay Educational Department,
one of the principal founders of the Bharatnagar
Oriental Research Institute and for several
years its Hon. Secretary. Also Hon. Secretary,
Poona Sanskrit College Association and General
Secretary, All-India Oriental Conference. Recel-
pient of Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal, "Publi-
cations," "History of Systems of Sanskrit Gram-
mar," Edition and translation of Bhavabhuti's
"Later History of Rama." In the Harvard
Oriental Series, English translation of Kavya-
dasa, Critical edition of Brahmasutra-
bhasha with Notes and translation, "Bhar-
natika Lectures on Vedanta Philosophy, Banu
Calcutta University, 1926, and in colla-
boration with Prof. Kanada) History of
Indian Philosophy, Vol. 2 (out of the 8 pro-
jected), several papers contributed to Oriental
Journals or presented to the Oriental Con-
ferences, and other learned Societies. Address
"Bharatnagar," Bhamburda, Poona, No. 4.

**BENJAMIN, VAN T. KUNAVITIA, B.A., Arch-
deacon of Kottayam since July 1922, Former-
ly incumbent of Pro-Cathedral, Kottayam.
1895-1922, Acting Principal, Kottayam
Commissary, 1922, Bishop's
Cathedral, 1922, Bishop's
Commissary, 1923. Publications (in Malayalam)
Notes on the Epistles to the Hebrews,
Treasury of Knowledge and Family Friend
Address Kottayam**

BENNETT, GEORGE BENESS, M.Sc., M.Inst.
C.B., M.I.M.E., J.P., Chief Engineer, Bom-
bay Port Trust b. 1884 in France
Sophia Bennett Educ. Scotchport Grammar
School, Manchester University Assistant
Engineer (Bridges), G.I.E., 1910-1916
Port Engineer, Chittagong, 1916-1919, Ex-
Engineer, Calcutta Port Trust, 1919-24
Senior Executive Engineer, Calcutta Port
Trust, 1924-26, Deputy Chief Engineer,
Bombay Port Trust, 1926-30, Chief Engineer,
1930. Address Bombay Port Trust, Bombay.

**BENTHALL, SIR EDWARD CHARLES, Kt. Seal-
Partner, Bird & Co., Calcutta and R.W. Seal-
gas & Co., Calcutta, since 1929, s of Revd.
Benthall and Mrs. Benthall, b. 26th November
1893 in 1918 Hon.ble Ruth McCarty Cable,
daughter of first Baron Cable of Ideford, one
son, Educ. Eton (King's School), King's
College, Cambridge. Served European War
1914-19, India 1914-15, Mesopotamia 1916-18
(wounded), Staff War Officer 1918-19. Director
of numerous Companies, Director, Imperial
Bank of India, 1916-32, Governor, 1928-30
President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce
1932, Vice-President, 1934. President,
Associated Chambers of Commerce of India
and Ceylon, 1932, Delegate, Indian Round
Table Conference, 1931-32, Indian Army
Refranchisement Committee, 1931. Address
37, Ballygunge Park, Calcutta.**

**BENZIGER, THE MOST REV. ALOYSIUS MARY,
O.C.D., b. Knosoden, Switzerland, 1864,
Educ. Frankfurt, Brussels; Downside Came
to India, 1890. Bishop of Tabriz, 1909, Assistant
to the Pontifical Throne, Roman Court, 1926
Elected as Bishop of Quilon in August 1931
& nominated Titular Archbishop of Antioch
(Antiochia) in recognition of his merits
Address Carmel Hill Monastery, Trivandrum,
Travancore**

**BHAKTAVATYAL-HILL, Lt.-Col OWEN ALBERT
BOWLAND, M.A., M.D., Ch.B. (Oxon.), M.R.
O.S. (Eng.), L.R.C.P. (Lon.), M.B., Medical
Superintendent, European Medical Hospital,
Bangalore b. 22 Dec 1879 in Kumbi-
Ranchi. Educ. at Rugby School, Oxford and
University College Hospital, London.
Entered Indian Medical Service in 1907, Ser-
ved throughout Great War (East Africa
Campaign), Mentioned in Despatches. Presi-
dent, Indian Psychological Association, Presi-
dent, Indian Association for Mental
Hygiene, Member of Indian Branch of the
International Association of Psycho-Analysts
Publications: Numerous articles in scientific
Journals. Address Kanke (P.O.), Ranchi,
Bihar and Orissa.**

**BHATHKUD, EDWARD HENRY, B.A. (Oxon.),
1898, Member, Council of State and Com-
missioner of Excise and Inspector-General of
Registration, Bihar and Orissa. b. 13 Sept
1876 in Rhyls Hamilton Cove Educ. at
Uppingham and New College, Oxford. Asst.
Magistrate, Joint Magistrate, and Collector
in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa since 1900
Address Patna**

**BHATTACHARYA, HANU BHAKTOS, S.J. (of BERNARD),
B.A., D.D., Kaiser-I-Hind (1 class, 1921),
Principal, Loyola College, Madras b. 23 July
1894, D.D., Kaiser-I-Hind (1 class, 1921),
Principal, Loyola College, Madras b. 23 July**

1870, at Montigny-les-Metz, Lorraine Educ in the Society of Jesus. Entered Society of Jesuits, Aug 1888, came to India 1888, Principal, St Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, 1909-25, Principal, Loyola College since 1925, Member of Senate, Madras University since 1910, Member of Syndicate, since 1916, Member, Chancery Council, since 1923, offg Vice-Chancellor, Madras University, April to September 1931, and again February to May 1934. Address Loyola College, Cathedral P O, Madras.

BIVOO, GURUKAR VANKAYEN, B A (Bom.) B A (Canarb), C I E, I O S, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs 20 Nov 1888 in Madras, and Sydney Sussex Coll, Cambridge Under Secretary to Govt, C P Dy Commissioner, Chanda, Postmaster-General, Bihar and Orissa and Central Provinces, Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, Delhi, and Postmaster-General, Bombay. Circle, Indian Delegate to the Air Mail Congress at the Hague, 1927 and to the Universal Postal Congress, London, 1929. Address Delhi and Simla, "Shri Krishna Niwas," Poon 4.

BHABHA, HOMNATH JANKAR, M A, D Litt. J P, C I E, Hon Pres Magte, Director of Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co, Fellow of the Indian Institute of Sciences, Bangalore, deputed as a delegate to the Congress of Imperial Universities 1926 by the Universities of Bombay and Mysore. b. 27 June 1882 in Alas Jeral Edaljee Hall, Alas Educ Bhatmstone College and in Bhatmstone College, Bhatmstone College, 1874-76, Vice-Principal and Professor of Logic and Ethics, Central College, Bangalore, 1876-1884, Principal, Bhatmstone College, Mysore, 1884, Education Secretary to Government, Mysore, 1890, Inspector-General of Education in Mysore, 1896-1909, Munir-ul-Tahim (Mysore) Special Report on Manual Training in Schools of General Education, Report on the Education of Parsi Boys, 1920, a Visit to Australian Universities, 1923, a Visit to British Universities, 1926, Modern Civilization and Progress, 1922 Address Malabar Hill, Bombay 6.

BHARATUN SINGHJI BHADUR, COLORED MAHARAJ SRI SIR, K C S I, b 15th September 1879 Educ Mayo College Alwar, Appointed Companion to H H the Maharaja of Bikaner, 1895 and accompanied him in his Indian Tour in 1896 Appointed Member of State Council, 1898 and was from time to time Personal Secretary to His Highness the Foreign and Political Department, Bikaner, Foreign Member of Council, Political Member, Vice-President of State Council, and the last Cabinet also acted as President of Council during H H's visits to Europe. Now in charge of the portfolio consisting of Bikaner Fort, Fort Palace, Badaakhana and copying dept, Bikaner State Is Hon. Col of the Sahal Light Infantry and Personal A. D. O to the Maharaja Publications Bhavnagar, Bhatmstone and Bhatmstone

BHABHA, GOVIND CHITRAJI, M A (Bom.) b 19 Sept 1870 Widower Educ Deccan College Professor in Ferguson College, Poona, from 1896 to 1933 Principal and Professor, Willingdon College, Bangl, from 1919 Publications, Principles of Economics, Distinct Three Philosophies, Philosophy of the Fine Arts (All in Marathi) Speeches and Essays (in English), Kant and Shankarbharya Post, Dist Satara

BHATIA, MAJOR SOHAN LAL, M A, XI D, B Oh (Canarb), M B O P (London), R B S, B (1932) R C P S (Bombay), M O (1918), I M S, Dean and Prof of Physiology, Grant Medical College, Bombay b Yang 1891 m. Rajkumar Educ Cambridge Univ. (Peterhouse), and St Thomas Hospital, London Canality Officer and Resident Anaesthetist, St Thomas Hospital, London, Clinical Assiste Children's Department, House Surgeon, Ophthalmic House Surgeon joined I M S 1917, saw active service with Egyptian Expeditionary Force (106th Mountain Light Infantry), 1918, appointed Professor of Physiology, Grant Medical College in 1920 and Dean in 1925 Publications A number of scientific papers in the Indian Journal of Medical Research and Indian Medical Gazette Address "Two Gables," Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

BHAYANAGAR, H H MAHARAJA KRISHNA KUMAR SIKHRI, MAHARAJA OF b 19th May 1912, a father Lt-Col H Maharaja, St Bhasmaji, Takhasmaji, K C S I, July 1919 Educ Harrow, England installed with full powers, 1931, married 1931, Address Bhavnagar, Kathiawar

BHOJAL, H H SIKHAR SAVALAT NAYAB JETIKARU-MUKH SAR MONHAKAD HAMDUT-LAH KHAZ, NAWAB OF G C S I (1932), G C I L.

BHABHAVA, RAT BHADUR, PANDIT JAVAHAR LAL, B A, LL B, Advocate, High Court, Lahore, b 1st Oct. 1870 m d of J Mahan Lal, Bhargava of Beawal Educ Sirs M B School, Rewari M B School, Lahore Mission Coll, Lahore Government Coll and Law School, President, Bar Assn, Hissar, got Durban Medal and War Loan Sanad, acted as Secretary, India War Relief Fund, The Anglo-Persian Refinery, India War Relief Fund, was elected member, Punjab Legislative Council, 1916-20, and Legislative Assembly, 1921-23 Late member, St. John Ambulance Association and Chairman, District Centre at Hissar Address Hissar (Punjab)

BHATT, GOVIND CHITRAJI, M A (Bom.) b 19 Sept 1870 Widower Educ Deccan College Professor in Ferguson College, Poona, from 1896 to 1933 Principal and Professor, Willingdon College, Bangl, from 1919 Publications, Principles of Economics, Distinct Three Philosophies, Philosophy of the Fine Arts (All in Marathi) Speeches and Essays (in English), Kant and Shankarbharya Post, Dist Satara

BHATIA, MAJOR SOHAN LAL, M A, XI D, B Oh (Canarb), M B O P (London), R B S, B (1932) R C P S (Bombay), M O (1918), I M S, Dean and Prof of Physiology, Grant Medical College, Bombay b Yang 1891 m. Rajkumar Educ Cambridge Univ. (Peterhouse), and St Thomas Hospital, London Canality Officer and Resident Anaesthetist, St Thomas Hospital, London, Clinical Assiste Children's Department, House Surgeon, Ophthalmic House Surgeon joined I M S 1917, saw active service with Egyptian Expeditionary Force (106th Mountain Light Infantry), 1918, appointed Professor of Physiology, Grant Medical College in 1920 and Dean in 1925 Publications A number of scientific papers in the Indian Journal of Medical Research and Indian Medical Gazette Address "Two Gables," Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

BHAYANAGAR, H H MAHARAJA KRISHNA KUMAR SIKHRI, MAHARAJA OF b 19th May 1912, a father Lt-Col H Maharaja, St Bhasmaji, Takhasmaji, K C S I, July 1919 Educ Harrow, England installed with full powers, 1931, married 1931, Address Bhavnagar, Kathiawar

BHOJAL, H H SIKHAR SAVALAT NAYAB JETIKARU-MUKH SAR MONHAKAD HAMDUT-LAH KHAZ, NAWAB OF G C S I (1932), G C I L.

BHABHAVA, RAT BHADUR, PANDIT JAVAHAR LAL, B A, LL B, Advocate, High Court, Lahore, b 1st Oct. 1870 m d of J Mahan Lal, Bhargava of Beawal Educ Sirs M B School, Rewari M B School, Lahore Mission Coll, Lahore Government Coll and Law School, President, Bar Assn, Hissar, got Durban Medal and War Loan Sanad, acted as Secretary, India War Relief Fund, The Anglo-Persian Refinery, India War Relief Fund, was elected member, Punjab Legislative Council, 1916-20, and Legislative Assembly, 1921-23 Late member, St. John Ambulance Association and Chairman, District Centre at Hissar Address Hissar (Punjab)

BHATT, GOVIND CHITRAJI, M A (Bom.) b 19 Sept 1870 Widower Educ Deccan College Professor in Ferguson College, Poona, from 1896 to 1933 Principal and Professor, Willingdon College, Bangl, from 1919 Publications, Principles of Economics, Distinct Three Philosophies, Philosophy of the Fine Arts (All in Marathi) Speeches and Essays (in English), Kant and Shankarbharya Post, Dist Satara

BHATIA, MAJOR SOHAN LAL, M A, XI D, B Oh (Canarb), M B O P (London), R B S, B (1932) R C P S (Bombay), M O (1918), I M S, Dean and Prof of Physiology, Grant Medical College, Bombay b Yang 1891 m. Rajkumar Educ Cambridge Univ. (Peterhouse), and St Thomas Hospital, London Canality Officer and Resident Anaesthetist, St Thomas Hospital, London, Clinical Assiste Children's Department, House Surgeon, Ophthalmic House Surgeon joined I M S 1917, saw active service with Egyptian Expeditionary Force (106th Mountain Light Infantry), 1918, appointed Professor of Physiology, Grant Medical College in 1920 and Dean in 1925 Publications A number of scientific papers in the Indian Journal of Medical Research and Indian Medical Gazette Address "Two Gables," Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

BHAYANAGAR, H H MAHARAJA KRISHNA KUMAR SIKHRI, MAHARAJA OF b 19th May 1912, a father Lt-Col H Maharaja, St Bhasmaji, Takhasmaji, K C S I, July 1919 Educ Harrow, England installed with full powers, 1931, married 1931, Address Bhavnagar, Kathiawar

BHOJAL, H H SIKHAR SAVALAT NAYAB JETIKARU-MUKH SAR MONHAKAD HAMDUT-LAH KHAZ, NAWAB OF G C S I (1932), G C I L.

HVSACHIC, AKAHUA DVID, KAHAWA ni
Coopers III, (1900), i Oe Ahimahi, (1910)
Inspector-General of Forests to the Govt
of India & left Jan 1878 w Hutton and
of the late C Woodroffe of Buxarho Hill.
Belated School, Royal Indian Engineering
College, Coopers III, Indian Forest Service,
Furnab, 1900, Chief Conservator of Forests,
Furnab, 1920, Inspector-General of Forests
to the Govt of India and President, Bombay
Research Institute and College, 1930. Ad-
ress Dehra Dun, U P.

STUNT, HON. SIR EDWARD ARTHUR LEMNAX,
K O I B, B A, I O S Member of the
Executive Council, United Provinces & A
1877, in Adv. of O H Stone, R N two
one & five Matheron College and Com
Christ College, Oxford. Served in U
as Asst Comm and Asst. Magistrate,
and Collector, Under Secretary to Govt
and Superintendent, Census Operation, on
special duty in Finance Department of Govt
of India, 1912-13, Settlement Officer in 1916,
Director of Civil Supplies in 1918, Director
of Industries, 1919, appointed Secretary to
of U P Govt, 1920-31, appointed Member of
Executive Council, 1931
"Christian Tombs and Monuments" of
Historical interest in the U P (1911), Gaste
System of Northern India, (1932), Address
to the Royal House of Lords

BLUNT, LESTER, Solicitor & 29 Dec 1876 in
Kathleen, and d of the late Dr. Thornton of
Marblehead, Edge Rugby
Orange Blunt and Caroe
Podder Road, Bombay.

3046 GEORGE TOWNSEND, M A (Cambridge),
O R, (1928), L O S, Member,
Board of November 12, 1881
Westminster (1887 to 1903), and Trinity
College, Cambridge, (1903 to 1907) Passed
into the I O S in 1907 and joined the
Service in Madras in 1908
Club, Madras.
Address

19; Algham War, 1910
1895, China, 1899
Active Service W Africa
Edgc. Officers' Hospital, I. M. A. (Woolwich)
E 27 Sep 1870, m. Violet Mary (Woolwich)
(1916), Chief Engineer, Western Command,
HAWKESBORO, O. B. (1919), D. S. O.,
COMMANDANT
SOUTHAM

ICE (1934), B.A., LL.B., J.P. (Bohloket),
Bombay Merchant, 6 July 1868, *India* 86
Pravara and Elphinstone College Juris
Scholar. Erected as an Attorney for about
20 years, then became partner in C. MacDonald
& Co., and was there for 5 years. Gave up
business to do public service. Became member

of Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1910,
member of Standing Committee, 1921-22 to
1920-27 and 1928-30; Chairman, Standing
Committee, 1928-29, Chairman, Schools Com-
mittee, Jan to March 1923 and January to
December 1920, Chairman of J. W. Proctor and
Associates Committee, 1930-31, Chairman
of Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1931-32, 1933-34, 1935-36, 1937-38, 1939-40, 1941-42, 1943-44, 1945-46, 1947-48, 1949-50, 1951-52, 1953-54, 1955-56, 1957-58, 1959-60, 1961-62, 1963-64, 1965-66, 1967-68, 1969-70, 1971-72, 1973-74, 1975-76, 1977-78, 1979-80, 1981-82, 1983-84, 1985-86, 1987-88, 1989-90, 1991-92, 1993-94, 1995-96, 1997-98, 1999-00, 2001-02, 2003-04, 2005-06, 2007-08, 2009-10, 2011-12, 2013-14, 2015-16, 2017-18, 2019-20, 2021-22, 2023-24, 2025-26, 2027-28, 2029-30, 2031-32, 2033-34, 2035-36, 2037-38, 2039-40, 2041-42, 2043-44, 2045-46, 2047-48, 2049-50, 2051-52, 2053-54, 2055-56, 2057-58, 2059-60, 2061-62, 2063-64, 2065-66, 2067-68, 2069-70, 2071-72, 2073-74, 2075-76, 2077-78, 2079-80, 2081-82, 2083-84, 2085-86, 2087-88, 2089-90, 2091-92, 2093-94, 2095-96, 2097-98, 2099-00, 2101-02, 2103-04, 2105-06, 2107-08, 2109-10, 2111-12, 2113-14, 2115-16, 2117-18, 2119-20, 2121-22, 2123-24, 2125-26, 2127-28, 2129-30, 2131-32, 2133-34, 2135-36, 2137-38, 2139-40, 2141-42, 2143-44, 2145-46, 2147-48, 2149-50, 2151-52, 2153-54, 2155-56, 2157-58, 2159-60, 2161-62, 2163-64, 2165-66, 2167-68, 2169-70, 2171-72, 2173-74, 2175-76, 2177-78, 2179-80, 2181-82, 2183-84, 2185-86, 2187-88, 2189-90, 2191-92, 2193-94, 2195-96, 2197-98, 2199-00, 2201-02, 2203-04, 2205-06, 2207-08, 2209-10, 2211-12, 2213-14, 2215-16, 2217-18, 2219-20, 2221-22, 2223-24, 2225-26, 2227-28, 2229-30, 2231-32, 2233-34, 2235-36, 2237-38, 2239-40, 2241-42, 2243-44, 2245-46, 2247-48, 2249-50, 2251-52, 2253-54, 2255-56, 2257-58, 2259-60, 2261-62, 2263-64, 2265-66, 2267-68, 2269-70, 2271-72, 2273-74, 2275-76, 2277-78, 2279-80, 2281-82, 2283-84, 2285-86, 2287-88, 2289-90, 2291-92, 2293-94, 2295-96, 2297-98, 2299-00, 2301-02, 2303-04, 2305-06, 2307-08, 2309-10, 2311-12, 2313-14, 2315-16, 2317-18, 2319-20, 2321-22, 2323-24, 2325-26, 2327-28, 2329-30, 2331-32, 2333-34, 2335-36, 2337-38, 2339-40, 2341-42, 2343-44, 2345-46, 2347-48, 2349-50, 2351-52, 2353-54, 2355-56, 2357-58, 2359-60, 2361-62, 2363-64, 2365-66, 2367-68, 2369-70, 2371-72, 2373-74, 2375-76, 2377-78, 2379-80, 2381-82, 2383-84, 2385-86, 2387-88, 2389-90, 2391-92, 2393-94, 2395-96, 2397-98, 2399-00, 2401-02, 2403-04, 2405-06, 2407-08, 2409-10, 2411-12, 2413-14, 2415-16, 2417-18, 2419-20, 2421-22, 2423-24, 2425-26, 2427-28, 2429-30, 2431-32, 2433-34, 2435-36, 2437-38, 2439-40, 2441-42, 2443-44, 2445-46, 2447-48, 2449-50, 2451-52, 2453-54, 2455-56, 2457-58, 2459-60, 2461-62, 2463-64, 2465-66, 2467-68, 2469-70, 2471-72, 2473-74, 2475-76, 2477-78, 2479-80, 2481-82, 2483-84, 2485-86, 2487-88, 2489-90, 2491-92, 2493-94, 2495-96, 2497-98, 2499-00, 2501-02, 2503-04, 2505-06, 2507-08, 2509-10, 2511-12, 2513-14, 2515-16, 2517-18, 2519-20, 2521-22, 2523-24, 2525-26, 2527-28, 2529-30, 2531-32, 2533-34, 2535-36, 2537-38, 2539-40, 2541-42, 2543-44, 2545-46, 2547-48, 2549-50, 2551-52, 2553-54, 2555-56, 2557-58, 2559-60, 2561-62, 2563-64, 2565-66, 2567-68, 2569-70, 2571-72, 2573-74, 2575-76, 2577-78, 2579-80, 2581-82, 2583-84, 2585-86, 2587-88, 2589-90, 2591-92, 2593-94, 2595-96, 2597-98, 2599-00, 2601-02, 2603-04, 2605-06, 2607-08, 2609-10, 2611-12, 2613-14, 2615-16, 2617-18, 2619-20, 2621-22, 2623-24, 2625-26, 2627-28, 2629-30, 2631-32, 2633-34, 2635-36, 2637-38, 2639-40, 2641-42, 2643-44, 2645-46, 2647-48, 2649-50, 2651-52, 2653-54, 2655-56, 2657-58, 2659-60, 2661-62, 2663-64, 2665-66, 2667-68, 2669-70, 2671-72, 2673-74, 2675-76, 2677-78, 2679-80, 2681-82, 2683-84, 2685-86, 2687-88, 2689-90, 2691-92, 2693-94, 2695-96, 2697-98, 2699-00, 2701-02, 2703-04, 2705-06, 2707-08, 2709-10, 2711-12, 2713-14, 2715-16, 2717-18, 2719-20, 2721-22, 2723-24, 2725-26, 2727-28, 2729-30, 2731-32, 2733-34, 2735-36, 2737-38, 2739-40, 2741-42, 2743-44, 2745-46, 2747-48, 2749-50, 2751-52, 2753-54, 2755-56, 2757-58, 2759-60, 2761-62, 2763-64, 2765-66, 2767-68, 2769-70, 2771-72, 2773-74, 2775-76, 2777-78, 2779-80, 2781-82, 2783-84, 2785-86, 2787-88, 2789-90, 2791-92, 2793-94, 2795-96, 2797-98, 2799-00, 2801-02, 2803-04, 2805-06, 2807-08, 2809-10, 2811-12

Dist Hooghly, Governor and Secretary, Calcutta Blind School, Alambai, Tran-
 ways Advisory Committee, was member of
 Council and for a short time Secretary, National
 Liberal League, Bengal. Unsuccessfully
 contested in Liberal interests once for Indian
 Legislative Assembly (1920), and twice for
 Bengal Legislative Council (1924 and 1926), from
 Calcutta constituencies. Elected Member of
 Leg Assembly from Calcutta Urban Non-
 Theosophical Constituency 1930. Was a
 delegate to Reserve Bank Committee in
 London at the invitation of His Majesty's
 Government, June-August, 1938. Address
 58, Puddupukur Road, Bowbazar, Calcutta.

BLACKWELL, THE HON MR JUSTICE, QC, F.A.R.C., M.B.E. (Jury Div 1970), High Court Judge, Bombay 6 & 8 November 1961 in re Marguerite Frances, eldest of the late A. Thelma, M.A. O. Educ. Blackheath School, Hollier Greek Scholar, Univ. College London, 1901, Classical Exhibition, Wadham College, Oxford 1901, 1st Class Classical Honour Moderations 1903, 2nd Class Litt Hum 1905, B.A. 1906, Secretary of Oxford Union Society, 1904, Treas.-gen., Wadham College, 1904, Called to Bar at Inner Temple 1907, and won the Northampton Lecture 1907.

that went into National Service during European War. Was Liberal candidate for Hastings in 1914, but resigned on the outbreak of war, connected with Ministry of War, appointed a Justice (Lib), December 1923, appointed a Justice Judge of High Court of Bombay 1926. Address "Hydston" Padder Road, Bombay.

BLAKISTON, JOHN FRANCIS, Orléans
Director-General of Archaeology, 21 Marsh
1882 *See* Wellington College, England
Architect, entered Archaeological Survey of
India, March 1911 Address New Delhi and
Bombay

BLANDY, EDWARD NICOLAS, B.A. (Oxon),
Boden Scholar of Sanskrit, Secretary, Finance,
Commerce and Marine Departments, Bengal,
6 1st July, 1886 (see Dorothy Kathleen (nee
Marshfield) *ibid.* - Clifton and Balliol Ass't
Mag'ee and Coll'r, Dacca, 1910, Sub-Div
Secretary, 1912, District Administration Committee,
to Bengal, 1918, Under Secretary, Finance Dept Gov't of
Bengal, 1914 in addition Controller of Hospi-
tals and Custodian of Enemy Property, 1916,
Add'l Dist and Sessions Judge, Jessore, 1917,
Secretary, Provincial Recruiting Board, 1917,
and later in addition Controller of Hospi-
tals, etc and Jt Secretary, Railway Board,
Under-Secretary, Finance Department, Gov-
ernment of India, 1919, Collector of Income-
Tax, Calcutta, 1921, Commissioner of Income-
Tax, Bengal, 1922, Mag'ee and Coll'r, Bahar-
ganj, 1924 to 1926, Mag'ee and Coll'r, 24
Mag'ars, 1928, Deputy Commissioner,
Darjeeling, 1928; Secretary to Government of
Bengal, Finance Department, 1930 Com-
missioner, Chittagong Division, 1933. Address
Bengal Club, Calcutta

BRAYNE, ALFRED FRANKLIN DUDLEY, M A (Glas), B A (Oxon), C I B 1923, Indian Civil Service, b 1 April 1884 in 1900, May, ed James Thomson, M D Irvine, Glasgow University, Oxford (Trinity College) Appointed I C S, Bombay, 1908, Assistant Collector, Records, 1913-1916, Under-Secretary and Deputy Secretary to Bombay Government, 1916-20. Subsequently Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India and in 1922-23 attached to the Indrapur Committee on Reorganisation. Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs, 1928-24, Financial Adviser, Military Finance, 1924-28 Off Secretary, Finance Department, 1926-27, and again in 1931-32, also Army Department, 1928, Reorganisation, Indian Delegation to Montevideo and Economic Conference, 1933 Address India Office, London

BRAYNE, FRANK LUGARD, M C (1918), Commissioner, Rural Reconstruction Punjab b Jan 6, 1882 in His Goodbye Gobbie, 1930 Educ Alonkton Combe School and Pembroke Coll, Cambridge joined I C S, 1905, Military Service, France, Palestine, etc, 1915-19 M C 1918 Publications Village Uplift in India (1928), Societies in an Indian Village (Oxford Univ Press), The Remaking of Village India in the village, etc, A scheme of Rural Reconstruction, (Uttar Chand Kripa Lahore Indian and the English village (Oxford Univ Press) 1932 Village Dynamics (R S M Gulab Singh & Sons, Lahore, 1934) Rural Reconstruction—A Note (Superintendent, Government Printing, Lahore, 1934) Address Lahore Punjab, and Great Hypsich, Norfolk

BRAYSHAY, ALFRED WILLIAM, M Sc, (Leeds) A M Inst C E M I D (India), Agent, B B and C I B, b 7 March 1888 Educ Ripon Grammar School, 1896-1900, and Leeds University, 1900-1908 Training in Royal Dockyard Chatham, 1903-5, Applied Assst Engineer, Eastern Bengal Railway, 1905-09, Assistant and Executive Engineer under Sir Robert Gales on the construction of the Bar Bridge over the Ganges, 1909-15, Assistant Agent, North-Western Railway, 1915-17, Dy Controller, Indian Railways Board, 1917-18 Assistant Secretary Railway Board, 1918-24, Dy Agent, B B & C I Railway, 1924, Assistant, Railway Board, 1929 Agent, B B & C I Railway, 1932 Off Chief Commissioner, Railway Board, 1933 Address Bombay, Almonkton Road, Bombay BRIDGEMAN, ROBERT STOKESHOUSE, M A (Oxford), Barr-at-Law, Judge, High Court, Bombay b 1 Dec 1882 in 1905 Label Lonsdale nee Lambton Educ City of London School and Christ's College, Cambridge, Appointed to Indian Civil Service, 1905, Judge, High Court, Bombay 1929 Address, Murrayfield, 1929

BROWN, THOMAS, ARTHUR BRANST, M A (Canb), B Sc, (London), C I B (1926) Missionary (Wesleyan) Methodist, b 17 May 1882 in M Gertrude Parsons, M A wife was in 1908 Educ Stationers' Company's School, London, Kingswood School (Scholar) Entered Wesleyan Methodist Ministry and joined Wesleyan College, Banbury in January 1906, became Principal, 1917, Nominated Fellow of Calcutta University, 1921, General Superintendent of Wesleyan Mission in Bengal, 1924-28 Chairman, Banbury Municipality, 1934 Publication, Translation from Bengali of "The Cage of Gold" by Sita Devi Address Wesleyan College, Banbury, B N Ry

BUCK, SIR EDWARD JOHN, O B (1918), C B E (1918) Kt (since 1928) late Hunter's Agent with Government of India now adviser to Associated Press of India; Chairman, Associated Hotels of India, Peshwa Institute (India), and Director, Bombay Timber Co b 1862, in Anne Margaret, d of late General Sir H. M. Jennings, K C B Educ St John's College Hurstpierpoint Was in business in Australia, Assistant and Joint Secretary, Countess of Dufferin's Fund for 28 years Hon Sec, Executive Committee "Our Day" in India, 1917-28 Publication "Suma, Past and Present" (two Editions) Address . Suma, Bengal Club, Calcutta

BUNDI, H H MAHARAO RAJI, Sir MAHARAJA SINGHJI BAHADUR, G O B I, 1919, K O S I, 1897, G O B E, 1900, G O V O or 1911, b 26 Sept 1869, S 1889, Address Bundi, Rajasthan

BURDON, SIR BRUCE, B A, Oxon, K C I E, (1934) C I B (1921), C S I (1926), Auditor-General in India, b 27 Jan 1881 d of Rev W Rautwater, D D, Dunsink, Glenties, Kircaldy, Eire, Educ Dunsink Academy, University College, Oxford (Scholar) Entered Indian Civil Service, 1906, Financial Under-Secretary to Punjab Government, 1911, and to Government of India, 1914, Financial Adviser, Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force, 1918-19, Financial Adviser, Military Finance, Govt of India, Member of Indian Munitions Board, and of Imperial Leges Council, India, 1919, Secretary to Government of India, 1922-26, and Member of Legislative Assembly, 1922-26, 1927-29 Address Sumla and New Delhi BURDWAN, SIR BULAK CHAND MAHARAJA, BAHADUR OF, G C I D, 1924, K C S I or 1911, K O I D, or 1909

C. I. E., m 1925, Subbhadra, youngest d of Rao Bahadur T. M. Appu Nedunagudi, B. A., B. L., one d Padmuni Kdus, St Bedes European High School, Madras, Madras Christian College and New College, Oxford (1918-21). Appointed Principal, Government College, Mangalore, in the Indian Education Service, Oct 1922, Fellow of the University of Madras, member of the Senate, the Academic Council, the Standing Committee of the Academic Council and the Board of Studies in English. *Publications* Verses. Sounds and Images (1921, London). The Triumph of Love Gunaratraya, The Temple Tank (1932). The Shadow of God (1935). Froze The Ghost City (1932). College Composition (1933). The Last Encampment (1934). Akars of Silence (1935). *Address* Light-house Hill, Mangalore.

CHERRY, S. B. SHANUKKAR, K. O. B. (1933), B. A., B. L. Lawyer and Dewan, Cochin State. B. 17 Oct 1893. Kdus, The Madras Christian College. Elected as a member of the Madras Legis Council in 1920, was appointed Council Secretary to the Development Minister in 1922, in Oct 1922 was deputed by the Madras Govt to report about measures of Temperance Reform in Bombay, Bengal and the United Provinces. Elected in 1923 as member, Legislative Assembly. Visited England in May 1924 as one of the members of the Deputation sent by the National Convention of India, visited Australia as Indian representative on the Delegation of the Empire Fair-Parliamentary Association in September 1926; was elected unopposed to Legis Assembly in the general election of 1926. Chief Whip of the Congress Party in Legislative Assembly, was nominated by the Government of India as Adviser to the Indian Employers' Delegates at the Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva in June 1926. Again in 1929 was nominated a second time to represent the Indian Employers in the 12th International Labour Conference at Geneva, was appointed a member of the Central Banking Enquiry Committee. Re-elected to the Assembly in 1930 without contest, was elected D. Y. President, Legislative Assembly in January 1931. Attended International Labour Conference at Geneva in April 1932 as Chief Delegate of Indian employers, was nominated by Government of India as one of its representatives at Imperial Economic Conference held at Ottawa in July-August 1932. Elected unanimously as President of the Legislative Assembly in March 1933. *Addresses* "Hawarden" Race Course, Coimbatore, Trankulam, Cochin State.

CHETWODE, FRID-MASRAY, Sir Faint (1932), G. C. B. or 1700, K. O. B. G. O. S. I. (1934), K. C. B. (1918), A. D. C. (1917), G. B. (1916), D. S. O. (1900), A. D. C. General, 1927, Commander-in-Chief in India (November 1930). b 21 September 1869, at Alice, d of late Michael T. Bass, Hammersmith, London. Col. Hon Richard Stapleton Cotton, one s one d. Edue Eton. Entered

Indian Delegation to Imperial Conference, Ottawa, 1932. *Publications* Note on the Industries of the United Provinces (1909). *Addresses* - The Athenaeum, Waterloo Place, London, S. W. I.

CHATTERJEE, Sures CHAKRA, M. D. (Edin), M. R. C. P. (Edin), D. P. H. (Univ. Edin), Chief Medical Officer, B. B. Hallway, 6 Dec 1886 m Nance MacDonald, Commission in the I. M. S. during Great War, District Surgeon, G. I. P. Hallway, 1918-28. Dy Chief Medical and Health Officer, N. W. B. V. 1929-31, Principal Medical and Health Officer, G. I. P. Hallway, 1931-34. *Address* 2, Belvedere Park, Calcutta.

CHAUDHARI, JAGS CHANDRA, B. A. (Oxon), M. A. (Cal), Bar-at-Law b 28 June 1903 m Barnabala Devi bnd d of Sir Surendranath Banerjee, Edue Krishnagar College School, Presidency College, Calcutta, St. Xavier's College, Calcutta and New College, Oxford. For some time Lecturer of Physics and Chemistry at Vidyaasagar College, Calcutta, Editor, Calcutta Weekly Notes since 1906-7, Member, Bengal Council, 1904-7, Fellow of the Calcutta University, 1927-1931. *Publications* Calcutta Weekly Notes *Address* 3, Hastings Street, and "Devadara" 84, Balgunge, Circular Road, Calcutta.

CHAUDHRI, LAL CHAND, Hon. CAPTAIN THE HON. RAO BHADUR, B. A., L. B., O. B., M. L. A. (Nominated) b 1882, m Shrimati Sushila Devi, belonging to a Sikh Raj Family of Ferozepur Dist. Edue St Stephens College, Delhi, joined Revenue Department, 1904, took L. B. degree, 1912 and practised as lawyer at Rohak elected Vice-Chairman, District Board, 1914-17, elected Punjab Council, 1916, nominated Council of State, 1922, President All-India Raj Mitha Sabha, 1918 (elected), Manager of High School for Sons of Soldiers, non-ferocious officer during War, Minister, Punjab Government, 1924, Revenue Member, Bharatpur State, 1924 and President, State Council, 1926-1927. Has taken to practice as an Advocate of the Lahore High Court at Rohak President All-India J. J. Mitha Sabha. Granted a jagir by Government of India as one of its representatives at Imperial Economic Conference held at Ottawa in July-August 1932. Elected unanimously as President of the Legislative Assembly in March 1933. *Addresses* Rohak Colonies.

CHERRY, Sir JOHN ARKOLD, Kt (1934), C. I. B. (1919), Bar-at-Law, M. L. A. (1934), Chairman of the Commissioners for the Port of Town Bombay Trust, 1908-1920. Chairman of the Commissioners for the Port of more Park, Hongkong since 1921. *Address* 15, Windsor House, 6 13th 1879 m Doreen Gape (Burm), Chairman, Hongkong Port Commission, 1926-1927. d of the late W. T. Valley of Cape Town. Bonyday Trust, 1908-1920. Principal Government College, Mangalore b 24 April 1898, eldest son of Philip Krishna Menon and Chettur Annankutty Amma, and grand nephew of Sir Chettur Sambaran Nair, Kt.

ARMY, 1889, Capt, 1897, Major, 1901, Lieut-
Colonel, 1909; Col, 1912, Brig-Genl.,
1914, General, 1920, Field-Marshal, 1933
with class), 5. Africa, 1899-1902 (despatches
twice, Queen's Medal, 1899-1902 (despatches
2 class), D.S.O., European War, 1914-18,
commanded 6th Cavalry Brigade, 1914-15
(wounded, C.B.), 2nd Cavalry Division,
1915-1916 (promoted Major-General for dis-
tinguished service), commanded Desert
Corps, Egypt, 1916-17 (R.C.M.G.), com-
manded Last Force, 1917; commanded South
Army Corps, 1917-18; captured and destruc-
tion and campaign in Palestine and Syria (dis-
patches eleven times), 1918; Sir, Imperial
General service Medal and Allied Medal,
K.C.B., Commander Legion of Honour, Croix
de Guerre Grand Officer of the Nile,
(1st Class Order of the Sacred Treasure) (Japan)
order of the Star of Nepal, first class;
promoted Lieut-General (1919); Military
Secretary, War Office, 1915-50; Deputy
Chief of the Imperial General Staff, 1920-22;
Adjutant-General to the Forces, 1922-23;
Commander-in-Chief, Aldershot Command,
1923-27; Chief of General Staff, India, 1928,
1930. Address: Simla and Delhi.

CHATTARJI, CAPTAIN NARIN SINGH (1903), K.C.I.L.
(1928), M.B.E. (1916), 6. 12th December
1888 m to d of his wife's name
Bahadur Abdul Samad Khan of Tribhuvanagar
(Aligarh), C.P. Educ. M.A.O. College,
Allahabad President, All-India Muslim League
Conference, 1923, Member, U.P. Legislative
Council, 1920-25. First elected non-official
(Charman, District Board, Bhambhathar,
1922-23, Minister of Industries, U.P., 1923-25,
Home Member, U.P., 1926-1933, 4th Governor
of U.P., June 1925-August 1928, Member, 1st
and 2nd London Round Table Conferences,
1930 and 1931, appointed Governor of United
Provinces, 6th April, 1933. Address
Secretariat, United Provinces.

**CHICHELL-PLOWDEN, THE HON. LIEUT-
COLONEL CHARLES TEPICOP, C.I.E. (1933).**
Resident in Mysore and Chief Commissioner of
Coorg, 6th February 1883 "British
Streetion, d of the late Lieut R.L. Linton,
West India Regiment Educ. Cheltenham
College and Royal Military College, Sand-
hurst First commission, August 1902,
Indian Army, 1904, entered Political Depart-
ment of Government of India, 1908, Political
Officer, North West Frontier Province,
Central India and Kasiputran, 1903-14,
Great War, 1914-18; Secretary to the Resident
in Mysore and Chief Commissioner of Coorg,
1919-22. Vice-President, Council of Officers,
Coorg Bharat States, 1923-26, Secretary to
the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief
Commissioner, Baluchistan, 1928, Political
Agent, Kafir, 1929-1932. Address: Banga-
lore, Mysore.

CHIDAMBARAM, CHETTIAR, M. CH. M.,
Banker, 2nd August 1908 m. C.
Vallamam, Educ.: Madras Christian Coll.,
President, Sir M. C. T. Mathias Chettiars
High School, Ponnaswatham, Madras,
Director, The Indian Bank, Ltd, Little's
Chennai.

CHINNOY, SURJIT MEHRAJI, J.P., and Hon
Magistrate, Meerut, Managing Director in the
firm of P.M. Chinnoy & Co, Ltd, 6, 16th Febru-
ary 1883, m. Mrs. Shobanoo Luchaboy
Luchaboy, Educ.: British New High School and
Lal Bahadur Shastri College, 1909-20;
Member, U.P. Legislative Council 1916-
1923, and again since 1927; Member
of the Liberal Party to England
1919, General Secretary, National Liberal
Federation of India, 1916-20 and 1923-29,
President, ibid, 1920 and 1931, Minister of
Education and Industries, U.P., 1921-23,
Member, Indian Round Table Conference,
and Indian Finance Committee; Presi-
dent, U.P. Liberal Association. Publications
and writings on Sir Shobanoo Mehta,
1904. Address: Gauri Nivas, 17, Hamilton
Road, Allahabad.

CHITRE, ATWAL KARAN, L.D. Advocate
(O.P.), J.P., Chief Judge, Presidency Court
of Small Causes, Bombay, 6. 17 May 1877,
Educ. Wilson College and Govt Law School,
Bombay. Practised as an Advocate on the
Original side of the High Court from 1907 to
1916, acted as Chief Judge 1916-17; continued
as Chief Judge Dec 1928. Address:
Laburnum Road, New Gauderni, Bombay.

CHOKSY, THE HON. SRS. NARSARAJI
HOKKASJI, Kt. (1930), C.I.L., 1922, Member
Council of State, 1933, Khan Bahadur (1897), Medal-
Chevalier of the Crown of Italy, (1898), Medal-
Lioness Republic of France (1898), Medal-
(1906), M.D. (Hon. Causa), Freiburg, R.O.P.S.
(Bombay), L.N. & S. (Bombay 1883),
Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1919-1932,
and ex-President, College of Physicians and
Surgeons, and, Bombay Medical Union Hon
Secretary, Governors' Hospital Fund for
Bombay and the British Empire Leprosy
Relief Association, Bombay Presidency Branch,
Chairman, Sanitary Committee, Back Bay,
Reclamation Scheme 6. 7 Oct. 1861, m. Srs.

CHITRALALINI, CHITRAVATI, J.P., and Hon
Magistrate, Meerut, Managing Director in the
firm of P.M. Chinnoy & Co, Ltd, 6, 16th Febru-
ary 1883, m. Mrs. Shobanoo Luchaboy
Luchaboy, Educ.: British New High School and
Lal Bahadur Shastri College, 1909-20;
Member, U.P. Legislative Council 1916-
1923, and again since 1927; Member
of the Liberal Party to England
1919, General Secretary, National Liberal
Federation of India, 1916-20 and 1923-29,
President, ibid, 1920 and 1931, Minister of
Education and Industries, U.P., 1921-23,
Member, Indian Round Table Conference,
and Indian Finance Committee; Presi-
dent, U.P. Liberal Association. Publications
and writings on Sir Shobanoo Mehta,
1904. Address: Gauri Nivas, 17, Hamilton
Road, Allahabad.

CHITRE, ATWAL KARAN, L.D. Advocate
(O.P.), J.P., Chief Judge, Presidency Court
of Small Causes, Bombay, 6. 17 May 1877,
Educ. Wilson College and Govt Law School,
Bombay. Practised as an Advocate on the
Original side of the High Court from 1907 to
1916, acted as Chief Judge 1916-17; continued
as Chief Judge Dec 1928. Address:
Laburnum Road, New Gauderni, Bombay.

of India, Department of Industries and Labour, 1924-27. Member, Legislative Assembly, 1923, 1925-27, 1932-34. Member, Council of State, 1928-29 and 1932-33. Member, Royal Commission on Labour in India, 1920-21. *Publications* The Indian Workers' Compensation Act (1924), Indian Factory Legislation, a Historical Survey (1927). The State and Industry, (1928), etc. *Address* 2, York Place, New Delhi.

COLLINS, GODFREY RICHARDSON STRATFORD, M.A., O.B.E. (1919), C.I.B. (1931), I.O.S. Acting Commissioner in Sind, 2 and November 1888 in Joyce, 2 of G. Twissville Brown, Esq. *Rede* Chatterhouse and Church, Oxford. Assistant Collector, 1912, on Military Duty, 1916-18, Dy. Director of Civil Supplies, 1919, Forest Settlement Officer, 1920-22, Revenue Settlement Officer, 1924-26, Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, 1925-1926, Registrar Co-operative Societies, 1926-27, Collector and District Magistrate, 1927-1929, 1928-1929 and 1932-34. Home Secretary, 1929-31. Private Secretary to the Governor of Bombay, 1934-35. *Address* Karachi.

COLSON, JONKER HEWITT, C.I.B. (1934), King's Police Medal (1916), Commissioner of Police, Calcutta 6 May 22, 1887, in Isabel A. Debnam, Esq. 2 of J. Debnam, Esq., Indian Educational Service (retired), *Rede* Victoria College, Jersey. *Address* 2, Kyd Street, Calcutta.

COLVIN, GEORGE LETHBRIDGE, C.B. (1919), O.M.G. (1918), D.S.O. (1916); Commandant of the Order of St. Maurice and St. Lazarus (Italy), 1920, A.D.C. to H.M. King (1923), Agent, East Indian Railway 27 March 1876, in Katharine Myles, 2 of James Myles of Edinburgh. *Rede* Westminster joined B. I. Halfway, 1868, served in Army (France and Italy) during war, 1914-1919, Hon. Brigadier-General in Army, Director of Development Ministry of Transport, London, from 1919 to 1921. Retained B. I. R.V. in 1921 as Agent *Address* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

CONNOR, MAJOR-GENERAL SIR FRANK POWELL, Kt. (1926), D.S.O., F.R.C.S., V.H.S., M.S., Surgeon-General with the Govt. of Madras, Late Professor of Surgery, Medical College, Calcutta 6 1877, in Grace Ellen Lees, 2 of late R. O. Lees. *Rede* St Bartholomew's Hospital, London Indian Army, Civil in Bengal, War service in France and Mesopotamia (mentioned in Despatches for times, D.S.O., Great Lieut.-Colonel), Consulting Surgeon, Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force. *Publications* Surgery in the Tropics (Churchill) Chapters on "Surgery in the Tropics" in (1) Ross and Carter, in the Tropics, and various surgical articles in Medical Journals. *Address* Surgeon-General's Office, Tejnampet, Madras.

CONTRACTOR, MISS NAYAB DOKARI, B.A., J.P., Hon. Residence Magistrate, Member of the Committee of Visitors for the Cama and Allie's Hospitals, Lady Superintendent, Chanda Nam High Girls' School, Bombay, Blue. Wilson College, Bombay first Indian Lady Fellow in Arts in Bombay 1931 and 1934.

tenah Alanketee Jhaveri, *Rede* Bijnastone High School and Grant Medical College, Medical Superintendent, Awerth Lepet Asylum 1890-97, Medical Superintendent of Arthur Road, Plague and Infectious Diseases Hospital (1888-1921), and *Publications* Numerous publications on Plague, Cholera, Relapsing Fever, Leprosy, Special reports connected with these subjects, etc. *Address* Nepal Sen Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

CLARK, WALTER DOUGLAS MONTGOMERY, M.A. Trade Commissioner, Bombay 6 3rd March, 1890, in Jocelyn, 2 of late J. Baker, Esq., Christ Church, N.Z. two daughters. *Rede* High School, Kelso and Trinity College, Glenalmond in business in Burma and India, 1911-1921, joined Indian Army Reserve of Officers, 1915, served with 38th Dogra, Mohmand and Garhwal, 1915-16, appointed Asst. Cable Censor, Madras, 1916, and Deputy Controller (Hides), Indian Munitions Board, Bombay, 1918-19, Hon. Secretary, Cochin Chamber of Commerce and Member Cochin Harbour and Port Committee, 1921. *Address* Somerset Cottage, Warden Road, Bombay.

CLAY, JOSEPH MILES, B.A. (Oxon), C.S.I. (1934), O.B.E. (1925), O.B.E. (1918), I.C.S., Member of the Executive Council, United Provinces Government 6 6 September 1881, in Edith Marguerite Florence, 2 of J. P. Hall, R.H.B.A., of Dulwich. *Rede* Winchester College, New College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. in 1905, Under-Secretary to Government, 1911-13, Dy. Commissioner, Garhwal, 1913-20, Magistrate and Collector, Cawnpore, 1921-25, Dy. Commissioner, Naini Tal, 1925-28, Secretary to Government, 1929-30, Chief Secretary since 1931. *Address* Lucknow.

CLAYTON, HUGH BYARD, C.I.B. (1924), I.C.S. Commissioner, Southern Division, Belgium 24 Dec 1877, in Annie Blanche Nepean. *Rede* St Paul's School, Wadhwa College Oxford, 1st Class Hon. Alods 1st Class Lib. Hum. Came to India, 1901, served in Bombay Presidency, employed in Military Intelligence Branch of War Office, 1914-19 Municipal Commissioner, Bombay, 1913-14 and 1918-1928. Chairman, Haj Enquiry Commission, 1929-30, Member, Council of State, 1929-30. *Address* Hulme Park, Belgium.

CLOW, ANDREW GOURAY, M.A., J.P., F.R.S., C.S.I. (1933), C.I.B. (1928), Indian Civil Service, Joint Secretary to Government of India, Dept. of Industries and Labour (1931) 6 29th April 1890, in. *Address* Mays Underdale School, Marlborough Castle School, 1925. *Rede* St John's College, Cambridge. Served in U.P. as Asst. Collector, Assistant Settlement Officer and Settlement Officer, 1914-30, Collector, Labour, Govt. of India, 1920-23, Chairman, Seamen's Recruitment Committee, 1922, Secretary, Women's Compensation Committee, 1923, Under-Secretary to Government of India, 1923-24, Adviser and delegate, International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1921, 1923, 1929, 1931 and 1934.

Who's Who in India.

University (1922), an extensive travel in China, Japan, and United States of America, and Educational tour in 1921 and 1933 through principal cities of England, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Austria and Norway. *Publications* Contributions on Social, Educational and social subjects in English and Gujarati in periodical and newspapers published in Bombay. *Address* : Hardinge House, Gossalla Tank Road, Bombay.

(OPPING, Major-General, F.R.C.S.D. (1917),
 F.R.C.S. (Dublin), F.R.C.S. (1917),
 C.I.D. (1930), Surgeon-General with Govern-
 ment of Bengal b. 1875, in this M. A.
 and F.C. Dublin, Civil Surgeon, Bengal, 1903,
 Calcutta, 1910-1920, Inspector-General of Civil
 Hospitals, Central Province, 1929-1931
 Address: Writers' Building, Calcutta

CONFIDENTIAL, GEORGEY LITVAK, M.A.
(Oxon), C.L.E. (1921), Joint Secretary, Government of India b 9 Feb 1981.
d. of late George Bennett, Esq, Brother, Washington Manor, Glas Educ
grove School, Hertford Coll., Oxford, 1st Class Lit
(1923) Hon M.A. (1907), 1st Class Lit
Hum (1933) Passed into L.C.S. 1905.
Joint Commissioner, C.P., 1905-09, Settlement Officer, Nagpur, 1910-16; Dy Commissioner, C.P., 1916-18; Dir of Industries and Dy. Secretary, C.P., 1918, Dy. Secy. 1919-21; on deputation, South and West Africa, 1920; Washington Disarmament Conference, 1921, Fiji Islands, 1923, Director of Industries and Registrar, Co-operative Societies, C.P., 1923, Offg Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India, 1928-29. Address: Commerce Department, Government of India, Delhi and Simla.

COSGRAVE, WILLIAM ALEXANDER, B.A.,
 Chief Commissioner, Andaman and Nicobar
 Islands (1935), 6 April 1879 m
 of late C I
 Gale, Esq., of Cheltenham Lodge, Shrews-
 bury and Trinity College, Dublin.
 Came to India, 1903 and served in Bihar,
 Eastern Bengal and Assam; transferred to
 Assam, 1912, Political Agent in Jalandhar,
 1917-20, Deputy Commissioner, Jalandhar,
 1920-24, Official representative of Govt
 of Assam on Indian Legislative Assembly in
 several sessions between 1925-28, Chief
 Secretary to Government of Assam, 1930-31
 and 1932-33, Commissioner, Assam Valley
 Division, 1933, Officiating Magistrate, Public
 Service Commission, India (April-October)
 1934, *Address* Government House, Port
 Blair, Andaman Islands

COTELINGAM, JOHN PRADASA RAO, M.A.,
F.M.V., Rectored Principal of Wardlaw College,
Bellary, 1891-1918. b. 9th Dec. 1860. m.
Miss Padmanji, d. of the Rev. Baba Padmanji!

COBBOUGH, ALTHORP CATHOBY, C.B.E
(1914) M.A., B.Sc., M.I.E., M.I.E.E.
E., M.I.E.E. (Ind.) ; Director, Messrs. Mather and
Platt, Ltd. 6 10th Fl., 1877, Rade : Glasgow
University, John Mather and Platt, Ltd. in
1888 as apprentice, subsequently became
General Manager, Electrical Department and in
that capacity travelled widely on the Continent
went to India and South Africa and eventu-
ally returned to India to establish Mather-
and Platt's own office in Calcutta, Bombay
and other centres for the control of their
businesses from Mesopotamia to the Straits ;
his travels in China, Japan, United States
of America, Australia and Egypt. During
war service were lent to Govt of India
under Munitions Board, was Controller of
Flour and latterly Controller of Munitions
Manufacture Publications ; Pamphlets on
Technical and Economic subjects. Address,
7, Mare Street, Calcutta.

COLCHMAN, BEATRICE HILDEN JONES, D.S.O. (1918), M.C. (1910); Surveyor-General of India, 6 29 July 1882. In Evelyn Bence, *d'or* late Col Lady, *in E Educ*. Hailybury College, Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, and Lieut Royal Engineers, 1900, posted to India, October 1902, appointed to Survey of India, 1906, Great War, 1914-18. In France. Reverted to Survey of India 1919, Deputy Master, Security Printing, India, 1926-29, Survey of India since 1929, Surveyor-General, 1933. Address - 13, Wood Street, Calcutta.

COUSINS, JAMES HENRY, Doctor of Literature
at Keio-gyokuin University, Japan (1922),
in Margaret B Cousins, B Mus J P. (1903)
Educ. at various schools in Ireland and
partly in Trinity College, Dublin (Teachers
Course), Private Secretary to Lord Mayor
of Belfast, Asstt. Master, Belfast Mercantile
Academy, Asstt. Master, High School, Dublin,
Ireland; Demonstrator in Geography and
Geology, Summer Course, Royal Col. of
Science, Ireland, Asstt. Editor, "New India,"
Glasgow; Principal, Theosophical College,
Madanapalle, 1916-1921, Fellow and Prof. of
English, National University, Adyar
Principal, Brahma-kya Ashrama (School of
International Culture), Adyar, Madras,
University Extension and Post Graduate
Lecture, Calcutta University, Benaras Hindu
University, Aligarh University, Benaras
Lecture, Taroos, Vyas-Bharati, Bengal,
Travelling Lectures, America, 1928-31, Special

I lectured in English Poetry in the College of the City of New York, 1931-3, again, Principal Theosophical College, Madanapalle, Madras, 1933, a co-founder of the Irish Literary and Dramatic Revival (1900, etc.), poet, dramatist, critic, educationist, philosopher. *Publications* (Prose) A fat book of Modern Geography, 'The Wisdom of the West', 'The Kingdom of Youth', 'Footsteps of India', 'The Play of Brahman', 'Work and Worship', 'The New Japan', 'The Philosophy of Beauty', 'Heavenly Labyrinths', 'Samudrasans', 'The Work of Prometheus', (Poetry) 'Ben Mahipala, Sing by Six, The Awakening, The Bell Branch, Eternity of Life Ode to Truth, Mounted Reckless, The King's Wife (drama) Sea-Change, Suray Gita, Forest Meditation, Above the Guide, A Wandering Harp (Collected Edition) A Battle Pilgrimage (Second Collection) *Addresses* Theosophical College, Madanapalle, Madras Presidency

COVAYE, SRI JENABAI COOVAYE, Kt.,
Professor of Political Economy and Philosophy,
Andhra University, 6 11 Sept. 1875,
Edic Elphinstone College, Bombay,
or late Coovayee College, Rajol
and Caus College, Carnuridge Intely
Member, Royal Commissions on the Indian
Tariff and Indian Currency, Member of
Council of State, 1880, Delegate to the As-
sembly of League of Nations, Geneva, 1880-
1882, President, Presidency College, 1880-81,
Correspondent, Royal Economic Society,
Publications, The Indian Fiscal Problem,
Indian Currency and Exchange, The Indian
Currency System, "India and the League of
Nations" Andhra University, Waltair

CUNNINGHAM, Sir CHARLES BARKS, Kt. 1933,
Police Medal (Jan 1928), O.S.I. Jan 1931
King's Inspector-General of Police, Madras, 6
8 May 1884, in Grace Macaulay, d. of Hugh
Macaulay, 1912, *Redne Campellohom*
German School Asst. Superintendent of
Police, Madras Presidency, 1904, Supt of
Police, 1909, Dy Commissioner of Police,
Madras, 1910, Commissioner of Police,
Tranacore, 1915-1921, Dy Inspector-Genl
of Police, Jan. 1928, Commissioner of Police,
Madras, May 1928, Inspector-General of
Police, Madras, May 1930 Address 25,
Sterling Road, Madras.

CUNNINGHAM, Sir (George, B.A. (Oxon.), C.S.I., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.O.S., Home Member, Executive Council, N. W. F. Province 6 23 March 1898 in K. M. Adair & Bates Coll., Edinburgh, Madrasen College, Oxford I.O.S., 1911, Political Depart- ment, since 1914 - served on W. F. Rothery, 1911-25, Commissioner, British Legation, Kabul, 1926-6 Private Secretary to H. B. the Viceroy, 1926-31 Address Peshawar

CUTLING, Edward Higazi, J. P. (1920) Manager, Loyds Bank Limited, Bombay 6 of the late John & Violet Landa, of Bath, Somerset Place 19 Marshall Grandock of Bath, Somerset Educ King's School, Canterbury Co. & Co., London, 1901, arrived in India, 1906, Loyds Bank Ltd., on absorption of Coy. & Co., 1928 Address Dunceld, Hareness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

OUTRIS, O A, M B E, Landlord
Magistrate, Rangoon. b
28 Nov 1962, in Janat, d of Dr. Hayer,
M D, was Hon. Sec, Burma, "Our Day",
Fund, Burma War Fund, Rangoon Riverfront
Committee and Rangoon Imprisonment of
Shipping Committee during the war Publi-
cations. Essays on Commercial Subjects.
Address No 80, University Avenue, Rangoon
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DADABHOY, SIR MANSUKH BHASKAR, K.C.I.B. (1926), O.I.B. (1917), Kt (1921); President, Council of State of Bombay, 30 July 1885 to 1884, Bar Ferozabad, O.B.E., Bombay School and St Xavier's College, High School and St Xavier's College, Bombay; Johnes Temple, 1884; called to Bar, 1887; Advocate of Bombay High Court, 1887, Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1888-90, Government Advo- cate, Central Provinces, 1891; President, Feroz, Industrial Conference, Rajpur, 1907; President, All-India Industrial Conference, Calcutta, 1911; Member of Vice-Chief, Legislative Council, 1908-12 and 1914-17, a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920-22), Elected to the Council of State, 1921, and nominated 1926 and 1931, Member, Racial Commission, appointed by Govt of India, Sept 1921, Member of the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance, 1925-26, Member, Round Table Conference, 1925-26, Member, Managing Director, Nagpur Electric Light and Power Co., Ltd., Betar Manufacturing Co., Ltd., Model Mills, Nagpur, Limited, O.B. Contracting and Mining Syndicates, Chairman, Third Jangamesse Ore Co., Ltd., Proprietor, Ballapur, Sasti, Ghungus, Pisingon-Kayur and Chitauri, Collieries, numerous Jangamesse Mines in the Central Provinces and Berar and Behar and Orissa, Several Gun and Press Factories in different parts of India. *Publications* on the Land Laws of the Central Provinces, and Commentary on the Contract and Tendency Act. *Address*, Nagpur, O.P.

Central Model School and Government College, Lahore (1960), Rai Bahadur (1919), Kesar-i-Hind Medal (1914), *Address* 1, Egerton Road, Lahore (1916) CIE (1916)

DASTUR, Sir HOSKINDAR PHIROZE, KT, B A, LL B, Bar-at-Law, Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay b 20th March 1878 in Bhatnagar Rajput District, Educ at Wadhwan Civil Station, Allied High School, Rajkot and Rajput High School, Wadhwan Passed District Pleader's Examination, 1894 and High Court Pleader's Examination, 1898 standing first in both examinations Practised as a pleader in Kachhiwara, Agency 1894-1900 Served as Chief Valuer for Dhangadhas in 1901 and as Chief Judge of that State, 1902-1911 Served Wankaner State as Rajab Dewan, 1914-16 and as Dewan, 1917 to 1929 Conferred the title of Rao Bahadur in 1925 After retiring from Wankaner on pension served as Member, State Council, Rajkot, 1930-31, Dewan of Bhatnagar State, since 1932 *Address* - Bhatnagar

DAVE, Rao BHADUR DEVSHANKAR JR-KRISHNA, Advocate, Bombay High Court, Dewan of Bhatnagar State b 9th January 1870 Educ at Wadhwan Civil Station, Allied High School, Rajkot and Rajput High School, Wadhwan Passed District Pleader's Examination, 1894 and High Court Pleader's Examination, 1898 standing first in both examinations Practised as a pleader in Kachhiwara, Agency 1894-1900 Served as Chief Valuer for Dhangadhas in 1901 and as Chief Judge of that State, 1902-1911 Served Wankaner State as Rajab Dewan, 1914-16 and as Dewan, 1917 to 1929 Conferred the title of Rao Bahadur in 1925 After retiring from Wankaner on pension served as Member, State Council, Rajkot, 1930-31, Dewan of Bhatnagar State, since 1932 *Address* - Bhatnagar

DAVISON, DEXTER HARRISON, Doctor of Dental Surgery, b 29 Sept 1869 m. Margaret St Clair Kaine Chicago University *Address* Lansdowne House, Lansdowne Road, Apollo Bunder, Bombay.

DR. GLAVINLE, Sir OSCAR JAMES LAWDER, KT (1881), CIE (1925), Barrister-at-Law, Member, Burma Legislative Council, Governor, Director, Kangoon Daily News, B.M. President, Burma Legislative Council, *Address* Hangoon, Burma

D, KIRAN CHANDRA, A B, CIE, LOS b Calcutta, 19 January 1871, Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta: St. John's College, Cambridge Registrar of Co-operative Societies, also Railway Officer, 1895. Member of Bengal District Administration Committee, 1911. Member of Bengal District Collector, Rangpur, 1911. Secretary to Kress Censor, Bengal, 1914. Secretary to Governor-General of India, 1920. Commissioner of Burdwan Division, 1923; Commissioner, Presidency Division, 1928; Member of the Board of Revenue, Bengal, 1924-28, Member of the Council of State, 1928, retired from Indian Civil Service, Dec 1928; Chairman, Bengal Banking Inquiry Committee from August 1, 1929 to May 1930 Government Manager of the estate of the Nawab Bahadur of Murshidabad from June 1931 *Address* 1, Dumdum Road, Calcutta, Brookside, Shilling

DEHLAVI, THE HON Sir ATALBHOOD KRAY, J P, KT (1931), Bar-at-Law (1896) President, Bombay Legislative Council b 1875 Educ: Bombay and London Practised in Gujarat (1896-1900) and Sind (1900-1908) started

1918 *Educ* Aske's Hatcham School and Univ Coll, London. Entered I.C.S. 1909 and served as Asst Coll in Sind and Mineral Comm for Sind, 1916-18, Asst Comm in Sind and Civil Supplies and Reserving, 1918-20, Secretary, Finance Department, Bombay, 1921, Ag. Secretary, Finance Department, 1923, Financial Adviser to P.W.D. 1926, Scheme, Sind, Member of Sind Committee, 1932. *Address* Delhi and Simla.

Chahman, District Board and Municipality, Dinaipur, Member, Council of State, British India Association, Assam Society of Bengal, Landholders' Association, Assam Society of Bengal, East India Association London, Calcutta Literary Society, North Bengal Landholders' Association, Bhangya Sahitya Parishad, Road and Transport Development Association Received Victoria's Commission in Jan 1924. *Address* Dinaipur Bahadur, Dinaipur, 220, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta, 3, Council of State, Delhi and Simla.

DINSHAW, Sir HORMUSJEE COWASJI, Kt., cr 1922, O.B.I. 1918, J.V.O. 1912, senior partner in Cowasjee Dinshaw & Bros, Alor (London), Professor of Economics, Alor College, 6 Sept 1897 *Educ* Agri College (1916-1922) and the London School of Economics and Political Science (1928-1930) 1928. Was invited by the U.P. Government in Jan 1931 to a Conference at Lucknow with Sir Arthur Salter, the economic expert of the League of Nations, to discuss the plan of an Board of Economic Inquiry, U.P., of the Editorial Board of the U.P. Co-operative Journal of the Board of High Schools in Economics and Education, U.P. and of the Executive Committee of the Indian Economic Association. Served as a member of the U.P. Agricultural Debt Committee (1932) and submitted a note on the dangers of Land Alienation Act. Has travelled widely in India and all countries of Europe except Russia and Spain and Portugal. A frequent writer to the press on economic and financial questions. *Publications* Indian Economic Public Debt with a foreword by Sir George Bonister (1930) "Some Financial and Economic Problems of India" and "R.I.C. Financial Statements" (1931). *Address*

DIVALLA, HARSIMHAR AVARNAI, THE Judge, High Court of Judicature, Bombay, in Jolly Ben, d of Prindal A.B. Dhruva, Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Benares University, sor of Philosophy, Banaji College, 1910-12. Enriched on the Appellate Side of the High Court, 1912-1938. Professor, Government Law College, 1928-1931, Hon Secretary, Ban Council, Bombay, 1932-33. *Publications* "Psychology" (in Gujarati Language) *Address* "Sams Sona", Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

DORNARAT, BISHNOOR, since 1912; R.F. Ray ADVANAYAK SANKAR AZARVA, 1st Indian Bishop, Hon T.D. (Cantab), 6, 17 Aug, 1874. *Educ* C.M.S. High School, Madras Christian College, One of founders of Indian Missionary Society of Tinnevely, 1903; Hon Secretary, 1903-9; Hon Gen. Secretary of National Missionary Society of India, 1908-9; waived Japan as Delegate of World Student Christian Federation, 1907, and its Vice-President, 1908-11, waived England as Delegate to World's Missionary Conference, 1910. Head of Dornark Mission, 1908-12. *Publications* Holy Baptism, Confirmation, First Communion, India and Missions. The Acts of the Apostles, The Life of Christ according to St Mark. Christ in the Indian Villages. *Address* Dornark Singarai Collieries, Decan.

DOV, HUGH, C.I.E. (1932), Joint Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India, 1934 to 1936, m. Ann, d of James Sheffield,

DUGGAL, Sir JAMES RAO NUSSEERWANJI, O.B.I., O.B.E. (Oxon), F.O.S., Lt.-Col, in charge, Sir J. Ophthalmic Hospital, and Professor of Ophthalmology, Grant Medical College, Bombay 6 8 April 1884 m. Miss Club, Bombay.

DUFF, REGINALD JAMES, J.P., Hon Presidency Magistrate, General Manager, New India Assurance Company, Ltd., Bombay, 6 11 July 1886 m. Olive A. Locke. *Educ* Whitefield Grammar School North British and Mercantile Insurance Co., Ltd., London and Bombay. *Address* Royal Bombay Yacht Club, Bombay.

Central India, Rajasthan and Gwalior at Aymer, its ex-amen and Member on the Committee Courses in English, represented Bharat State as a delegate in the All-Asia Educational Conference, 1930. Elected President, All-India Arya Kumar Conference, Hareilly, (1931) Publications from DAWN TO DARK, Songs from SUDRA, Songs from Alibab, History of Hindi Literature, Saurabh, Song by Gari, (Hindi Drama), Doot ka Chand, (Hindi), Sanskrit Sahitya (Hindi), Padi-Padi, Life and Speeches of Pandit J. L. Nairn, (illustrated). Readings of a number of original papers on Philology, Literature, etc., in leading English and Vernacular Journals, Edited several classical Hindi books and periodicals, *Udaya* and *Samskrita Patrika* Recreation—billiards, tennis, and chess, hobby—stamp-collecting. Address Alabara's College, Dhara and Villa Somn, Capatnagar, Barh (U.P.)

DYER, JAMES RENWOLD, M.A., C.I.E. (1929), I.C.S. President of the Council and Revenue Member, Bhopal State joined I.C.S. in 1902 and arrived in India in 1903, Asstt Commissioner, Registrar in the Judicial Commissioner's Court and Settlement Officer from 1903 to 1916, 2nd Secretary to the Chief Commissioner, 1916, Deputy Commissioner, 1917, Commissioner of Land Records, Settlement and Director of Land Records, C.P., 1922, and Commissioner, 1929. Address Huz Manzil, Bhopal, Central India.

EASTLEY, CHARLES MORRISON, J.P., Solicitor and Notary Public 2 September 1890 in Same Beryl Chester Witle Graduate, ed as Solicitor of the Supreme Court of Judicature, England in June 1914 served in the great War from 1914-1919 as Lieut. R.F.A. (T.F.) in India, as an Observer and Pilot in R.F.C. and Pilot in the R.F.A. against the Almonds on the N.W.F. in 1916, the Mar in Baluchistan in 1917, the Turks at Aden in 1918, the Afghans in 1919. Address C/o Latte & Co, Solicitors and Notaries Public, Central Bank Building, Bombay.

EDWARDS, THE REV. JAMES FARINGTON, Principal, United Theological College of Western India and English Editor of the *Dnyanodaya* (or *Way of Knowledge*) for six Missions 6 March 1876 in Alas Mary Louise Wheeler, Principal, Kindergarten Training School, Bhandwara, Birminghman, Theological College, Handwara, Birminghman, England Eight years in charge of English Churches in England, arrived in India, Sept 1908, until 1914 (Wesleyan) Methodist Superintendent in Bombay, since 1914 located by (Wesleyan) Methodist Church to American Mission for literary and theological work, went to Poona, July 1930, to take charge of United Theological College, Poona. *The Life and Teaching of Tukaram*, article on *Tukaram* in Vol XII of *Hastings' Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics: The Holy Spirit the Christian Dynamic* four Marathi books on The Cross the Resurrection

and the Holy Spirit, two Marathi Works on Tukaram, Editor since 1919 of English Section of the *Dnyanodaya*, *Liquor and Opium in India*, (reprint of memorandum to Simon Commission, published in London) Editor of the "Poet Saints of Maharashtra" Series of English translations of Marathi poetry, history and biography, 10 vols. Address United Theological College, -7, Sholapur Road, Poona

ELDERSON, H. B. Sir HERBERT WILLIAM K.B.I.C.I.E., C.B.E., Governor of the Punjab, 1 June 1881 *Rajah Gaj Singh* Gram, mar School, Alagdal College, Cambridge, Entered Indian Civil Service, 1905, Manager Bashahr State, 1911-14, Superintendent and Settlement Officer, Mandi State, 1916, Assistant Commissioner and Settlement Officer, Punjab, 1917, Deputy Commissioner, 1922, Secretary to Government, Finance Department, 1926, Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab, 1927-28, Secretary to Government of India, Home Department 1930-32 appointed Governor of the Punjab, 1933 Address Government House, Lahore,

ERSKINE, LORD, JOHN FRANKLIN ASHLEY, G.C.I.E. (1934), Governor of Madras, 16th November 1934, Lieut. R. of O. Secret, late Lieut Scots Guards, M.P. (U) Western, super-Marle Division of Somerset 1923-23, and since 1924 6 26th April, 1895, 23 of Marjorie Harvey, ed. of 4th Marquess of Bristol, 44, four 3, Rue Eton, Christ Church, Oxford, Asstt Private Secretary, (unpaid) to His Hon. Walter Long, (1st Lord of Admiralty), 1920-21, Parliamentary Private Secretary (unpaid) to the Postmaster-General, (Sir W. Johnson Hicks), 1928, Principal Private Secretary (unpaid) to Home Secretary, 1924, Assistant Government Whip in National Government, 1932, *Herr. & Master* of Erskine, 40 Address 6 St James Square, S.W.1, Government House, Madras.

EWBANK, ROBERT BENSON, B.A. (Oxon), F.R.S., C.I.E. (1934), Secy to Govt of Bombay, General Department (on leave) 6 22 Oct 1883 in Erskine House, 4 of Ray W. Simpson of Calbeck, Cumberland *Rdne* Queen's Coll, Oxford, Asstt Coll, and Asstt. Pol Agent, 1907; Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Bombay, 1912-20, Secretary to Imperial Committee on Co-operation, 1914-5, 1920-24, Deputy Secretary to Govt. of India successively in Commerce, Dev and Agric, P.W.D. and Education, Health and Land Departments, 1920 Officiated as Secy Committee, London, 1926 Officiated as Private Secretary to H.R. Lord Reading, Secretary, Back Bay Biquary Committee, 1926, Delegate of the Government of India in Legislative Council *Publications*: Bom. day Co-operative Manual and Indian Co-operative Studies. Address. Secretariat, Bombay

FALBERT, THE REV. ALBERT PERRE JEAN, Vicar, Apostolic of Northern Burma and Litchur, Bishop of Clysma since 1930, 6 1888 Address. Mandalay

College, Lahore, Christ's College, Cambridge
Principled in Sialkot, 1901-5, in the Punjab
High Court, Lahore, 1903-20, President, High
Court Bar Association, 1910-20; Professor
and Principal, Islamia College, 1907-8;

Address: KARACHI
(Contd.)

R. M. C. Sandhu, Indian Army, 1900-1907; Political Department, Government of India, since 1907. Address: Tirunelveli, Travancore, S. India.

TILOSE, Lt-Col. OLIVER, M.V.O.; Military Sec. to Maharaja of Gwalior, since 1901, 1888. Educ. Carmelita Missionary, Clon-dalkin, Carlow College, Ireland. Gwalior State service, 1872, Lt-Col., 1908. Assistant Inspector-General, Gwalior Police and General Inspecting Officer, 1898-97, A.D.-C. to the Maharaja Bundia, 1899-1901. Address: Gwalior.

FINLAYSON, Major-General ROBERT GORDON, C.B. (1931), C.M.G. (1918), D.S.O. (1915), R.A., Commanding Rawalpindi District since 1931. 15th April 1881 in 1912, Mary Leslie, d. of late James Richmond, Kincardine, Perthshire. Entered Army, 1900, Captain, 1908, Major, 1914, Major-General, 1930, served European War, 1914-18 (despatches 8 times, Bt. Lieut. Colonel, Bt. Col., D.S.O., C.M.G.), North Russia, 1919, A.D.C. to the King, 1920-30, G.S.O. I War, 1925-27, C.H.A. 3rd Division, 1927-30. Address: Rawalpindi.

FINLAYSON, Desmond FitzJohn, Major ROYAL ENGINEERS (retired 1930), B.A., India, and Controller of Stamps 6 17 August 1883 in 1929, Nancy, d. of Rev John Sherlock and Mrs. Leach, of Graywood, Surrey, and Albury Academy, Woolwich, 1912-14, Cambridge University, 1920-22, served with Royal Engineers in France, Belgium and Italy during Great War, 1914-1918, Wounded, 1916, mentioned in Despatches, 1918, Instructor, R. M. A., Woolwich, 1918-1920, 1920-1926, Engineer, Gallender's Cable and Construction Co., Ltd., 1927, Chief Engineer, Gallender's Cable and Construction Co., Ltd., 1928-1929, Deputy Mint Master, Bombay and Calcutta, 1929-1931, Dy. Master, Security Printing, India, Nasik, 1932-33. Master, Security Printing, India, 1933-35. Papers on Hydro-Electric Developments in France. Work of Military Engineers in the Indian Army. Address: Caxton House, Nasik Road, G. I. P. Railway.

FINLAYSON, Sir James Alexander Osborn, K.C.I.B. (1933), B.A., LL.B., Barr-at-Law, O.I.B. (1917), O.B.E. (1919), Indian Civil Service, A.G. of Punjab States 6 21st November 1879 in Ada Florence Davies, Educ. High School, Dublin, and Trinity Coll., Dublin, joined I.C.S., 1903, served in various appointments on N. W. P. Political Agent, Tochi, 1918-1919, Deputy Commissioner, Bannu, 1919-1919, Political Agent, Wano, 1919-19, Resident in Waziristan, 1920-22, Commissioner, Ajmer, 1923, H. B. M. Consul in Arabian (Persia), 1925, Revenue Minister, Bahawalpur, 1926-1927, A.G. of Punjab States, 1927 Active Service, Tochi operations, 1914-15 (mentioned in

(despatches), Mahasud Expedition, 1917 (despatches and received thanks of Government); Waziristan operations, 1920-1922 (despatches); Lahore, Punjab (Chief) Address: Lahore, Punjab.

REIDING, Major-General GEORGE, C.B. (1935), C.B.E. (1932), D.S.O. (1916), Commander, Madras District 6 3 Nov 1879 in Simons, d. of Pierre Grey of Paris. Educ. in Sandhurst and University Colleges in tanks Imperial Yeomanry, 1 year 166 days. Joined Somerset, Lt. B, 1901, S. African War, 1900-01, Great War, 1915-19. Commanded 7th Battalion Gloucester Regiment, 7th Bn. N. Staff Regt, 9th Bn. War Regt, 1st Bn. Welsh Regt. Served in France, Gallipoli, in S. African War, 1901-03, Major-General, 1933. Medals: S. African War, Q.M.G. Clasp, Order of S. Stanislas 3rd Class with swords, 1914-15, S. B. W. M., V.M., D.S.O. Address: Kingsland House, Bangalore.

FORSTER, Sir Martin OSLOW, Kt. 1933, Ph.D. (Vuzburg), D.Sc. (London), F.I.C., F.R.S. (1905), 1872 Educ. Private schools: Kingsbury Technical College, Warrington Univ., Central Technical College, South Kensington Assst Prof. of Chemistry, Royal College of Science, 1902-18, Director, Bakers' Institute of Industrial Chemistry, 1918-22, Director, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, 1922-28. Hon. Secretary, Chemical Society, 1904-10, Treasurer, 1916-22, Longstaff Medalist, 1916, President of Chemistry Section, British Association, 1921, President, Indian Science Congress, 1925. Publications: Contributions to Transactions of the Chemical Society, Address: Old Banni Mantrap, Mysore City.

FOVLER, Gilbert JOHN, D.Sc., F.I.C., F.R.S., San I. B. 1868, in Amy Hindmarsh, d. of George S. and Eleanor Scott. Educ. Sidcot School, Somerset, Owens College, Victoria University, Manchester, Heidelberg University, For 20 years in service of Rivers Committee of Manchester Corporation Responsible for treatment of the sewage and trade-effluents of Manchester. Pioneer of publication "Active Sludge" process of sewage purification. World-wide experience as sanitary expert. Consulted by cities of New York, Cairo, Shanghai, and Hankow. First visited India in 1906 on special duty for Government of Bengal, repurification of municipal effluents from 1910 to 1924. Professor of Applied Chemistry and later of Bio-chemistry at the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. During the war was Consulting Adviser to the Government of India on the production of acetone, used in the manufacture of cordite. Was appointed Principal of the Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore, in July 1927. Retired in November 1929, after assisting in framing a policy for the conduct of the Institute, accepted by Government. Has been President of the Indian Chemical Society, is Honorary Corresponding Secretary for India of the Institute of Chemistry of Great Britain and Ireland, and Corresponding Member of the Manchester Literary and

GLANCOX, SIR ROBERT **BARRETT**, Member of the India Council, 1981. Address: India Office, London.

GLANVILLE, SIR OSCAR JAMES LADNER, DE (See under De Gansville)

GOKUL CHAND NARAYAN, THE HON'BLE DR. M.A., Ph.D., Barr-at-Law, Alimnagar, Punjab Government, Lahore. 6, 15 No. 1878. Educ. Punjab University, Calcutta University, Oxford University, and Barren University. Was Professor and Barrister. Publications: The Message of the Vedas and Transformation of Sikhism. Address: 6, Montgomery Road, Lahore.

GOLDSMITH, REV. MALCOLM GEORGE, MRS. Honorary of O.A.B. in Madras and Hyderabad. Decan 6, 1849. Educ. Kensington Pro. prietary Grammar School; St Catherine's College, Cambridge. Ordained, 1872; O.M.S. Missionary, Madras, 1872-73; Calcutta, 1874-76; Principal, Harris School, Madras, 1883-91; Hyderabad, 1891-98, Hon Canon, St George's Cathedral, Madras, 1906. Address: Royapet House, Royapet, Madras.

GORDON, ERN, B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1931), Member of the Executive Council of the Governor, C.P. & 28 Feb 1881 in Lullian, Edith Napier (1912), d 1933. Educ. Rossall and Queen's College, Oxford. Joined I.C.S. Address: Nagpur, C.P.

GOSWAMI, KUNAL TULSI CHANDRA, M.A. (Oxon), Zameendar Member, Legislative Assembly, Son of Raja Kisorlal Goswami of Serampore, member of first Bengal Executive Council, 1898. Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta, Oxford and Paris. Delegate elected by the Indian Legislative Assembly to represent India at the August Session (1898) of the Empire Parliamentary Association, Canada, and was Chairman of the Indian Section, Address: The Raj Bares, Serampore, Ramesh Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta, Kanachha, Benares, Puri.

GOULD, HERBERT ROSS, B.A. (Oxon), C.I.D. Indian Civil Service, 6, 17th April, 1887, in Florence Mary Butler College, Chilton. Arrived Bombay, 1911. Asst Coll, Dharmar, Canara, Larkhana, 1911-16. Military Service, I.A.B.O., 1916-1919. Asst Coll, Sholapur, 1919, Dy. Commissioner, Upper Sind Frontier, 1920-23, Coll, Sholapur, 1924-1928, Coll, Poona, 1929, Private Secretary to Governor (Acting), 1929-30. Address: Bombay and Poona.

GOSWAMI, KUNAL TULSI CHANDRA, M.A. (Oxon), Zameendar Member, Legislative Assembly, Son of Raja Kisorlal Goswami of Serampore, member of first Bengal Executive Council, 1898. Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta, Oxford and Paris. Delegate elected by the Indian Legislative Assembly to represent India at the August Session (1898) of the Empire Parliamentary Association, Canada, and was Chairman of the Indian Section, Address: The Raj Bares, Serampore, Ramesh Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta, Kanachha, Benares, Puri.

GOSWAMI, KUNAL TULSI CHANDRA, M.A. (Oxon), Zameendar Member, Legislative Assembly, Son of Raja Kisorlal Goswami of Serampore, member of first Bengal Executive Council, 1898. Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta, Oxford and Paris. Delegate elected by the Indian Legislative Assembly to represent India at the August Session (1898) of the Empire Parliamentary Association, Canada, and was Chairman of the Indian Section, Address: The Raj Bares, Serampore, Ramesh Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta, Kanachha, Benares, Puri.

Legislative Assembly, Assistant Commis- sioner, Royal Commission on Labour in India, Anglo-Indian Delegate to the three Indian Round Table Conferences, London, Member, Indian Sanitation Committee, Assessor to all four Government of India Retirement Sub-Committees (1931), Member, Joint Parliamentary Committee, 1933. Address: 87-A, Park Street, Calcutta.

GILBERT-LODGE, CAPTAIN EDWARD MONTEG, F.R.S., F.I.A., F.A.I., M.T.P.I., J.P. Hon. Presidency Magistrate, 6, 23 Jan 1880 in May d of Thomas Spencer, Esq of Norwood, London, 8, 8 Educ. at Sydney, N.S. Wales, Australia Private practice 1903-1914. Royal Engineer, April 1915—May 1920, then returning to Reserve with rank of Captain and is now on retired list, Asst Land Acquisition Officer, Bombay, May-Nov 1920, Land Manager and Consulting Surveyor to Govt Development Directorate, Nov 1920 to Dec 1925. Address: Improvement Trust Building, Keshavnagar Road, Bombay.

GILDS, MAJOR-GENERAL EDWARD DOUGLAS, C.B. (1932), C.M.G. (1919), D.S.O. (1916), American D.S.M. (1919), A.D.C. to the King (1930-31), Major-General, Cavalry in India 6, 13th October 1879 in Mien Graham Dingwall-Fordyce, d of late C.G. Dingwall-Fordyce and Mrs J.R. Barty, Sandhurst, joined King's Shropshire L.I., 1899, transferred to Scinde Horse, 1901, 4 times mentioned in despatches—D.S.O., Lt-Col, C.M.G., American D.S.M.), transferred to K.G.O. Central India Horse, 1919, Inspector, Staff College, Quetta, 1921-24, Commanded 4th (Second General) Cavalry Brigade, 1926-29, Director of Military Operations, Army Headquarters, India, 1930-31, Major-General, Cavalry in India, 1931. Address: Delhi and Simla.

GINWALA, SIR PADAYAKI PESTONJI, KT. (1927), B.A. (Hast Tripos, Cambridge), Barrister-at-Law, Adviser to Swedish Match Co of Stockholm and Western India Match Co, Bombay 6 Nov 1875, in Trinity Educ. Govt High School and Guyarat College, Ahmedabad, Trinity Hall, Cambridge, Called to the Bar, 1899, Advocate, Chief Court of Lower Burma, 1905. Asst Govt Advocate, 1915, Secretary, Legislative Council, Burma, 1916, resigned, 1920, President, Hangoon Municipal Corporation, 1922-23, Member Legislative Assembly, 1921-23, Member, Indian Tariff Board, 1923, President, 1926-1930. Resigned July 1930, Delegate, Imperial Conference, 1930, Member, Round Table Conference, 1931, Ottawa Conference, 1932, World Economic Conference 1933. Address: 38, Hyde Park Gate, London, S.W. 7.

GLANCOX, BERNARD JAMES, C.S.I. (1933), C.I.D. (1933), Political Secretary to the Government of India, Foreign and Political Department 6, 31st December 1882 in 1914, Grace Steele, Oxford, Indian Civil Service. Address: Delhi and Simla.

GRAHAM, WILLIAM FRITZWILK, I C S, FRO
 Financial Art Officer, Supply of Clothing Indus-
 tries and Provisional Training Officer since
 1926. b 1871 in 1005 Elizabeth Dunlop
 Dunning, niece of Governor Dunlop of Malaya.
 U. S. A. Educ at Charlestown and
 Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Supply and Pol.
 Officer, Shan States, Commissioner, Pegu
 Division in 1918 and again from Feb 1919
 to June 1920. Superintendent and P. O.
 S. S. from 1922-25. Address. Pegu Club,
 Hangoon.
GRAVERLY, FRANKIE HENRY, D Sc, F A S B,
 Superintendent, Government Museum,
 Madras b 7th Dec 1885 in Laura Belling
 Educ Alkorth and Woodham Schools and
 Victoria Univ of Manchester. Demonstrator
 in Zoology, Victoria Univ of Manchester.
 Asst Superintendent, Indian Museum,
 Calcutta, Asst Superintendent, Zoological
 Survey of India Superintendent, Govern-
 ment Museum, Madras. Publications
 Various papers mostly in the Records and
 Memoirs of the Indian Museum and in the
 Bulletin of the Madras Government Museum.
GRAY, ALEXANDER GEORGE, J P (1918),
 Manager, Bank of India, Ltd, Vice-President
 Indian Institute of Bankers b 1884, in Dulce
 Manor, Lancashire Grammar School. Fairs Bank,
 Ltd, Manchester and District, attired India,
 1905, entered service of the Bank of India,
 Ltd, 1908. Address 88, Nepan Sea Road,
 Alibair Hill, Bombay.
GREEN, SIR JAMES ALMOND, KT (1936), M A
 (Oxon), CIE (1933), IOS, Deputy High
 Commissioner for India, (1930), b 11 April
 1885 in Joan, the only child of Mr and Mrs
 J D Green, (1919) Educ. St Paul's School,
 London, Lincoln College, Oxford joined
 IOS in 1900. Address India House,
 Aldwych, London, W. C. 2. Madras, Fritchard
 House, Beckenham, Herts.
GREEN, ROBERT GEORGE, Hon. M.A., Lat
 Hum, CIE (1930), Acting Director of
 Public Instruction, Madras. b 18th October
 1881 Educ. Madras. Oxford Indian
 Educational Service Address. Old College,
 Nungambakam, Madras.
GREEN, LIONEL CORNELIUS, Sir, BART
 EDWIN HODGKIN, K C S I, CIE, Governor,
 North-West Frontier Province b 4 March
 1882 in Pauline, d of Colonel A P Westlake,
 late 20th K G O Light Cavalry. Educ.
 Hindustani School and R M C, Sandhurst.
GREEN, SIR (PENNY) JAMES, K O B, Finance
 Member of Government of India since 1934
 b 10 Dec 1890 d of Frank Alfred Green
 1919 Gertrude Charlotte, d of Rev G R
 Hough Educ. Bournemouth School, St
 John's College, Cambridge, Wingham, Masho-
 nati College Tripes, appointed to Treasury, 1913.
 Secretary to successive Commissioners of the
 Revenue, 1921-1930, Chairman, Board of
 Customs and Excise, Nov 1930, Chairman,
 Board of India Revenue, 1930-34, Finance
 Member, Government of India, Simla and
 Delhi.

GOV, SIR HARJI SINGH, KT (1926), M A, D
 LIT, D.O.L, LL.D., Member of the Legis-
 lative Assembly, Barabur, N-Law, b 20 Nov-
 1872. Educ. Govt. High School, Sangur,
 Haliap Coll, Nagpur, Downing Coll, Cam-
 bridge Presid. Municipal Commission, Nagpur,
 1918-22, First Vice-Chancellor, and Hon. D.
 Litt, Delhi University: re-appointed 1st May
 1924-1926. Member of Indian Central Com-
 mitted, Leader of the National Party in the
 Assembly and Leader of the Opposition,
 Delegate to the Joint Committee of
 Parliament, 1933, Hon. Member of the Anti-
 Slavery Club, National Liberal Club and British
 Empire Society. Publications Law of transfer
 in British India, 3 vols. (6th Edition), Romal
 Law of British India, 2 vols. (4th Edition),
 Hindu Code (3rd Edition), The Spirit of
 Buddhism, (4th reprint), His only Love,
 Random Rhymes and other poems Address.
 Nagpur, C P.
GOVINDOS, CHITTOORBHOOJI DOS,
 DIWAN BHADUR, K. A. I C, b 20 Feb 1878,
 Leeward Indian Meridian in Madras, before
 Pattern of Messrs (Chittoorbhooji) dos Khoo
 and Sons, Shorli of Madras for the
 year 1914, Presented the city of Madras
 with a statue of H M the King-Emperor
 President, the Southern India Chamber of
 Commerce, Vice-President of the S P C A,
 One of the founders of and for a long time
 Director of the Indian Bank, Ltd, Was for
 several years a Trustee of the Madras Port
 Trust, Director, Madras Telephone Co, Ltd,
 Director, Madras City Co-operative Bank,
 President, Indian Central Committee, Madras,
 and Vice-President, Servants of India,
 Society, Madras, Address 450, Alind Street,
 Park Town, Madras.
GOVAN, SIR HENRY CLARNDON, B.A. (Oxon)
 V.D., CIE (1928), CSI (1932), K C S I
 (1933), J P, IOS, Governor, Central Pro-
 vince, Sept 1933, b 4 July 1878 in Edie
 (Govan) (nee Brown) 1906 Educ at Eisle
 School, 1888-1892, Rugby School, 1892-1897
 New College, Oxford, 1897-1901, Univ. Col,
 London, 1901-1902 Under Secretary to C P
 Govt, 1904-08, Officiated as Under Secretary
 Commerce and Industries Department
 Government of India, July to Nov 1908,
 Settlement Officer, Hoshangabad District
 1918-18, Financial Secretary to Govt
 C P, 1918-1921, Dy Commissioner, Nagpur
 1923-25, Financial Secretary to Govt
 1924-27, Chief Secretary, March 1927
 Revenue and Finance Member, C P
 Government, July 1932 Address Nagpur
GRAHAM, SIR LANCELOT, M A (Oxon),
 K C I E (1930), Bar-at-Law, C I E. (1924),
 I O S, Secretary Legislative Depart-
 ment, Government of India (1921), b 18
 April 1880, in Olive Bertha Marjorie Edie
 St Paul's School, London and Balliol Coll,
 Oxford Entered Indian Civil Service,
 1904, Asst. Collector, 1904, Asst. Judge,
 1908, Asst. Legal Member, Bombay,
 1911, Judicial Asst., K. A. B. W. 1913; Join-
 t Secretary, Legislative Department, Govern-
 ment of India, 1921 Address: Delhi and
 Simla

Raichambur Pithuray Thaya, is Editor of the Dayanand Commemorative Volume and is Secretary of the Rappaport Sabha of India
Address: Civil Lines, Ajmer, Rajasthan

HAR PRASADA, RAJ BAHADUR, VAKIL, BILNOR, U P 4, March, 1878. Educ. Agric. College. Started practice, 1903, founded Udayog Shasthik Co in 1910 and was its Managing Director and Vice-Chairman for 12 years. Conducts Bilnor War League and was its Vice-President. Awarded Gold Watch for Public Meritorious Services in 1930. Awarded Medal in connection with Vemaby Exhibition in 1925. Organised Aryan Sabha and Durgamagar Bazar, 1923 and Industrial exhibition at Nagana, 1923. started Govt Dible Industrial School; elected member, British Empire Exhibition Committee, U P, appointed member, Standing Committee of Co-operators, 1925. Hon. Editor of the U P Vernacular Co-operative Journal, 1927 and 1930, Late Member, Dufferin Fund Association, Member, Provincial Committee of Co-operative Union Ltd, 1929, its Secretary, Zemindars' Association, Bilnor; awarded sand for services in connection with Locust Operation, 1930. Awarded Sand in 1932 for meritorious services in Civil Disobedience Publications Non-Co-operation Ka Kachha Chitra in Urdu in 1922, Brief sketch of the life of Sir Anil Chandra Chatterji, High Commissioner for India, published in the English Co-operative Journal, Brief sketch of the life of Raj Bahadur Pandit Shyam Behari Mishra, Late Registrar, Co-operative Societies U P, Lucknow, published in the U P Vernacular Co-operative Journals Address Bilnor, U P.

HARI KISHAN KAVI, RAJA KANDI, M A, O S I, C I E, Raj Bahadur 6, 1869 s of Raja Coll, Lahore Assst Commgr, 1890, Jn, Secy to Financial Commr, 1893-97, District Judge, Lahore, 1897-98, Deputy Commr, Jhang, 1898, Settlement Officer, Muzaffargarh, 1898-1903, S O Minawall, 1903-8, Dy Commr, 1906, Dy Commr, Muzaffargarh, 1908-09, Dy. Commr. and Supdt. Census Operations, Punjab, 1910-12, Dy. Commr, Multan, 1913, on special duty to report on Criminal Tribes, Deco 1913-April 1914, Deputy Commissioner for Criminal Tribes, 1917-19, Dy. Commr, Jhelum, 1919, Commissioner, Rawal Pindi Division, 1919-20, Commissioner, Jhelum Division, November 1920 to November 1923, Member, Royal Commission on Services, 1923-1924, Commissioner, Rawal Pindi Division, 1924, returned, Nov 1924, Member, Economic Inquiry Committee, 1925, Member, Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry), 1926-27, Dewan, Bhairpur State, April to October 1927, Prime Minister, Jammu and Kashmir State, 1931-32 Address 29, Lawrence Road, Lahore

HARISINGH, MAJOR-GENERAL, RAJ BAHADUR TEAKUR, OF SATTAR, C I E, Army Minister, State Council and G O C, Bilkaner, State Forces 6 1882 Educ Mayo College, Address, Sattar House, Bilkaner.

HARRIS, DONALD GORDON, DIP Ing (Zurich), O S I, C I E, M I E (Ind), Indian Public Works Department (retd) (1926) 6 19 Oct 1883 m Alice, d. of Spencer Ackroyd of Bradford, Yorks, Educ Rugby School and Federal Polytechnic, Zurich, Switzerland, Assst and Executive Engineer, P W D, 1907-14; Under-Secretary to Government, U P, P W D, 1916, Under-Secretary to Government of India, 1916-19, Secretary to P W D, P W D, 1916, Under-Secretary to Government of India, 1917; Under-Secretary to Government of India, P W D, 1918, Assst. Inspector-General of Irrigation in India, 1920, Secretary for New Capital Inquiry Committee, 1922, Deputy Secretary to Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, Public Works Branch, 1922, Consulting Engineer to Government of India, 1923-31, Member, Sind Financial Enquiry Committee, 1931, Member, Bombay Reorganisation Committee, 1932 Publications Irrigation in India (Oxford University Press). Address 1, Hayes Barton, Shanklin

HARRISON, ARTHUR, NAVILL, JOHN, Modern History Scholar, Lincoln College, Oxford, BA (Oxon), 2nd Class Firsts, 1900, Chief Auditor, B & O C Railway, 15th September 1931 in Helen Zoe Rooke (died June 1931) youngest d. of late R Bruce-Rooke, F R C S Educ Cheltenham College, Lincoln College, Oxford joined accounts Branch, P W D, Madras, 1905 E B S Railway, 1908-1914, Auditor, Jodhpur Division Railway, 1914-1924, B B & O C Railway since 1924 Acting Agent, 1933 and 1934 Address General Offices, B B & O C Railway, Chiturgate, Bombay

HATWA, MAHARAJA BAHADUR GURU MAHARAJA, DRA AGAR PRASAD BAHU ON 6 July 1893; S Oct 1896 to the date of death of father Maharaja Bahadur Sir Krishan Prasad Sahi, K C I E, of Hathwa Address Hathwa P. O, District Baran, Behar and Orissa

HAY, MAJOR-GENERAL CHARTER, JOHN BARON, O B (1929), C M G (1919), C B I (1921), D S O (1916), Comdr of the Order of St John of Jerusalem, F R G S, F R Empire Society; Inspector-General, Ind Army and Head of the British Military Mission 6 18 May 1877 at Roux Leuch Court, Worcestershire M Agha, youngest d. of the Rev James Manning, DD LL D one d Educ Wellington College, Royal Military College, Sandhurst, Canadian Militia, 1909-10, Extra A D C to Lt Governor of Bengal for Coronation Durbar, 1911, D A A. and Q M G India, 1912-14, on the General Staff in France, Belgium, Aghen and Iraq, 1914-18 (Despatches, 5 times, Brevet of Lieut-Colonel O L G, D S O); on the General Staff in the 3rd Afghan War (Despatches), on the General Staff in the 1919 (Despatches), on the General Staff in the 1920 (Despatches, C B E); Commanding 10th Punjab 1921-23, Colonel on the Staff, General Staff, Southern Command, 1923-27; Commander, Xth (Dubuipore) Infantry Brigade, 1927-29, Commander, Sind (Ind) Brigade Area, 1929-31, and Commander, Lucknow District, 1931-34 Address The Citadel, Baghdad, Iraq

HOBBAK, THE HON JOHN AUGUST, M A
(Canab), CSI (1933), Member of
the Executive Council Bihar and Orissa
b 27 Feb 1878 in Bridgeet Alington Road,
Elate Winchester
(Cambridge Assc Magte and Collector and
Settlement Officer in Bengal, Settlement
Officer, 1909, Joint Magistrate and Deputy
Collr, 1910, transferred to Bihar and Orissa,
1912, Offr Secretary, 1918, temporarily
employed by Revenue and Statistics Dept,
India Office, 1915, Magistrate and Collector,
served under Govt of India, Army
Department, 1918, Offr Secretary to Govt
of Bihar and Orissa, Revenue Department,
1919, confirmed, 1919, Director of Land

HURFALL, COLONEL. WILLIAM TERRY CHRISTOPHER, O.B.D., M.C., A.D.C., J.P., A.M. Inst. Mech. Engineers, Local Representative, India, Sir W.G. Armstrong, Whitworth and Co., Ltd., Managing Director, Carver Brothers (India), Ltd., 1880. Engineer with Greenwood and Halliwell, Ltd. (Leeds) with Canadian Pacific Railway, Ltd., 1894-1906, with Babcock and Wilcox, Ltd., Calcutta and Bombay, 1907-1914, served with 1st Bn, West Yorkshire Regt., 1911-1916, Commanded ditto 1916 (Bramley) Town Major 1917.

HON'G CHIEF JUSTICE, M.A. (Glasgow),
 C.I.D. (1932), I.O.S. (Chief Secretary to the
 Government of Bengal & February 1884
 in School Ban *Lane* Glasgow High School
 and Glasgow University. Appointed to the
 Indian Civil Service after examination of 1907,
 arrived 28th November 1908 and served in
 East Bengal and Assam as Assistant Magistrate
 and collector, transferred to Bengal, April
 1912. At Muz and Dy Coll, Novr 1914,
 Vice Chairman, Chittagong Port Commr,
 July 1915, on Military duty, Octr 1917 to
 Janr 1918, on Military duty, Octr 1917 to
 Judge Assam, May 1918, on Military duty,
 Augr 1918 to Janr 1919, and returned to
 Bengal, Wazir and Coll, April 1921, Commr
 Secy Govt of Bengal, & I Deppt, and
 Director of Industries, April 1926, Secy
 Govt of Bengal, Agril and Ind and P W
 Deppts Novr 1928, Off Commr, July
 1931, confirmed as Commr, Decr 1931,
 Addl Secy to Govt of Bengal, Roll Deppt,
 Octr 1932, Chief Secy to the Govt of Bengal,
 10th April 1933 *Address* Chief Secretary
 to the Government of Bengal, Writers'
 Buildings, Calcutta

HOOPER, REV. WILLIAM, D.D., Missionary,
O.M.S., Translator, Mysore, since 1892.
School, Beth Grammar School, Wadhwa
College, Oxford, Hebrew Examination,
Sanskrit Scholarship, Late Class in Lit. Hon.,
B.A., 1850, M.A., 1861, D.D., 1887. Went to
India, O.M.S., 1861; Canon of Lucknow, 1906
1889-90. *Publications* The Hindustani
Language, Notes on the Bible and many
smaller works in English, Hindi and Urdu
Address Mysore, India.

through Col. Corbyn, Deputy Commissioner. Appointed as Hon. Magistrate, 1881, Extra Asst. Commr., 1894; British Agent in Cabul, 1908-06 Address: Khwafabad, District Shahrpore, Punjab.

JACKSON, GLENN HOLMESMAN BLOTTARD, M.A. (Oxon), I.C.S., Punes Judge, Madras High Court b. 26th Jan 1875 in to Mrs Jackson *Edne* Marlborough College, Mer- ton College Indian Civil Service Address High Court, Madras

JADHAV, BHASKARAO VITHOJIRAO, M.A., M.L.A. b May 1867 in Bhagurati- bati, a lady from the Vichare family of Bhagurati District *Edne* Wilson College, Bijnanikone College, and Government Law School Served as Revenue Member of the State Council Started the Maratha Educational Conference in 1907 and revived the Satya Shodhak movement in 1911, and has been in the Non-Brahmin movement in the Pre- sidency from its inception Represent- ed the claims of the Marathas and allied Communities before the joint Parliamentary Committee in England in 1919 and secured seven reserved seats for them, was nominated member of the Legislative Council in 1922 and 1923 and represented Satara in the last two elections Minister of Education, 1924-26 and Minister of Agriculture, 1928-1930 Leader of the Non-Brahmin Party in the Bombay Presidency, President of the Satyashodhak Samaj, 1920-30 Elected Member, Legislative Assembly to represent Central Division; Delegate to Round Table Conf., 1930-31, Associate Member of the Reorganisation Committee, Bombay Charman, Board of Directors of the Western Insurance Co., Ahmedabad Address Shahrp- pur, Kolhapur.

JAFARI, DR S. N. A., B. A., B.A.-W-Law, M.B.A.S (London), Gold Medalist and Late Member of the International Historical Society of France, Deputy Director of Public Information Government of India, Home Department b 1887 Graduated with distinction from Aligarh University in 1906 A.D. Called to the Bar from the Honble Society of Gray's Inn, London, in 1920 Sometime Research Scholar in Economics at the London School of Economics L.L.D. of Kansas, U.S.A. Specialised in the art of public speaking and in Indian finance at London Member of U.P. Civil Service, Worked as a Census Officer in U.P. Was on special duty as Recruiting Officer during the War, Land Acquisition Officer, Survey Officer of Azadi buildings and Lands, Income- Tax Officer, Nazul Officer and Election Officer, Worked as Provincial Publicity Officer, U.P. Government, Was on special duty as Provincial Publicity Officer in the Behar Province in connection with Earth- quake Relief measures. Officiated as Director of Public Information, Government of India in June-July, 1934 *Publications* "History and Status of Landlords and Tenants in the U.P." "An Introduction to the assessment of Income-Tax," "British Con- stitution (Constitutional Vrid Series—No 1,

companies including the Port Canning and Land Improvement Company, the Sassoon and Weaving Company, Ltd., and Spinning and Alliance Silk Mill Co., Ltd., and the Union Mills, trustees of Sir Hurskondas Narokham General Hospital, and Treasurer for Pechey Phipson Sanitarium for Women and Children, President of the Managing Council, Sir Hurskondas Narokhamas Gene- ral Hospital, Member of the Managing Com- mittee of the Lady Northcote Hindu Orphan- age, and Member of the Board of David- Sassoon Industrial and Reformatory Insti- tute, President, Managing Committee of the Society of Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay, Director, Bundi Portland Cement, Ltd., and Punjab Portland Cement, Ltd., Member, Managing Committee, Goudas, Tempal Hospital Nursing Association; Member, Managing Committee of the Helpless Beggars and Vice-President of his own community Sherif of Bombay, 1924 Member of the Auditor's Council and Hon. Treasurer of the Bombay Vigilance Association, Director, Louvaria, Khandaria Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Director, Panvel Taluk Electric Co., Ltd. and Naski-Deolali Electric Supply Co., Ltd. Member of the Managing Committee, H. B. the Governor's Hospital Fund Address Garden View, Hughes Road, Bombay

ISAR, HASAN KHAN, THE HON'BLE KHAN BAHADUR, DAVARATULIK, SIR MAULVI MOTILAL, K.T., C.I.E., b Shahrpapur, 1865 in Lady Isar, daughter of Malak Mohammad Ahamad-ul-Hak-Khan, Rake of Shahrpapur 1866 *Edne* Shahrpapur and Bareilly Ahamad-ul-Umar, Home Member and President, Judicial Council, Bhopal, Reared 1927, Nominated Member, Council of State, 1931 Address Jalkhotli, Shahrp- hurpur

ISWAR SARAN, MUKSHI, B.A. (Allahabad), M.L.A., Advocate, Allahabad High Court, b 26 Aug 1874, in Siramati Mukhtam Devi *Edne* Church Mission - High School and Jubilee High School, Gorakhpur, U.P. and Mut Central College, Allahabad, Mem- ber, first and third Legislative Assembly, was a member of the Court of Allahabad University, as a member of the Be- neres Hindu University, President, Kayastha- Pathshala, Allahabad, 1926-29 was Joint Secretary of Crosswise Girls' College, Allah- abad, Hon. Secretary, Madanmohal Hindu Boarding House, Allahabad, Hon. Secretary, U.P. Industrial Conference, Political and Social Congress Committees, President, U.P. India Congress Committees, President, U.P. Political and Social Conferences, Hon. Secre- tary, Reception Committee, Indian National Congress, 1910, Elected a member of the Court of Allahabad University for 3 years 1931; President of the Allahabad Students League and of the Allahabad and wrote four times and delivered speeches and was in the press on India Address 6, Edmond- stone Road, Allahabad, U.P. IZZAT NISBAN, KHUDA BAKHSH KHAN TITWAKA, Nawab, Mahr, Dist Judge, Dehra Ghazi Khan, b. 1868 *Edne*; Government High School, Shahrp. ; private training

and Class order of British India, 1919, M.I.I.
 1st Secretary to Commander-in-Chief, Army and Revenue Minister, Jammu and Kashmir Government and now Army and Public Works Minister. Retired from State Service, May 1932. Address: P. O. Khem, via Palampur.

JAYAKANT DASS, Sarda, O.B.E., Minister-in-Charge of the Nationalist Party there from 1927 to 1930 March. Leader of the Opposition in 1930 Simla session, was a delegate to the Indian Round Table Conference in London and member of Federal Structure Committee, Member, Indian Delegation Co-operating on the White Paper. *Publications* Edited a book on Vedanta Philosophy in 1924. Address: Winter Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JAYANTI KAVIYA PATTAY, B.A., B.L. 6 Aug. 1861. Educ. at Hajipur and Madras. Served in Rev. Dept. in Madras Presidency and retd. as 1st Grade Deputy. Coltr., 1917, acted as Presidency Magistrate, Madras, for three years. Ex-Member, Legislative Assembly. *Publications*. A defence of literary Telugu and several articles on literature, history and archeology also Telugu translations of the Sanskrit drama (*Tirumala-Chaitanyam*, Amaruka Kavyam and Churnam Kavyamam Editor of the Surayana Telugu Academy. Address: Multistram, Patna.

JAYAKAR, BHUKARAO HANAKARAO, B.A., B.L., B. 24 April 1880, m. to Annapurna. Educated at Basim A. V. School, Amravati. High School, Keshavnagar College, Poona, and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Joined Yeotmal the Joint Secretaries of the District Association, since its inception in 1915, non-official elected Chairman, Yeotmal Municipal Committee, since 1919, President of the Co-operative Central Bank Ltd, Yeotmal, Deputy President, Bazar Co-operative Institute Ltd, and Vice-President, District Association, Yeotmal. Address: Yeotmal (Bazar).

JAYAL, JONASARAI CHITPAKAY, Dn., I.P. and Hon. President of Legislative since 1912, 6 Oct 1880 m. Miss Mowat. Educ. at Elphinstone and Arjan Education Society's High Schools, studied in Arjan Medical School of Bombay and was a casual student of Grant Medical College, Bombay. Private medical practitioner for over 30 years. Elected Councillor, Bombay Municipal Corporation from G Ward in 1910, re-elected at subsequent general elections, Chairman, Standing Committee of the Corporation, 1922-23, Chairman, Schools Committee, 1922, Chairman, Medical Relief and Public Health Committee, 1929-30, Chairman of the Improvement Committee, 1929-30, Mayor of Bombay, April 1931-1934. Address: 11 Railway Station, Dadar, Bombay 14.

JAYAKAR, MUKUND RAO, M.A., B.L., B. Member, Legislative Assembly, at Bombay University. Started a charitable public school called Arjan Education Society's High School in Bombay, worked there four years, practised as a barrister in Bombay High Court, took to public life in 1916 and since 1921 completely.

JAYALANT, KATYABAI DR. HANISYED ABDUL KADDER BAI, B.A., B.L., B. 6 July 1867, Superintendent of District Jail. b July 1867, m. d. of Subadar Major Yacoub Khan Sahab. Educ. at Saint Thomas Mount, Madras. Was Member, Cantonment Committee, for 14 years, member, district board for 12 years of which for 3 years was Vice-President and Hon. Magistrate for Madras for seven years. Address: Saint Thomas Mount, Madras.

JAYALANT, COONER WALTER HUGH, O.L.I. (1914), C.S.I. (1924), General Staff, Army Headquarters, b 15 Dec 1878, m. Cecil Charlotte Cordell. Educ. at Binndells, Triverton and Plymouth College, Address: Simla.

JERRY, LIEUT. GENERAL Sir GEORGE DARELL, K.C.B. (1932), K.C.V.O. (1924), C.M.G. (1916), J.F. (1906), D.L. (1920), G.O.C. in Chief, Southern Command, India, 8 March 1878 m. to Dorothy, d. of J.P., Hestline of Walshampton, Hants, and widow of Lionel, Viscount Canteluppe (Viscountess of London, Educ. Eton and R.M.C. Sandhurst. Served with Grenadier Guards in Nile Expedition, 1898 and in South African War, 1899-1902, and in Great War, 1914-18, Commanded Grenadier Guards, 1915, Commanded successively 58th, 67th and 1st Guards Brigades, 1916-17, Commanded 15th Division, 1917-19, Promoted Lt-Lieut. Colonel, 1915, Bt-Colonel, 1917, Major-General, 1919, C.M.G. (1916), C.B., 1918, also Commander, Legion of Honour and Croix de Guerre (France), Commander,

Home's Court in Bengal from 1884-1920, Communist, C P Govt, 1920-25, President, All-India Liberal Federation, 1925, Chairman, Age of Consent Committee, 1928-29, Advocate, Judicial Commissioners' Court, C P Address Amrohi, Benar.

JOSHI, NARAYAN MATAR, B A, M I A, J P
Member of the Servants of India Soc 6 June 1876. Educ. Poonia New English School and Decan Coll taught in private schools and Servants of India Soc, 1909 Sec, Bombay Social Service League, since 1911, and Sec, Bombay Free Social Reform Assoc, 1917-1929; Sec, W India Nat. Liberal Assoc, 1918-1929. Was sent to Measopomias by Govt. of India as representative of the Indian Press, 1917, and in 1920 to Washington and in 1921, 1922, 1925 and in 1929 to Geneva as delegate of the working classes in India to International Labour Conference, Deputy Member of the Governing body of the I T O, since 1922. Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal (1919) Was awarded, but declined O. I R in 1921. Nominated by Govt. a Member of the Legislative Assembly in 1921 and again in 1924, 1927 and 1931 to represent labour interest. Appointed a Member of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour as Labour representative. Attended Round Table Conference, 1930, 1931 and 1932 and was for sometime member of the Constitutive Committee. Attended the meetings of the Joint Parliamentary Committee as Indian delegate. Elected Member of the Governing Body of the I T O Geneva Address Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road, Bombay 4.

KAJIJI, ARDRAJI, B A,
L.T.B. (Cantab), Bar-at-Law, late Judge, High Court, Bombay 6 12 February 1871 Educ. St. Xavier's Coll, Bombay, Downing Coll, Cambridge, and Lincoln's Inn. Ord Fellow, Syndic and Dean in Law of Bombay Univ; President, Aijman-i-Islam, Bombay Islam Club and President, Islam Gymkhana. Address Dikroosh, Grant Road, Bombay

KALB, VAKAY GOWND Professor, Ferguson College 6 1876, Educ. New English School and Ferguson Coll, Poonia. Joined the Decan Education Socy of Poonia, as a life member in 1907. Fellow of Bombay Univ for five years since 1919. Prof of History and Economics, Ferguson Coll, Member, Council of State, 1921-23, and member, Indian Tariff Board, 1923-25; Secretary, D B Society, Poonia, from 1925 to 1928, Vice-President, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute, etc. Liberal in Politics, has addressed numerous public meetings; and published many articles on economics and political and social reform, and the following works "Indian Industrial and Economic Problems," "Indian Administration," "Indian Economics," "Dawn of Modern Finance in India," "Gokhale and Economic Reform in India," "India's War Finance," "Current Reform in India," "Constitutional Reforms in India,"

KANDATHIL, MOST RAY NAR AUGUSTINE
D D Archibishop, Metropolitan of Ernakulam, Was Vicar Bishop of Arad and Co-adjutor with right of succession to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam, since 1911; b. 25 Aug 1874, Chemap, Vaikam, Travancore, Educ. Poonia, 1901 Parish Priest for some time; Doctor of Prep Sem, Ernakulam and Pri-vate Sec to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam to end of 1911. Consecrated Bishop, December 8, 1911 & Rt Rev Dr A. Farnham as Second Vicar-Apostolic, 9 Decr. 1919, installed on 18 Decr. 1919, was made Archbishop, Metropolitan, 21st Decr. 1923, (Suffragan sees being Changanacherry, Trichur and Kottayam), Installation 16 Nov 1924 Address Archbishop's House, Ernakulam, Cochin State

KANAKA, SRI JIVANENDRI BHIVARI, KT (1928)
M A, L T B 6 27th Feb 1875, s of Brijmaji Bhikaji Kanwar, Share and stock Broker, Educ. Dipinestone High School, Wilson College, and Government Law School, Bombay Advocate of the High Court, 1903, an additional Judge of Bombay High Court, 1921, Advocate-General, 1922-1933. Address 170, Malabar Hill, Bombay

KANAT, BALKRISHNA STRAWAR, B A, Mer-chant b. 21 March, 1871 Educ. Decan Coll in Miss Karmunabai R. M. Gawarekar of Cochin Member, Bombay Legal Coun-cil, 1913-16, 1916-20, Member, Legislative Assem-bly, 1921-28 (Liberal), Member, Kenya Depu-tation to England, 1928 Member of various educational bodies, has taken part in work for social and agricultural reform, lately Member, Royal Commission on Indian Agriculture, Member, Provincial Bank-ing Enquiry Committee, Member, Bombay Leg Council, 1930-34, Member, Bombay Replenishment Committee Address Ganesh-Kind Road, Poonia 5

KANBIT, SINDAPARA TORPAP, B A, L T B,
Dewan Bhandari, Minister of Education to Bombay Government 6 September 1882 Educ. at Decan College Practised as leader from 1906 to 1930 in Dhawat Courts, Non-Official President of Hubli Municipal Borough from 1922 to 1930, President, Dhawat Dist Local Board in 1929 and 1930; Member of Bombay Council since 1921; Deputy President, Bombay Council, 1927-30, organized first non-Brahmin Con-ference in Hubli in 1920, was member, Rai-way Advisory Committee, M S M Railway, for about two years; President over Ist Kar-natak Unification Confe held at Belgaum, President over Co-operative Conference held at Shligson in Dhawat Dist in 1927, Presi-dent, All-India Veeharvath Conference at Bangalore in 1927 Was President, Dhawat Non-Brahmin League, was Member, Lin-dian Women's Aid Society, Hubli. Address 18, Queen's Garden, Poonia.

KANDATHIL, MOST RAY NAR AUGUSTINE
D D Archibishop, Metropolitan of Ernakulam, Was Vicar Bishop of Arad and Co-adjutor with right of succession to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam, since 1911; b. 25 Aug 1874, Chemap, Vaikam, Travancore, Educ. Poonia, 1901 Parish Priest for some time; Doctor of Prep Sem, Ernakulam and Pri-vate Sec to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam to end of 1911. Consecrated Bishop, December 8, 1911 & Rt Rev Dr A. Farnham as Second Vicar-Apostolic, 9 Decr. 1919, installed on 18 Decr. 1919, was made Archbishop, Metropolitan, 21st Decr. 1923, (Suffragan sees being Changanacherry, Trichur and Kottayam), Installation 16 Nov 1924 Address Archbishop's House, Ernakulam, Cochin State

KALB, VAKAY GOWND Professor, Ferguson College 6 1876, Educ. New English School and Ferguson Coll, Poonia. Joined the Decan Education Socy of Poonia, as a life member in 1907. Fellow of Bombay Univ for five years since 1919. Prof of History and Economics, Ferguson Coll, Member, Council of State, 1921-23, and member, Indian Tariff Board, 1923-25; Secretary, D B Society, Poonia, from 1925 to 1928, Vice-President, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute, etc. Liberal in Politics, has addressed numerous public meetings; and published many articles on economics and political and social reform, and the following works "Indian Industrial and Economic Problems," "Indian Administration," "Indian Economics," "Dawn of Modern Finance in India," "Gokhale and Economic Reform in India," "India's War Finance," "Current Reform in India," "Constitutional Reforms in India,"

KISHOR PRASAD, B.A.-I-BALVANA, MAHARAJA BHADUR, KANUNO-SATYANATH SINGH, G.C.B. (1810), K.C.B., cr. 1908, Hereditary Palshkar and President of the State Revenue Council, Hyderabad State, 28 Jan 1864, *Bduc.* Nazam's College, Palshkar and Military Minister, 1893-1901, Prime Minister 1901-1912 President of the Revenue Council since Nov 1926 under the present constitution, *Publications* Copy-ous in Urdu and Persian prose and poetry Descended from the great Hyderabad Statesman Maharaja Chandoo Lal & His Highness Palshkar Address: City Palshkar

KOTHAAPUR, Lt-Col His Highness Sir SRI
RAJARAM CHHATRAPATI, MAHARAJA OF SINCE
1922, G O S I (1931), G O I R. (1924) 2

1922), direct descendant of Shiva) the
Great, the founder of the Marathi Empire
in 1818 H. H. Shrimati Tharabai & J.

Ruler of Baroda in again to Her Highness
Sri Vijaymalā Maharani Sahab in June 1925
Ride Privately in Kolhapur; Henden

College, Bangalore. the Indian Army, April 1927. Address. Kolhapur.

VATIA NAKHIDI OR, Kt (1925), C1 E (1915)
R.M U. (1921), Landholder. b Oct 1873 m. to
C. Kalyani Amma, d. of Mr. K. Rama Menon.

lego, Pailgari, senior member and manager of the aristocratic family of Vengalad in Malabar. twice nominated as member of

Member, Alaska Legislative Council, representing landholders; Member, Council of State (1922). Temp. Member, Alaska Rev-

1927. Elected member of the Legislative Assembly representing Landholders of the Madras Presidency from Sept 1930 and Leader and President, Landholders' Group

member of the Governing Body of the Red Cross Society, Delhi, also member of the Annamalai University since 1929. Address.

KOTAH, H. H. LIEUT-COLONEL, MAHARAJA'S
DR. JAHARAO SIR UDED SINGH BAHADUR,
MAHARAO OF GCSI, GCMG, GBE, &

KOTHAVALLA, PRABHOZ DHAJISNAH, B A,
 IL B, Dewam, Rajpura State 6 19 April
 1986, 20 April, 4 of late 11.5 B. 1986

School; Kipinestone College, Bombay, and Government Law School, Bombay, on the Appellate High

MR. M A (Cambridge), C I E, Minister for
Education, Government of Bengal, from 1929
to 19 July 1934 in Shahrar Banoo Begum
College, Aligarh, and Trinity
Grammar School, England, and Trinity
Hall, Cambridge Chairman, Dacca Alumni-
association, from 1922-29, Member, Executive
Council, Dacca University, 1923-29. Address
25-1, Ballygunge Circular Road, Calcutta

RAJIB, MADHAYKAO VINAYAK, BHADUR (1912), Dahanu-Khas-Bhadur (1920), MA (1901), Altmoud-nd-
Dahau (1908), Retired

Indore b 1877 in Karamnabai Kibe. Educ.
Daily College, Indore, Alur Central College,
Allahabad - Hon. Attached to Agent to the

well-known magazines in Hindi, Marathi and English on Economics, History and Anti-Communist literature.

KIRABHAI PRABHAKAR, Sr., Kt. (1931),
 Finance, April 1, 1888, in Lady Jy.

Assembly from January 1950 to September 1950, member of the Indian Central Committee which co-operated with the Indian Statutory Committee. Sheriff of Bombay for

Apollon Street, Bombay
KIRPATANI, HIRANAND KUSHIRAM, ICS,
M A (Bom), B A (Oion),
Bor-ul-Islam

City of Bombay, 1931-1934 to 28 Jan. 1888
-m to Gull H. Gidwani Educ. N. H.
Academy, Hyderabad (Sind), D. J. Sind

Asst Comm and Inspc, Municipal Comm, and Supt, 1912-1918, Municipal Comm, Supt, 1918 to 1920, Taindang Settlement, Officer, General, 1891, Dy Municipal

Dist Magte, Kara, 1923-24, Dy
to Government, Rev Dept, Secretary
Ag. Municipal Commissioner
for the

1928, Deputy Secretary, General Committee, 1929. Collector of Panch Alahals and Political Agent, Hava Kantha, 1930-31. Address - Carmichael Road, Bombay

YAGYANARAIN SINGH BAHADUR. 6 Jan 1896
in sister of the Raja Bahadur of Jalesar.

ATTIE, DIWAN BHADUR ANNA BHABAI, M.A., LL.B. (Bombay) b. 1878 in
 to Jyotsnabai Kade of Kolhapur. Educ.
 Deccan College, Poona. Prof of English
 Rajaram College, Kolhapur, 1907-1911.
 Reductional Inspector, Kolhapur, till 1914
 President, Southern Maharashtra Jan Assoca-
 tion and Karnatak Non-Brahman League.
 Edited "Deccan Kist" (1918-20). Member
 of the Indian Legislative Assembly,
 1921-23. Member of the University Reform
 Committee, 1924. Diwan of Kolhapur
 1926-30. Diwan Bahadurship Conferred in
 1930. Attended Indian Round Table Con-
 ference in London as adviser to the States
 Delegation Chairman, Central Co-operative
 Bank, Belgam District, 1932. Publications
 "Introduction to Jainism" (English);
 "Growth of British Empire in India";
 "Shri Shahu Chhatrapati Chhattraput";
 "Memoirs of Shahu Chhatraput";
 In Marathi (1926). "Problems of Indian
 States" (English). 1930: "The Federal
 Constitutions of the World" (Marathi)
 1931. Address Belgium

LETTWICH, CHARLES GERARD, C.B.E (1919)
 Indian Trade Agent, East Africa.
 b. 31 July 1872. In Rangoon Bazaar of
 Almonct, Northumberland Educ Christ's
 Hospital and St. John's College, Cantab
 Entered 108 1896. Served in O. F.
 Address: Almonct

LEIGH, FRANKS ORRIN, C.B.E, V.D (1919),
 Director of Wagon Interchange, Indian Rail-
 way Conference Assoca b. 14 September
 1873 Educ. Sherborne School Address
 LEY, WILLIAM GERALD, B.A. (Cantab)
 1st Class (2nd Division) Classical Tripos
 (1908): Further, Messrs Wallace & Co,
 Bombay, b. 16 July 1886 in Dorset, Eng,
 b. of late W. R. Hurdall Educ
 Fettes College, Edinburgh, Bannanuel College,
 Cambridge. Joined The Bombay Burmah
 Trading Corporation, Ltd., Hongkong, as asst
 In November 1910, appointed manager, June
 1920, joined Wallace & Co, Bombay, as a
 partner in August 1926, member, Bombay
 Legislative Council in 1928, 1931 and 1933-34.
 President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce,
 1933-34, Tripos of Port of Bombay, 1933,
 and 1934 Address Wallace & Co, b.
 Wallace Street, Fort, Bombay.

LE RUYER, St. Rev Mgr RUS, O.M. CAP
 R. O. Bishop of AJMER, Loreto (Rangoe),
 b. 28 November 1870 Educ
 Noviciate of Friars Minor Capuchins,
 Province of Paris, at Le Mans, 4 Oct 1898,
 1894 Ordained priest 21 July 1895 Chap-
 lain at Ajmer, Rector of St. Anselm's High
 School (1907-1931) Appointed Bishop 9
 June 1931 Consecrated 28 Oct 1931
 Address: Bishop's House, Ajmer.

1928, Member, Senate Aladras University,
1930, President, Taluk Board, Kasaragod,
Publication, The Alapatt Wilah Act, 1928
(Madras). Address Sea View, Kasaragod, S
Kannur.

MAHOMMADALI KHAN BAHADUR, NAWAB SEED,
I S O : Ent. Govt Service, 1873; Insp-Gen.
of Registration, Bengal, retired, 1913, a dis-
tinguished Urdu scholar and dramatist, wrote
The Nawabi-Darbar, and adventures of, Note-
books Detective in English Address : 4,

MAHON, COLONEL, ARMY, D.S.O.

(1918), Indian Army (retired). On year of
 Unsub in Himalayan Region Institute since
 1930 to 1978, # of R II Downes Station of
 (Cavayon), Co. Boscommon in Frances
 Amela, # of Rev Robert Harloe Fleming,
 Elent 6th Bu Comanaght Kangoor, 1890,

4th Punjab Infantry, 1903, transferred to 53th (Coke's) Rifles, 1904, second in Command 50th Royal Scinde Bn. 1922, Commandant, 1st Bn. Rongel South African War, (Queen's) 1923-27, served South African War, (Queen's)

1914-15, wounded at 2nd Battle of Ypres, (despatches), Mohammad Blockado and
African Expedition 1917 German East
Africa, 1917-18 (despatches, D 90),
Warrington Field Force, 1918-20, (despatches,

1973, retired 1978. Publications: Numerous articles and short stories in various papers and magazines under nom de plume Alex and address Alnani, Kulu, Punjab

MAJITHIA, THE HON. SANDAR BHANDUR SIR
SUNDAR SINGH, KT (1920) C.I.B. (1920), KJ
Rajwade Member, Government of Punjab,
d. 17th Feb 1872; m. Grand-daughter of
Sardar Sir Attar Singh, K.O.B. Chief of
Bahadur, Patiala State, Rajwade Punjab Chief

College and Government College, Lahore
Worked as Hon. Secretary of the Khalsa Coll,
Amritsar for 11 years and Hon. Secretary,
Chief Khalsa Dewan, a representative body of
the Sikhs from its inception in 1902 to the
close of 1920. Address "Manjhi House,"
Lahore.

MAJUMDAR, DWIJA DAS, MSc, Assistant
Controller of Stationery, Government of India
Off. Deputy Controller of Stationery and
Stamps, in October, 1927, and Off. Manager,
in 1927-28.

2nd Feb 1890 in Abharavay, d of late
Promatsa Nath Ghosh, Zemindar of Bhanga-
pur Bahu. Krishnagar Collegiate School,
Krishnagar College, and Presidency College,
Calcutta. Entered Bengal Junior
1914. D. Sc. in Natural Science
Oval

Service, 1910; Bengal Civil Service from 1917, Asstt Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps, Govt of India, 1924; Acted as Hon Secretary, Bengal Junior Civil Service from 1921 to 1926

MAITAVYA, PANDIT KISHNA KANT,
 Editor of *Abhyudaya* Educ. & Alimabad
 Publications. Sansar Bank, Gopalpur
 Manorama, Patna, Mathura or Motherhood
 Calcutta.
 August 20/2 B, Ray Green, Baghi Road,

and Baby
Member,
All-India
Congress
Committee,
District and
Vice-President
Town,
Congress
Committee,
Alibabad,
Tlaxcala,
Gen'l Sec'y
of the Indian
Party and
All-India
Hindi
Sammelan
Address
Abhyudaya,
Alibabad

NALAVITA PANDIT MADAN MOHAN, b Allahabad, 25 Dec 1861 in 1884; four sons and three daughters *educ.* Sanskrit at the Dharm Tannopadesh Pathshala, Govt High School, Mur Central Coll, Allahabad, B A (Honors), Schoolmaster, 1887-87.

edited the Indian Union, 1886-1887, the
Hindustan, 1887-1889, LT B, Allahabad University,
1907-1909, LT B, Allahabad University,
1892, Vaki, High Court, Allahabad,
1892, Member, Prov. Leg. Council, 1892-1892,
President of Indian National Congress, 1892-1892

and 1918, Member, Imp Leg Council, 1910-1919, Member, Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-18, President, Sewa Samiti, Prayag, Chief Scout, Sewa Samiti Scouts' Association; Vice-Chancellor, Benares Hindu University, since 1910 President Hindu Mahasabha, 1903.

24 President, Santana Dharma Mahasabha,
Legislative Assembly since 1924
Resigned
University.

ALI KHAIR, KUSTI, estate holder in State, since 1911, elected member of the Council of State from 1921 to 1925, re-elected member in the Legislative Assembly representing East Central Punjab Muslims.

Publications has written many books including "Maharaja Ranjit Singh" and "Sher Shah, Emperor of India," also "The Poetry of Iqbal." b 1875, *Delhi*. *Chelms*.
Coll, Lahore, Cambridge; Paris *Address*.
 Lahore

MAJIK, SIR KIROZHAN NOON, M.A. (Oxon)
Minister, Punjab Government, 67 May
1898. *Ridge College, Lahore* and
Wadhwan College, Oxford. Bar-at-law, Inner
Temple, London. High Court and Member of the Punjab

Legislative Council from 1921. Appointed
Minister for Local Self-Government, January
1927 and Education Minister from October
1930. Address: Nurpur Noon, Dist. Shapur,
Punjab.

(TIANVA), COLONEL, THE HON NAWAR, SIR,
 R.C.I.E., O.B.E., M.V.O. Member of Council
 of State, 1921. b. 1875. Educ. Chiefs
 Coll, Lahore. One of largest landholders in
 Punjab. Attached to H. M. the Army, 1907.

Principal, Carmichael College, Bangalore.
So D. (Dub), F.R.S.E, I.E.S. (Retd.),
MALIK, DEENDRA NATH, B.A. (Contd.)
Kaira, Shapur
Imperial Council, 1910-1921.
Legislative Council, Delhi Durbar, 1911; member
of Imperial Council, 1910-1921.

Bangal, since 1926 b Bengali 1866.
 Educ. St Xavier's Coll, Calcutta; Univer-
 sity Coll, London, Peterhouse Cambridge.
Publications: Numerous works on Mathema-
 tics and Physics. Address: Rangpur, Bengal.

MAHARAJA SUN CHHRA, K G S I, O B R, b 1885, in March 17, 1906 *Idue* Mayo College, Ajmer s 1891. State has res at 8,46 sq miles, and a population of 445,606. Salute 11 guns. Address: Impal, Manipur State, Assam

MAHARAJA TAL, M A (Punjab), B A (Double First Class Honours), Cambridge, Philosophy and Economics, Bar-at-Law, Minister of Education, Punjab Government, 1927-1980 b 31 Dec 1879 *Rdue* Punjab University, and St John's College, Cambridge. Brother-in-law resident, St John's Cambridge. Brother-in-law, Cambridge, Cobden Prize, Cambridge, Whewell scholar in international Law, 1904-1905, Punjab, Handlir College, Kapurthala, 1906-1909, Minto Professor of Economics, Calcutta University, 1909-1912, Advocate, High Court, Lahore. Address: Fane Road, Lahore

MANJINGH, SANDAR, B A, LL B, Advocate, High Court, Lahore Vice-President, The Chief Khalsa Dwan (1923-1925), b 1887 *Educ* Khalsa College, Amritsar, won gold medals for writing Punjab poetry is a larger of more than 20 years' standing worked as the Senior Counsel and in charge of the Law Department of Shumamun Gurdwara Prabhakar Committee, Lahore (1926-1929), editor of *Khalsa Young Men's Magazine* from 1900, to 1909 Member, Legislative Assembly (1921-23) Secretary, Reception Committee, XV II Sikh Educational Conference, Lahore, held in 1926 Hon. Secretary, Khalsa High School, Office Judge, High Court, Patiala, 1930-July 1932 Now practicing as an advocate at High Court, Lahore. Publications: Translated *Khadass's Vikramavanshi* from Sanskrit into Punjab poetry and prose, has written religious tracts Address 26, Temple Road, Lahore

MANSHAL, SM JOHN HUBERT, Kt, c 1915, G I D, 1810, Lkt D, Ph D, F S A Hon A R I B A, Commander of the Order of the Empire Vice-President of the India Society, Director-General of Archaeology in India from 1902 to 1931, now officer on Special Duty, b Theatre 19th March 1876, in 1902 *Idue* Dulwich and King's College, Cambridge (Scholar and Hon Fellow) Claven Travelling Student Address Simla

MANJINGH, PERSA INDUSTRIAL AND TRADING CO, Ltd b 23 Sept 1876 in 9 Dec 1902, Jamshied *Educ* Nov H S and Diphu College, 1897 and 1893, b Proprietor and Editor of *Gup Sup* (1893) b Proprietor of *Lajish* columns or *Kasari-Hind* (1891-1900), Editor, *Indian Spectator* (1901-02), Fellow of the Bombay University and of the Institute of Bankers, Trieste, N M Wadia Charities, President, Anthropological Society, Bombay; Vice-President, Bombay Vigilance Association, b Hon Secer, Socy for the Protection of Children in W India, also on the K I

Kama Memorial Institute and the Peral Girls Schools Association and Trusts; Secretary, Bombay Food Prices Committee (1914-17) Municipal Secretary, 1907-1919 Dy Muni-pal Commissioner (1919-25) Municipal Commissioner, 1922 Manager Central Bank of India, Ltd, 1926-1928 Secretary, Bombay Provincial Bank, Bank of India, Indian Central Bank, 1930, Joint Secretary, Indian Central Bank, 1930-1930, Government Security Life Assurance Co Publications: English, Child Protection, Folklore of Wells. The Law and Proceedings of the Municipal Corporation, Bombay The Conference of the Birds, a Sun Allegory, Evolution of Local Self-Govt in India, "Zoroastrianism", The Religion of the Good Life, Court Poets of Persia and India Gujarati *Dolanto Upagot* (Use of Vedic), *Gharri lakh nishahin Kalam* (Homo and School education), *Tamshu mla* (Health series), and novels named *Abysmal Hobshi, Boshvi, Chandra Chai* Address Versova (via Andheri Station)

NASOOD, SIR SYED ROSS, NAWAB NASOOD JUNG Aligarh, Kt (1938) Vice-Chancellor, Aligarh Muslim University from 1929 b 1889 *Rdue* Al A O. College, Aligarh, and New College, Oxford Bar-at-Law, Imperial Education Service, Headmaster, Raza School, 1013, Senior Prof of History, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, 1916, Formerly Fellow of the University of Calcutta; Fellow of the Madras University, Member, Council of the Omsana University, Member, Court of the All-India Muslim Educational Conference, 1930, President, All-India Educational Conference, 1933 Publications: "Japan and its Educational System" Director of Public Instruction, Aligarh, U P Decan, 1916-1928 Address

MASTEB, ATREED, B A (Oxon), C I E. (1931) I C S, formerly Collector of Bombay and 12th Sep 1883 in Dorothy Amy Thorne *Educ* Ipsom Coll, Brasenose Coll, Oxford, Asses Coll, 1906, Municipal Commissioner, Amherst, 1917, Major I A R O, 1918, Secretary to Government of Bombay, General Department, 1925, Collector 1926, President of Civil and Military Reformation Committee, 1930 Publications: Articles in Numismatic, Numismatics and in Journal of Bombay M R S, on Gujarati Phonetics, articles in Local Self-Government Journal on Local Administration.

MATHEW, RICHARD B Met, M I B (India) Chief Technical Adviser, Tata Iron and Steel Co b 19 Sept 1886 *Educ* Royal Grammar School, Sheffield, Univ of Sheffield, Mappin Medalist 1908, Metallurgist Overseas Iron Works, Middlesbrough, 1907-1911, D, Dr, Metallurgical Research, War Office, Woolwich, 1911-1919 and 1926, Member of Govt Commission to investigate German and Luxembourg steel industry, 1919, Metallurgical Inspector to Govt of India, 1920-25 Technical Adviser, Indian Tariff Board, 1923-24, and 1926 Member of Iron

Government of Bombay 6 and June 1890 in Jernano d of Dr Hormusjee D Peshkar *Rede* Boys' High School, Alahabad, St Xavier's High School, Bombay, Galikwar and Elphinstone College, Bombay, Secretary to Sir Dorab Tata, 1912, Secretary, B G Baldoock Ltd, 1917, Secy, Messrs Australian & Eastern Co, Pty, Ltd, 1921, appointed Investigator, Labour Office, Government of Bombay 1923, and Asst. Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency, 1927, Organized as Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay, Presidency in April-May 1930 Secretary, Bombay Strikes Inquiry Committee (Rawce), Committee) from October 1928 to April 1929 Technical Adviser to Government Delegates and Secretary to Indian Delegation, 1929 Session, International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1931 On deputation to the British Ministry of Labour and the International Labour Office whilst on leave out of India, Hill, Bandra

MEHTA, KANAN BABADUR SIB BEZONTI DADA-BHOY, KT *Address*. Nagpur.

MEHTA, SIB CHINMALJI VISHNUNADAY, KT, K (SI) (1928), M A, LL B, Agent, Century Spinning and Manufacturing Co, Ltd, Bombay, and Provincial Scout Commissioner, 19 Jan 1881 in to Tashan Chaudhali Kamodwala, *Rede* St Xavier's College, Bombay, Captain, Hindu XI, elected to the Bombay Municipal Corporation in 1907, Chairman, Standing Committee, 1912, President of the Corporation, 1916 Elected to the Bombay Legislative Council by the Corporation in 1916, elected to the City Improvement Trust, 1918; Chairman of the Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1918 Elected to the Bombay Port Trust, 1920, Millowner and Chairman Bombay Provincial Co-operative Bank, Ltd, Director, The Bombay Steam Navigation Co, Ltd, The New India Assurance Co, Ltd, The Bombay Suburban Electric Supply, Ltd, Bombay Electric Supply, Ltd, The Member of the Executive Council of the Government, 1923-28 President, Indian Merchants' Chamber (1931) *Address* 12, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

MEHTA, DADANANATH HOMASJI, T. M. & S. O I (1932), Kamsar 1-Hind Gold Medal (1920), D (1932), Kamsar 1-Hind Gold Medal (1920), Kamsar Silver Medal, Baroda (1916) Associated serving Brother's Badge at the hands of His Majesty during the Centenary Celebrations of St John Ambulance Association, 1931 John 1934 Elected Sanitary Commissioner, John 6 1 Primary 1864 in to a Council in *Rede* St Xavier's College, North-East Malabar and the Grant School College, Bombay joined Baroda Medical Service, 1887, did inoculation work with Prof Haffkine, gave evidence on the value of inoculation before the Planning Commission, and his popularised St. John Ambulance work and Red Cross Work, all over Gujarat, Sind,

Kashanawad, Central India, Central Provinces, Punjab, N W Provinces, Rajputana, Khandesh, Deccan Thana District and 60 States by giving nearly 1,000 lectures earned for the Red Cross over Rs. 1,31,300 by cent. ing 3,400 members, and published 40 books on Ambulance, Nursing, Hygiene, Midwifery Red Cross, the Baroda Red Cross Branch delegate to the 15th International Red Cross Conference held at Tokyo in October 1933 Contributed Rs 20,000 for erection of Rams Ambulance Division Headquarters Building, Bombay *Address* Malabar, Nagaur

MEHTA, THE HON SIB HOMASJI MANOJJI, KT (1933), Governor, Reserve Bank 6 April 1871 in to Galiba, d of late Sir H B Wingar *Rede* at Bombay Started into as assistant in Bombay Mint in 1888 subsequently joined China Mint, Ltd, and started business on his own account in 1896, bought Victoria Mills in 1904, Jubilee Mills in 1914, Raja Gokaldas Mills in 1916, Gokarnar Mills in 1926 established Zenith Life Assurance Co in 1912 and British India General Insurance Co, Ltd in 1910 Established Rooms Electric Supply Co, Ltd in 1916, Nagauri B I Co, Ltd in 1922 and Nairi-Deodari Electric Supply Co, Ltd, in 1930, T B Prate Bombay Ltd and M P Ltd in 1910, Uganda Commercial Co, Ltd, in 1922 in East Africa Trading Elected to the Council of the Government of India in 1931, Member, Council of State from 1930, served on the Committee of Bihar and Orissa Separation 1931, Committee on Reserve Bank and Imperial Bank, 1933 Delegate Geneva Conference 1933 and 1934 *Address* "Bolla Vista", Redder Road, Bombay

MEHTA, JAWADAS M, M A, LL B, Bar-at-Law 6, 3 August 1884 in Malabar, d of Ranaji Laddaji *Rede* Jamnagar, Junagar, Bombay, London Member, Legislative Assembly, 1923-28 President, Accounts Staff Union, G I P Ry, President, All-India Railwaymen's Federation, Bom Transvaalwaymen's Union Bombay, Port Trust Employees' Union, All-India Railway Employees' Federation and Indian Trade Union Conference, President B B & O I Railway Employees' Union President, Maharashtra Provincial Congress Committee, 1921-28, President, Bombay Provincial Congress Committee, 1929-1930, President, Thana District Congress Committee, 1921-1932 and Member, All-India Congress Committee, 1921-1931 Indian Congress Committee of the Indian National Congress, 1920, Gen Secy, National Congress, 1920, Gen Secy, Trade Unionist Party, President, National Democratic Socialist Party, President, Indian Workers' League for the International Labour Conference 1934, Chairman, Asian Asiatic Co, Ltd *Address* Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

India Society for famine relief work, 1911-12. Hon. Manager, Bombay Central (Provisional) Co-operative Bank, Ltd. Bombay (1912-13) as Manager from 1915-1922 and Managing Director since 1922. Member, Editorial Board, Social Service Quarterly, Member, Bombay Co-operative Quarterly, Secretary, Social Service League, Bombay. Member, Executive Committee, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute, Bombay. Member, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute, Bombay. Managing Inquiry Committee 1929 Joint Hon. Secretary All-India Swadeshi Sangh 1933 Member Bombay Provincial Board, Harjari Sangh Publications. The Co-operative Movement (The Times of India Press), 1915. The Co-operative Movement in India (Secretaries of India Society pamphlet in collaboration with Mr. A. Venkata Subbaya), (Arva Bhavan Press), 1918 Studies in Co-operative Finance (Secretaries of India Society pamphlet), 1927. Address: Muzdabad, Andhra (B.B. & C.I. Highway).

MERCHANT, RAJMOH HUSOVJI, F.S.A., J.P., Asst. Commissioner of Income Tax, Bombay City & 12 Nov 1888. Educ. Bombay and London formerly, Professional Accountant and Auditor, Lecturer in Accounting, Systems, Coll. of Commerce and Economics, Off. Secretary and Chief Accountant, City of Bombay Improvement Trust, Examiners in Accounting to the Univ. of Bombay. Publications: "Elements of Book-keeping," "Company Secretary and Accountant," "Income-Tax in relation to accounts," "Indian Income-Tax Simplified," "Book-keeping Self-Teaching," etc. Address: 33-33, New Queen's Road, Bombay (4).

METCALFE, HARRIS ALFRED RAYCROFT, B.A. (Oxon), C.S.I. (1933), C.I.E. (1929), D.O. (1922), Indian Civil Service (Political Department), 27 Sept 1888 in Minor Joyce Foster. Educ. Christchurch and Christ Church, Oxford. Served in Punjab, 1908-1913, Eastern Political Department, 1913, Asst. Private Secretary to Viceroy, 1917-1917, served in N.W.F.P. 1917-1925, Commission to London, Kabul, 1925-1926, served in N.W.F.P. 1926-1930, Deputy Secretary to Government of India, 1930-1932, Foreign Secretary to Government of India, May 1932. Address: 10, Foreign and Political Department, New Delhi.

MIAN, ABDUL RASHID, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE B.A. (Punjab), M.A. (Canada), Temporary Judge, High Court, Lahore, 29 June 1896, m.d. of Khwab Khali, Bahawal, C.I.E. Educ. Central Model School and Forman Christian College, Lahore, and St. Christ's College, Cambridge. Practised at Lahore, 1913-1933, appointed Asst. Legal Remunerator, 1925, officiated as Govt. Advocate, Punjab in 1927, 1929 and 1930. Address: 10, Mian Road, Lahore.

MINVILLE, ERIC CHARLES, C.M.G. (1930), G.I.S. (1933), Private Secretary to H.E. The Viceroy, 31 January 1896 in, Dooty, 1 of G.C. & H. School, Cobham, Surrey, Educ. St. Paul's School, entered Chm. Consular

MEHTA, JAYSHANKAR KRISHNAJI, M.A., Secretary Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay, 1884 m to Mrs. Khandagavur. Educ. Washburn High School and Gujarat and Elphinstone College. Appointed Secretary, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1907, Services borrowed by the Indian Nations Board from Chamber and appointed Assistant Controller from September 1917 to November 1918, was nominated Adviser to the Representative of Employers for the third and 14th Sessions of the International Labour Conference, Geneva, in 1921 and 1930 after the Conference, he toured about Europe and England both times for seeing the Chambers of Commerce and other commercial organizations there on behalf of the Indian Merchants' Chamber; Secretary of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce from 1927-29 Vice-President of the Bombay Suburban District Congress Committee from 1921-25 and President of the Bombay Suburban District Congress Committee from 1925-29 Chairman of the Santa Cruz No-Hilled Area Committee 1927-1932. Address: "Krishna Kuti", Santa Cruz, B.B. & C.I. and Jehangir Wadia Building, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay.

MEHTA, DR. JIVRA NARAYAN, I.M. & S. (Bom), M.D. (Lond), M.B.C.P. (Lond), F.R.C.S. (Bom), Dean, Gordhandas Sunderdas Medical Coll. and King Edward Memorial Hospital, Bombay, 29 Aug 1887 m Miss Hansa Alambhaji Alkhat. Educ. High School education at Amreli, Baroda State, Grant Medical Coll. Bombay, and London Hospital. Formerly Asst. Director, Haile Clinical Laboratory, London Hospital, London, and Chief Medical Officer, Baroda State, Address: K.B. Hospital, Farel, Bombay.

MEHTA, SRI JAYSHANKAR NARAYAN, KR. (1922), C.S.I. (1919), M.A., I.L.P. 22 July 1868, Educ. Elphinstone College, Bombay, m Mrs. Harshad Kumari and on her death left Dhanvantri, 4 s and 2 d Professor of Logic and Philosophy and Law Lecturer, Baroda College, 1891-99. Priv. Sec. to H.M. Maharaja Gaekwar 1899-1906, Rev. Minister and First Counsellor, 1914-16, Divan of Baroda, 1916-27 and Prime Minister and Chief Counsellor Bikaner State 1927-1934, and continued to be Counsellor, Bikaner State Indian States Delegate to the Indian Round Table Conference 1930, 1931 and 1932, Member, Constituent Committee 1932, Indian States Delegate to the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reforms, 1883 attended the World Hygiene Conference, 1883 Publications: The Hind Rajasthani or Annals of Native States of India, Principles of Law of Evidence (in Gujarati), 3 Volumes. Address: 84, Nepolean Sea Road, Bombay.

MEHTA, VIKRAMJI TALUBRAI, B.A., Managing Director, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Bank, Ltd. 23 Oct 1891 m Mangla, d. Educ. New High School, Bombay, Elphinstone College, Bombay. Winner of Ellis Scholarship for highest number of marks in English at the College, Bombay. Examination Worked with Central Famine Relief Committee and Services of

Governor's Council, 1921-30, Temporary

presentative of India on Governing Body, Permanent Committee of International Labour Office, Geneva, and on International Committee of Intellectual Ind-
 stry of Agriculture, Rome, on Imperial
 Economic and Shipping Committees and on
 Imperial Agricultural Bureau, on Imperial
 Communications Advisory Committee and
 International Labour Regulations Committee
 on governing body of Imperial Institute and
 Imperial College of Science and Technology
 President of General Assembly of International
 Institute of Agriculture, 1932 Address

MITTER, THE HON SIR BROJENDRA LAL, KC
 (1932), KC S I (1932), MA, B.L., Barrister-
 at-Law, Member, Bengal Executive Council,
 1934 Formerly Advocate-General of Bengal
 and Law Member, Govt of India, 1928-34
 led Indian Delegation to the Assembly
 of the League of Nations in 1931 and 1933
 in 1935 was a daughter of Mr P N Bose,
 late R C Dutt, ICS Educ Presidency Col,
 Calcutta and Lincoln's Inn Address 5,
 Ostrum Street, Calcutta and Dajeeing

MITTER, RAJ BAHADUR KHASERAKHAR,
 MA (Gold Medals), b 1880 m.
 Subharna Educ Presidency College
 Calcutta Nominated Member, Legislative
 Assembly, 1922 and 1923, Member, Council
 of State, 1924 and 1925, Fellow (elected),
 Calcutta University (1922 to 1926), late
 editor of Bangya Sahitya Parishat Patrika
 Late Senior Professor of Philosophy
 Presidency College, Calcutta, Inspector of
 Schools Division (1928), University
 Calcutta University (1928), Head of
 the Department of Indian Vernaculars,
 Calcutta University, President, Literary
 Section, Calcutta University Institute
 Bengali on history, literature and fiction
 Address 72-1, Ballygunge Place, Calcutta

MIYAN, ASAD-UZZAR, MAJLIT, M L A,
 Hon Maste, Krishnaganj, Zamindar of Meehan,
 Gaon b 5 Jan 1883 m. Bibi S. Mian, d
 of late Mian Mian Ali of Meehan Educ
 at Meehan Member, Dist Board, Purnea,
 Bihar, and Member, Local Board, Krishnaganj,
 Purnea, Bihar. Address : Meehan, Purnea, Bihar.

MORDELY, DENKARD RICHARD, MAJOR-

(Retired), CB (1928), P S O (1916); Deputy
 Quarter Master General (India), b 17th
 Oct 1877 m. Hylda, d of late A C Willis,
 Esq of the Union Bank of Australia, Ltd,
 Educ Winchester College, Royal Military
 College, Sandhurst Staff College, Cranberry
 first Commission Unattached List for Indian
 Army, 1897, Major General, Indian Army,
 1910 served in 15th Bengal Infantry and 2nd
 Punjab Infantry (Punjab Frontier Force) now
 2nd Battalion, 13th Frontier Force Rifles,
 commanded 2nd Battalion, 66th Rifles,
 (Frontier Force) now 10th Battalion, 11th
 Frontier Force Rifles, Campaigns—N W
 Frontier of India, Waziristan 1901-03,
 Southland Field Force, 1903-04, Gibraltar,
 Great War, 1914-18, Lt Col, Gallipoli,
 Salonika Address Army Headquarters,
 Delhi and Simla

MOBERTLY, CHARLES NORT, C I E, A D, M Inst
 C E, General Manager, The Bombay Electric
 Supply & Tramways Co, Ltd b 24th Dec
 1880 m. Kate Charlotte, d of the late James
 Edward Rotwell of Dublin Educ Rugby
 School Technical Training The British Elec-
 trical Engineering Co, Ltd Longborough
 School of India, Leeds joined The B
 E S & T Co, Ltd, 1905, General Manager,
 1923 E, Lt Col Commanding Bombay
 Battalion I D E, employed on staff of Bom-
 bay Brigade, 1918-19 Address Electric
 House, Fort, Bombay

MODY, SIR HONESTI PAROSAW, MA (1904),
 LL B (1906), K B E (1935) Advocate, High
 Court, Bombay, b 23 Sept 1881, m. Jerni,
 d of K. V. N. Dabholkar Dubash Educ St
 Xavier's Coll, Bombay Mem of Bombay Mun
 Corp Chairman of its Standing Committee,
 1921-22, and President, 1923-24, Chairman,
 Bombay Millowners' Association, 1927-28,
 1929-30, 1930-31, 1931-32, 1932-33, 1933-34
 and 1934-35, President, Indian Merchants'
 Chamber, 1928-29, President, Employers'
 Federation of India, 1923 and 1924,
 Member, Legislative Assembly, Member,
 Round Table Conference and Reserve Bank
 Committee, Director, Tata Sons, Ltd
 Publications The Political Future of India
 (1908), Life of Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, (1921)
 Address Cumnab Hill, Bombay

MODNS, MAJOR-GENERAL ARTHUR WILLIAM
 HAYTON MAJ, CB (1923), C I G (1910),
 D S O (1917), Commander, Lahore District,
 since 1931 b 1879 m. 1st 1908, Agnes
 Sweetingham, d of late Theophilus, M D,
 2nd, 1910 Agnes Williams, d of late Captain
 A G Douglas, RN, and widow of Captain D
 A. G. Douglas, RN Educ Charterhouse,
 H M C Sandhurst served Somaliland
 War, (Mesopotamia), 1913-18, (deputy),
 D S O, Brevet Major, Brevet Lt Col,
 Iraq Iraq, 1920-21 (despatches) Address
 Lahore

MOHAYLAD RAJ NARSU KHAN, MAJ,
 Sir, KC, (1917), C S I (1923), Distinguished
 or Valiantly, b 25 June 1886 Educ
 Cotton Technical School, Lucknow, first
 non-official Chairman of the District Board,

Beta Bank Besides numerous other charitable contributions, the following are the most important:

This—Rs. 1,25,000 to the Prince of Wales Memorial Lucknow Rs. 70,000 to Sir Hartwell Buxit Technological Institute, Cawnpore and Rs. 1,00,000 to the Lucknow University. The Vice-Chancellor of the said Cross Society contributed Rs. 10,000 to Lady Ineding (wid. Wetherall) and Rs. 5,000 to Aligarh University for Malet's scholarship.

The President of the British Indian Association and Member of the Council and Executive Council of the Lucknow University, Honorary Magistrate and Honorary Municipal Commissioner, Allahabad and J.D.P. Bara Banki Tabanwaribad Palace Lucknow

MOHAMMAD YAKUB, VAKTI Sir, Kt.,
Lawyer b 27 Aug 1879, in Wabida
Begum, Idnur, Tehsil-e-Niswan, Lahore
(d in 1917). Educ M A O College, Aligarh,
First non-official Christian, Municipal Board,
Moradabad, Senior Vice-Chairman, District
Board, Trustee M A O College; Member,
Court of Muslim University, Aligarh. Presided
over All-India Muslim League Session 1927;
Member, Age of Consent Committee, 1928;
Member, Legal Assembly, Deputy President,
Legislative Assembly, President, Legislative
Assembly, 1930, Hon Secretary, All-India,
Muslim League Member, Indian Finance-
(Committee 1932 Address
pur, Moradabad

MOHAMMAD ZAFRULLA KHAN. (See under Zairulla Khan Chaudhary Muhammad).
 MOHAMMED YAKUB, MORTU, S.P. Kt (1929)

[illegible]

MONSIEUR FAVIN KHAN THE HON.
MR. B.A. C.I.E. (1981), M.L.A. of the
Aligarh University (1911), Barr-at-Law,
Member, Council of State (1934), Senior
Vice-Chairman, Municipal Board, Meerut, b
June 1883 in its a cousin. Educ. at Meerut
College, M.A. O. College, Aligarh and England.
Practising as Barrister in Meerut, since Dec
1914 acted as Secretary of U P War
Fund for Meerut District, Secretary, Y.M.C.A.
Fund's Secretary, Dist. War League was
elected a member of the Municipal Board,
Meerut, in 1916 and Vice-Chairman of
Local At., Elected Member, Legislative

Assembly, 1930 : Member of the Legislative Assembly, 1930-1932 Nominated a member of Leg Assembly to represent U. P. in 1927. Elected (Chairman, Municipal Board, June 1928 Elected Member, Leg Assembly from Agr. Division, 1930. Address : Jampur, N. Pan, Meerut.

MOLONEY, WILLIAM JOSEPH, General Manager for the East, Reuters Limited, and General Manager, Associated Press of India, 6 My 28, 1885 in Kathrine, elder daughter of Sir Francis Elliot, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., Educ Reformatory College, Limerick and Royal University of Ireland. Reuters' Correspondent in Tehran, Constantinople, Paris, Amsterdam, Copenhagen and Berlin. Address, Reuters Limited, Bombay.

LOOKERJEE, SIR KALAYAT, Zamindar of Uttarpara; b. April 1859. Member, Bengal Legislative Council since 1918; m. 1878; one s. Zfuc. Uttarpara School, Presidency College, Calcutta; Chairman of the Uttarpara Municipality since 1887, Chairman of the Bench of Hon Magistrates, 1888, Managing Committee of the British Indian Association, 1889; a Member of the Asiatic Society; a life Member of St. John's Ambulance Association; Member of the Provincial Advisory Committee for Indian Students, 1918, a Member of the National Liberal League, and Vice-President of the Bengal Humaneitarian Association, elected to Executive Committee of All-India Land-holders' Association, 1919. Address. Uttarpara, near Calcutta.

MOORE, SIR
K.C.B., K.C.V.O. (1922), M.I.E. (Hon.
Line), M.I.E. (Ind.), D.Sc. (Eng.), F.R.S. (B.
Civil Engng.; b. 1854 Educ. London
Mileinary Institution at Bhowanipour,
Calcutta; Senior Partner in Martin & Co.
and Barn & Co., Calcutta; Member of Indian
Industrial Commission, 1917-1918; Member
of Indian Railway Committee, 1920-1921;
President, Howrah Bridge Committee, 1921;
President, Bengal Retirement Committee,
1922; Member, All-India Retirement Com-
mission, 1922; Member, Indian Coal Com-
mission; Royal Commission on Indian
Currency and Finance, 1926, President of Board
of Trustees, Indian Museum, Calcutta; a Fellow
of Calcutta Univ., Member of the Governing Body
of Bengal Engineering College, Ex-President,
the Institution of Engineers (India) Member,
Governing Body of the School of Tropical
Medicine and Hygiene, President, Indian

Who's Who in India.

TUKERLI, MANKATHAN, NATH, THE HON. MR. JESTHON, M.A. (Cal.), B.L., Purnea Judge, High Court, Calcutta since 1924 to 28 Oct. 1874 in Sim Sureswar Dobi, eldest of Sir Gooroo Dass Banerjee Esq. Alibert College School and College, Presidency College, Calcutta, and Rajon College Law Classes Vakil, Calcutta High Court, from Dec 1896 to Dec 1923, acted as Chief Justice July—August 1931. Address - 8-1, Harsi Sheel, Calcutta.

TUKERLI, RAJ BHADUR PARSAN NATH C.B.E., M.A. (1902), Rai Bahadur (1920) C.B.E. (1933), Postmaster-General, Bengal and Assam to 22nd December, 1882 in Samir Bala nee Chatterjee Esq. Presidency College, Calcutta joined the Postal Department as Superintendent of Post Offices in 1904 Secretary, Postal Committee 1920, Alombic, Office Reorganisation Committee 1921, Secretary of the Indian Delegation to the International Postal Congress at Stockholm 1924, Assistant Director-General 1927, Member of the Indian Delegation to the International Postal Congress at London 1929, Deputy Director-General 1931, Deputed to Kabul to settle postal relationship with Afghanistan 1932, Postmaster-General, Alindas 1933, Behar and Orissa 1933-34, Leader of the Indian Delegation to the Imperial Postal Congress at Cairo 1934, Postmaster-General, Bengal and Assam 1934-35, Publications Several Departmental Publications Address 22, Alipore Road, Calcutta.

TUKERLI, BABU JOGENDRA NATH, M.A., B.L., Advocate, High Court, Calcutta, to 23rd June 1861 m. d. of late Babu Harinath Chatterjee, of the Provincial Legislative School, Esq. Presidency College and Hindu School, and Government Pethasala, Calcutta, Practised as pleader at Purnea, 1886-1903, was Municipal Commissioner, Vice-Chairman, Purnea Municipality, and Chairman altogether for about 18 years, Member of Bengal Legislative Council (1905-1907), practised Calcutta High Court from 1908, Prior of Hindu Law in the Calcutta Law College from 1909-1919, Chairman of Professors, Criminal Law in that Coll., 1918-19, Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23, Publications. (1) The Legislative Assembly and its work (brochure), (2) Discontentment in Social Legislation, (3) An address on Hindu music delivered at Indian Musical Salon held at Government House, Calcutta, on 7th Dec 1920 Address - 18, Pran Bhookerjee Road, Taliah, Calcutta.

TUKERLI, THE HON. SHURUT LOB-NAZH, Zamindar, having properties extending over many districts, an Executive of Uttarpara Municipality, Member of Council of State to April 1900 in British India, Devd of Rai Bahadur Ramdas Chatterjee, Member of Bankura Bdus High School and Presidency College Govt High School and Presidency College, Calcutta.

M. K. SINGH, B.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law,
ex M.L.C., ex Dy. President, U.P. Legisl.
Council, 6 14th Oct 1890 in mfe Alms
Hall (1919) Educ at Schools Farn and
Almon, in colleges at Allahabad, Benares,
Calcutta and Christ Church, Oxford, Hist.
Tours 1917 Called to Bar, Gray's Inn,
1918, returned to India, 1919, enrolled
Advocate, Allahabad High Court, 1919,
elected to U.P. Legislative Council for
Garwal, 1928 and 1929. Wrote to Hindi
and English periodicals and is an exponent and
critic of Indian Art Address "Vijaydharan"
Landsdowne, Dist Garwal, U.P.

M. K. SINGH, B.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law (1935)
Fellow of the Royal Society
of Arts London Development Com-
missioner, Madras State, 1935 b
Feb 1937 in Sun Aruna Devi, M.A.,
the Bezbaruah, niece of Bahadurshah
Tyre, the Poet One of Educ
St Xavier's and Presidency Colleges, Calcutta,
and Justice Coll Oxford Entered Baroda
Service, 1911 Conducted the Census of
Madras State 1921 Gave in three districts,
1922-1928 and 1932-34, Chief Secretary to
Government, 1929, Revenue Commissioner,
1929-30, Gen Commis-sioner for the Second
time, 1930-32 reorganised the Central Seco-
ndariat after the model of British India, 1919-
20 was largely instrumental in the reorga-
nisation of the local boards, as member of the
Madras University Commission was mainly
responsible for drafting its Report, 1926-27
in co-operation with the Madras Gold Medal
for exemplary services, 1934 Publications
(Constitutional Reforms in Madras, Censuses
at ports in 1921 and 1931 and other official
publications Address Alwaras, N Gujarat

M. K. SINGH, I.T. Govt., Sir B.A., I.T.B., b.
28 July 1921 in Simla Maini Dori
The (Allahabad) Victoria High School and
Munir Central Coll, Allahabad Practised at
Civil and Criminal Courts, joined Judicial Service
of United Provinces, 1902, was Assistant Judge
from 1914 to 1928, District and Sessions Judge
from 1914 to 1928, was deputed to Legisla-
tive Department of Government of India as
an officer on Special Duty, 1921-22, was
appointed to the office as Judge of High Court
in December 1923, was additional Judge
of the High Court, 1927-1929, was made
permanent Judge in March 1936, knighted
in June 1937, was appointed to officiate

lege, Calcutta. Elected Commissioner, Uttarpara Municipality in 1921, was Chairman for some time in 1924 and again in 1925; at present an executive of the Municipality, now an elected Member, Council of State, for West Bengal Constituency. Address "Rajendra Bhaban", Uttarpara, Bengal.

MUTMAN, JAT PARHOSAR, M.A., F.R.S., F.Z.S., Frot of Biology, Director, Zoological Laboratory, St Xavier's College, 26 March 1884. *Edue* St Xavier's College, Bombay, Professor, Bhamar, University of Bombay, Publications: "Annual Types for College Students" Address "Abhi Terrace", Lamington Road, Grant Road, Bombay.

MUTTIK, PROKANTA NATH, RAI BAHADUR, Bharata-Bani-Bhusan, M.H.S. 6 1876. *Edue* Hindu School, St Xavier's College of Calcutta. Exhibition 1923, Association Hon'ble Secy, Calcutta Houseowners' Association. Publications "The Mahabharata", as it was and ever shall be—A Critical Study, "The History of the Vajras of Bengal", "Origin of Caste", "India's Recovery", etc, also in Bengali several books including a History of Calcutta. Address 129, Cornwalls Street, Calcutta.

MUTHAZADDOLAH, NAWAB SHAH MOHAMMAD FAIZAL KHAN, K.C.O., K.O.R., O.B.I., Nawab of Raham, Minister, Jampur State 6 4 Nov 1861. Late Member of Supreme and Provincial Legislative Councils. Address Nawab's House, Jampur.

MUNINDA DEB, RAI NAWAB-KUTUB, M.T.C. of the Bahadura Raj 6 28 Aug 1874. *Edue* Hooghly College and St Xavier's College, Member of Bengal Legislative Council, Hon'ble Minister, Hooghly, Non-official Member, Hooghly District and Benarapore, Sub-Jal, Chairman, Bahadur, Municipality, Vice-President, All-India and President, All-Bengal Library Association; Chairman, Banarasi Co-operative Bank Ltd; Kayastha Co-operative Bank Ltd, Calcutta; Director, Tarakeswar Co-operative Sale and Supply Society Ltd, Member, Hooghly District Board, Hon'ble Secy, Historical Research Society, President, Banarasi Public Library, Working Men's Institute, Night Schools, Banarasi Girls' School, Banarasi Granthaya Parishat, Hooghly District Library Association, Kalighat Peepul Club and Library; B.M. Sporting Club, Vice-President, Hooghly Landholders Association, Kalighat People's Association; Chaturmah, Physical Institute, Editor; "Pathargar", late Editor, "The Eastern Voice", an English Daily; "The United Bengal", an English Weekly, "The Forum", a Bengali Monthly, Author of several historical works, Calcutta. Address . 21F, Rani Sankari Lane, Kalighat.

MUNSHI, KAVIAT. M.V.K.AT. B.A., LL.B., Advocate, Bombay High Court 6 20 Dec 1887. m. Tahirat Sheikh, an author of 1897 in Gujarati language, 1876. *Edue* Dalmi High School, Broach, graduated from

MUNSHI, MRS. LITAVAT KAVIAT. b. 1809. m. K. M. Munshi, Advocate, Secretary, Saltia Sanad, Bombay, Secretary, Salti Sewa Sangh, Bombay, joined Satyagraha, 1930, appointed Vice-President, Bombay War Council, 1930, arrested 4th July 1930, sentenced to three months imprisonment by the Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay; released at the end of October 1930, organized Bombay Sanadli Market, 1930, elected member, All-India Congress Committee, 1931, arrested in Jan 1932, released 26th Jan 1932, appointed Vice-President of the Central Censority Committee, Member of the Committee of Indian Merchants' Chamber, Secretaries, Congress Exhibition Committee, Publications short stories, "The Raman Gideli", "Kumardevi", "Khehro and his Likh", a collection of short stories and plays, etc. Address . 26, Ridge Road, Bombay.

MUNSHI, MRS. LITAVAT KAVIAT. b. 1809. m. K. M. Munshi, Advocate, Secretary, Salti Sewa Sangh, Bombay, joined Satyagraha, 1930, appointed Vice-President, Bombay War Council, 1930, arrested 4th July 1930, sentenced to three months imprisonment by the Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay; released at the end of October 1930, organized Bombay Sanadli Market, 1930, elected member, All-India Congress Committee, 1931, arrested in Jan 1932, released 26th Jan 1932, appointed Vice-President of the Central Censority Committee, Member of the Committee of Indian Merchants' Chamber, Secretaries, Congress Exhibition Committee, Publications short stories, "The Raman Gideli", "Kumardevi", "Khehro and his Likh", a collection of short stories and plays, etc. Address . 26, Ridge Road, Bombay.

MUNSHI, MRS. LITAVAT KAVIAT. b. 1809. m. K. M. Munshi, Advocate, Secretary, Salti Sewa Sangh, Bombay, joined Satyagraha, 1930, appointed Vice-President, Bombay War Council, 1930, arrested 4th July 1930, sentenced to three months imprisonment by the Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay; released at the end of October 1930, organized Bombay Sanadli Market, 1930, elected member, All-India Congress Committee, 1931, arrested in Jan 1932, released 26th Jan 1932, appointed Vice-President of the Central Censority Committee, Member of the Committee of Indian Merchants' Chamber, Secretaries, Congress Exhibition Committee, Publications short stories, "The Raman Gideli", "Kumardevi", "Khehro and his Likh", a collection of short stories and plays, etc. Address . 26, Ridge Road, Bombay.

Oyon, Scholar 1st Class 1st Year 1st Class
 Lectory Called to Bar, 1904, practiced
 Chancery Bar, 1904-1914, served in army
 mainly in India, Dec 1914-Sept 1919,
 Advocate, High Court, Lahore, 1919-1933,
 Administrator-General and Official Trustee
 Punjab 1923-1933, Govt Advocate, Punjab,
 1926-1933, Advocate Original Side, High
 Court Bombay, 1933. Address Royal
 Bombay Yacht Club, Bombay.

NORRIS, H. GABRIEL, J.P., M.I.E.T.
 F.R.A., Chief Accounts Officer, G.I.P.
 Railway, Bombay 6 18 Oct. 1883 in
 Miss Rickwood. *Btue* at Leeds Great
 Northern Railway (England) Great Indian
 Peninsula Railway, and Indian Railway
 Accounts Service. Address Victoria Terminus,
 Bombay.

NORRIS, ROBERT VICTOR, D.Sc. (London),
 M.Sc. (Manchester), F.R.C., Director, Tea
 Research Institute of Ceylon 24 October
 1887. *Btue* Ripon Grammar School and
 Univ. of Manchester. Research in
 Assam, Univ. of Manchester, 1900; Research
 Scholar, Institute of Revenue
 and Agriculture, 1910-11, Bell Memorial Fellow,
 1911-13, Physiological Laboratory, Manchester, U.P.
 1914; war service, Capt. I.A.R. attached
 Indian Agricultural Service. Agricultural
 Chemist for Govt of Madras, 1918-24, Prof.
 of Biochemistry, Indian Institute of Science,
 July 1924-1929. Publications: Numerous
 scientific papers in various technical journals.
 Address Tea Research Institute of Ceylon,
 St. Columbo, Talawakalle, Ceylon.

NOYCE, RAY, Sir, K.C.S.I. (1934),
 K.C. (1920), I.C.S. C.S.I. (1917), C.P.
 Council (Industries & Labour) 1931
 6 June 1878. *Btue* Salisbury Sch. and
 St. Catharine's Coll., Cambridge in
 Band of W.M. Knights of Later
 1902, served in
 Madras Under Sec. to Govt of India,
 Revenue and Agricultural Dept., 1912-16,
 Secretary, Indian Cotton Committee, 1917-18,
 Controller of Cotton Cloth, 1918-20, Vice-
 President and subsequently President, Indian
 Sugar Committee, 1919-20; Member, Burma
 Land Revenue Committee, 1920-21, Indian
 Trade Commissioner in London, 1922-23;
 Secy. to the Govt of Madras, Development
 Department, 1923-24, President, Indian Coal
 Committee, 1924-25, President, Indian Tariff
 Board (Cotton Textile Industry Inquiry),
 1926, Attached Officer and Asst. Commis-

NICHOLSON, Sir FREDERICK AUSTIN
 K.C.S.I. (1923), K.C.I.E. (1903), C.I.E.
 1st Jan 1917, 6 1846, m 1875
 of Rev. J
 Lecturer, three *Btue* Royal Medical
 College, Broom, Lincoln Coll., Oxford,
 Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1899, Member
 Victoria's Legislative Council 1897-99
 1900-02, reported on establishment of Agricul-
 tural Banks in India, 1893, Member of Revenue
 Commission, 1901, retired, 1904, Hon. Direc-
 tor of Fisheries, 1905-1918. Publications
 District Manual of Combaratore, Land and
 Agricultural Banks for India, Madras Fisher-
 ies Billions, Note on Agriculture in Japan.
 Address: Surrenden, Coonoor, Nilgiris.

NICHOLSON, ALFRED GERALD
 WILKINSON, V.C. (1901), C.D. (1919)
 C.M.S. (1916), K.I.E.S. (1925), Director of
 Medical Services 6 27 April 1875 in
 Indian Service, June 1867, d of T.W. Wilkin-
 son. Hasards Pak, Buirey *Btue* Victoria
 University of Manchester, M.B., Ch.B.
 (1869), D.P.I. (1907). Entered Army
 1898, S. African War 1898-1902, Despatches,
 promoted Captain, served in Egypt, W.
 Africa, India, Great War 1914-1919, A.D.
 M.S. of Division and D.M.S. of an army
 corps, D.M.S. Constantinople, Straits
 and Black Sea, 1919, Despatches six times
 C.M.G., Brevet of Colonel, C.B., D.M.S.,
 M.S., Eastern Command, 1925-1929, D.M.S.
 India from 1929. Address: Almy Head-
 quarters, India.

NILATISINGH, DEY GANON SOLOMON, B.A.
 Advocate and J.A. by birth 6 16 Feb 1852,
 in 1870 d of Subhadra Sundar Singh, a Hindu
 Chandi Das of Bhatnagar, three d
 Govt H.S., Lakhimpur, Canning
 Coll., Lucknow, ordained, 1881, Hon. Canon
 in All Saints' Cathedral, Allahabad, 1906
 Publications: An English Grammar for the
 use of the middle classes in Oudh, Transla-
 tion into English of the Urdu Entrance Course
 in English (two parts), Allahabad, 1873-75, Khilafat-ul-
 Urdi; Munajat Asi, Verses on the Coronation
 of King Edward VII and George V in Urdu
 Address: I. Badshahmandi, Alhambra
 Nilat, Alomthia, Bhowmalya, M.A.,
 Additional Judicial Commissioner,
 Nagpur and Vice-Chancellor, Nagpur Uni-
 versity 6 80th August 1886 in Dr Indira-
 Niyogi, M.B.B.S. (Bom) *Btue* at Nagpur
 Entrance to the Bar since 1910, M.B.A.,
 Municipal Commission, Nagpur, 1923-1928,
 Member, University Court, Nagpur, 1924-27,
 President, Day Union, 1928-30, Chairman,
 Local Board of Directors, Dhruv Insurance
 Co. 1928-1933, Social and Political Activities
 C.P.
 NOAD, CHARLES HAMPDEN, C.B., M.A.
 (Oxon), Barrister, High Court, Bombay
 6 25 Jan 1880 in Muriel Dorothy Or-
 Lwing, 1917. *Btue* Cheltenham, C.C.C.

freely with the Xmen in February 1934
Address The Residency, Aden

REILLY, HENRY D'ARCY CORNELIUS,
 Chief Judge of the High Court of
 Mysore, 1934, b 15th January 1876
in to Maryvale Florence Wilkinson
 (1903) *Edue* Merchant Taylors' School
 and Corpus Christi College, Oxford Indian
 Civil Service (Madras), arrived November
 1899, Registrar of the High Court,
 of Judicature at Madras 1910-1913, District
 and Sessions Judge 1916, Ag Judge, High
 Court of Judicature Madras, 1924, 1926,
 and 1926, Temp Adl Judge, 1927, p.c.,
 m.p. Judge, Bangalore
REARDON, MORGAN JAMES DOS, B.A.
 J.P. (Oct 1918), Dean, Vicariate of Bombay,
 (1929), Chaplain, St Teresa's Chapel and
 Principal, St Teresa's High School, since
 1904, b 9th August 1875 *Edue* at St
 Xavier's College and at the Peral Seminary,
 Kandy, Ceylon *Address* St Teresa's Chapel,
 Girgaum, Bombay

RESKILLIVALE, KRISHNAVARAO GOVIND, B.A
 (Allahabad), b April 1879 *Edue* St Xavier's
 High School, Bombay and Alun Central College
 Allahabad Revenue Training in Central
 Provinces, worked in Settlement Depart-
 ment as Assistant Settlement Officer in 1907-
 1919, then in Revenue Department as Asst
 (Collector), Budha (Collector), Director,
 Land Records, then as Settlement Officer
 Was awarded the title of Musahib-i-Khas
 Bahadur at the Birthday Durbar of H. H.
 The Maharaja Yeshwant Rao Holkar II,
 in 1939 Revenue Minister, Holkar State,
 Indore City
 Noted January 1933 *Address* Mandlaipur

RICHMOND, ROBERT DAVID, C.I.E (June
 1932), Chief Conservator of Forests, Madras
 b 30 Oct 1878 *m* Alice, only d of Sir
 James Davy, K.C.B. *Edue* Royal Indian
 Engineering College, Coopers Hall joined
 Indian Forest Service, Nov 1891, served in
 various capacities including Principal, Madras
 Forest College, Asst Inspector-General of
 Forests to Government of India, 1910-1922,
 Conservator of Forests, 1923, Chief Conser-
 vator of Forests, 1927, Madras Services
 Commissioned, Madras Club,
 Madras

RIDLAND JONES GABRIEL, Secretary and
 Treasurer, Imperial Bank of India, Bombay
 b 22 Aug 1884 *m* Margaret Dalry Murray
Edue George Watson's College, Edinburgh;
 Edinburgh joined Bank of Scotland,
 appointed Secretary and Treasurer, Imperial
 Bank of India, Bombay, 1926 *Address*
 "Dunedin," Alibair Hill, Bombay

RIVER-CARLAC, HERBERT GORDON, b
 13 Feb 1892 3rd son of John Thurlton
 Rivett-Carnac, retired D.L.G. of Police
 Xmen in December 1933 and concluded a

Address Railway Board, Government of
 India, Delhi and Simla

AY, SRI KROVITA CHANDRA, K.C.I.E, D.Sc
 (Edin), Ph.D. (Cal), F.R.S. Prof of Chemistry,
 Univ Coll of So, Calcutta, b Bengal, 1891,
Edue Calcutta, Edinburgh Univ Graduated
 at Edinburgh, D.Sc 1887, Hon Ph.D., Calcutta
 President, National Council of Education,
 India 1908, Hon D.Sc, Durham Univ, 1912
 Indian Chemical Society, Founder and
 Director, Bengal Chemical and Pharmaceutical
 Co Works, Ltd *Address* College of Science,
 Calcutta

EADYMONY, SRI JERANGIE COMARJI
 JERANGI, see JERANGI

EDDI, SRI YENKAYA KUNKA (See under
 YENKAYA KUNKA EDDI)

EDD, SRI STAVLEY, Kt, K.B.E, J.L.D.
 (Glasgow) Editor, *The Times of India*,
 Bombay, 1907-1923, b Bristol, 1872 *m*
 1901, Lillian, d of John Humphrey of Bom-
 bay joined stn, *Times of India*, 1897,
 SP Correspondent, *Times of India* and *Daily*
Chronicle editorial fame-districts of India,
 1900, tour of Prince and Princess of Wales
 in India, 1905-06, Amr's visit to India,
 1907, and Persian Gulf, 1907, Jt Hon Sec
 Bombay Press, King Edward and Lord
 Hardinge Memorials, Rt Lt-Col Command
 Bombay L.I. Represented Western India
 at Imp Press Confc, 1909. *Address*
The Times of India, Embassy Square House,
 Fleet Street, London, E.C.4

EDD, ROBERT NEIL, M.A (Oxon), C.S.I. (1934)
 C.I.E 1930, Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1934
 Member of Executive Council, Madras, since
 1934 b 16 July 1884 *m* Amy Helen Disney
 1909 *Edue* Malvern and Brasenose Coll,
 Oxford I.C.S. 1906, arrived in India 1907,
 Asst Magte, Bengal Under-Secretary,
 1911-14, I.A.R.O. 1916-19, Magte and
 Collector 1920-27, Secretary, Agriculture
 and Industries Department, 1927-28, Com-
 missioner, Rajshahi Division, 1930, Off
 Chief Secretary, 1930-31, Member of Execu-
 tive Council Bengal from Jan 1934 *Address*
 Victoria Buildings, Calcutta, The Warren,
 Thepines, Suffolk

ELLY, FLORE COLOMIA SIBERYANDANON,
 K.C.I.G. (1934) C.I.D. (1926), O.M.I. (1918),
 Chief Commissioner, Resident and Commander-
 in-Chief, Aden b 23th March 1882 *Edue*
 Bedford School joined Indian Army, 1902,
 sorted in India and Aden in various appoint-
 ments Officerd as Political Resident,
 Aden, 1925 and 1926, and as Resident and
 Commander-in-Chief, Aden, in 1930 and 1931
 Appointed as Resident and Commander-in-
 Chief in March 1931, and as Chief Com-
 missioner, Aden, in April 1932 Appointed
 as His Majesty's Commissioner and Pleni-
 potentary to His Majesty the King of the

Who's Who in India

tion, Government of India, to end of 1925
 Political Secretary to Representatives of the
 Indian Princes at the League of Nations 1925
 and Subsequent Delegate to the Assembly
 Adviser to Indian States Delegation, Round
 Table Conference Publications, History of
 the Abbey of S Albans, Four Lectures on the
 Handling of Historical Material, Students
 Supplement to the *Annals of the British*
 Company and Crown, India in 1917-18,
 India in 1919 India in 1920 India in
 1921-22, India in 1922-23, 23-24, 1924-25,
 General Editor, "India of Today" and India's
 Parliament, Volumes 1, 2, 3, 2nd Address The
 Palace, Jammun, Kashiward

RUSSELL, Lt Col
 ALXANDER JAMES
 HUTTONSON, (C)P.E. M.A. M.D. CH.B.
 D.P.H., D.T.M., Public Health Commis-
 sioner with the Government of India, b
 30th August, 1882 in Jesse Waddell Nur
 tery, Cambridge University, School of Tropical
 Medicine, Liverpool Military Service, 1907-12
 Editor of Hygiene, Medical College, Madras,
 1913-17, Director of Public Health, Madras,
 1921-28, Royal Commission on Labour,
 Medical Assessor, 1929-31, Omg Public Health
 Commissioner with Government of India, 1932
 Publications McMillan's Sanitary Handbook
 for India, 1917, 6th and 6th Editions 1923,
 Various publications on Cholera
 Delhi and Simla

RUSSELL, Sir GOWAN, Kt (1932), B.Sc.
 A.M. Inst C.E., M. Inst E. (India), J.P.,
 Chief Commissioner of Railways, Hon.
 Col., N.W. Ry. Regiment, Member of
 the Council of State, of the Roy
 John and Mrs Russell, Lochmiller, Scotland,
 b 19th Jan 1887 in Florence Hoggie,
 Kilsyth, Scotland
 Reside at Glasgow
 Academy and Glasgow University, graduated
 B.Sc. in 1907 Boreed Engineering Appren-
 ticeship with Messrs Niven and Laddan,
 Glasgow, in 1907-1910,
 and then joined the staff of the North British
 Railway. Appointed Asstt. Engineer, Great
 Indian Peninsula Railway 1913, Resident
 Engineer 1919, Asst Secretary to the Agent
 1920, Deputy Agent Junior 1922, Controller
 of Bores 1923, services lent to the Uddi
 and Kolihalli Railway 1925, Deputy
 Agent Senior 1925, appointed offg. Agent,
 Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 1930
 Engineering, Railway Board 1928, Chief
 Commissioner of Railways, 1929 President
 of the Institution of Engineers (India)
 1934 34 Address
 Simla and Delhi

MONTAGUE, SOMERSET ALXANDER, J.P.
 M.N.S.A. (London), Journalist and Technical
 Adviser b 21 January 1865 in 7th Jan
 1863, Dharmraj M. Dharma Educ. - Port
 High School, Bombay and received practical
 training as mill manager in local cotton mills
 Founder and Editor of the Indian Textile
 Journal since 1900
 Publications "Electricity in India" (1917)
 "Bombay Industries with an Introducti-

tion by H. B. Leslie Wilson, Governor of
 Bombay, "Men and Women of India" (1908),
 published under the patronage of the
 Viceroy of India and
 the Government of Bombay and Madras joint
 Editor, *Indian Journal of Social and Sanitary*
Record (1900 to 1903) Member of the first
 Managing Committee of the "Bombay
 Sanitary Association" inaugurated by H. B.
 for the Government in 1903. Nominated on the
 Board of Land and Municipalities by Government
 in 1918 Author of several published inven-
 tions and Director of the Public Department
 of M.C. Corporation & Co since 1890 Address
 7erry Cross Road, Bandra, Bombay

SABNIS, HAO BAHADUR SIB RAOBHARATMAO
 V.Kt (1896), B.A., C.I.E. b 1 April 1857
 Educ. Rajaram H.S., Kolhapur, Elphinstone
 Coll., Bombay Inst. Educ. Dep., held offices
 of Junior Chums and Ch. Rev Officer
 Kolhapur, Diwan, Kolhapur State, 1898,
 1925, retired (1926) Non Judge of the
 Supreme Court of Judicature, Kolhapur 1931,
 Fellow of Royal Society of Arts, Asstt. Br.
 Society, Bombay Br., President of the
 Lakshmi Pradhyat (District Local Board),
 Kolhapur, Chairman of the Board of Director,
 of the Bank of Kolhapur Ltd Chairman of
 the Board of Directors of the Kolhapur Sugar
 Mills Ltd Address Kolhapur, Shahuapur

SACHSE, WERDARIO ATXANDER, B.A. (C)Inst E.
 M.A. (1935) C.I.E. (1930), Member, Board of
 Revenue Bengal b 27 Feb 1878 in Hilda
 Margaret, Gately, d of Joseph Gately, M.C.
 Alargate, Gately, d of Joseph Gately, M.C.
 Cambridge Settlement Officer, Mythenstigh
 and Director, Land Records, and Rev Seco-
 tary Publications "Mythenstigh District
 Gazetteer" Address C/o Gindlay & Co.,
 Calcutta

SADIQ HASAN, S., B.A., B.Sc. - Law,
 Member, Local Assembly 1928-29, K.B.
 1930-31 President of Messrs K.B.
 Shakk Gulam Hussain & Co, Calcutta
 Manufacturers b 1888 Educ Govt College
 Anjume and Gray's Inn, London, President,
 Muslim Education and political movements,
 any Club, Amritsar, India active interest in
 President, Punjab and N.W. Province Post
 Office and M.S. Association, 1921-23,
 Resided over All-India Muslim Kashmire
 Conference, 1928 For several years
 Chairman, Health and Education Committee
 of Amritsar Municipality Chairman, Board
 of Directors, Muslim Bank, Lahore Address
 Amritsar

SAGARDA, Dr. REV KANAYAR, Vicar Apost.
 of Trima since 1909 b. Lodi, 1800 Address
 Lodi of Katoen Burma and Trima Mission
 Tounngoo, Burma

SALIA, MEGHABAD, D.Sc., B.S., F.A.S.I.
 List P, Head of Physics Dept., All India
 Univ. b. 1894 at Secitah in India
 Educ. Dacca and Presidency College, Calcutta
 Lecturer in Physics and Applied Mathematics
 Calcutta Univ., 1916, Trained Roy
 Scholar, 1918, worked at the Imperial

SAYID ABDUL RAHMAN, KEMAR BAHADUR,
M.L.C., Retired Dy. Commissioner, Akola,
(Bharat) 6 1804, Edue. B.Sc. Francis de Sales,
Nagpur Supdt. Commissioners' Office,
Hoshangabad, Karm Asstt. Commissioner,
Dy Commissioner, Akola (Bharat), 1919-1921,
Dy Commissioner, Yeomul, Per Asstt to
Commissioner of Bharat in C. P. Commission,
Official Receiver, Bharat, President of many
Municipalities and District Boards, Bharat,
Akola. Address Akola.

SAKIALTVALA, Sir NOWROJI BAPUJI, Kt (1933), O I E (1923), J P, Chairman, Tata Board. Was co-opted a member of the Civil Justice Committee. *Address* Patna

Mrs. L. M. Loomis, 8 Baffins, *Reside* at
 N.Y., Ltd 6 to Sept 1870, m. Goodale, d. of
 St. Xavier's College Chairman Bombay
 Millowners' Association 1816, Employers'
 Delegate from India to the International
 Labour Conference, Geneva, 1921, Member,
 Legislative Assembly, representing Bombay
 Millowners' Association, 1922. *Address*
 Bombay House, Fort, Bombay

SARLATVALA, SORABJI DONAJI, M L C, B A,
J P Director, Tata Sons Ltd b March 1970,
m Member of 1st Major Division, I M
S, Educ at St Xavier's College, Chaurani,
Bombay Millowners' Association, 1924 Vice-
President, Indian Central Cotton Committee
1929-80 and 1980-81, Bharat Akshat
Bombay Leg Council, representing Millowners
Association, Bombay (Aug 1934) Publicist and
History of Millowners' Association Bombay
Literary, Bombay House, Fort, Bombay

SATPHE, WILSON and B. A. Oron 1910,
 at A, 1933, ILS, Princeton, Dily (colony
 Indore b 10 May 1857 *Liliu* (the common
 College and Hertford College Oxford district
 at Wuchester College, 1911 in Indian
 Educational Service since 1913 Genl War
 Lieut (Capt), 17th Bengal Cavalry,
 Jessop mut 1917-19, Asst-Mst Mstr at
 Aitchison College, Lahore, 1920-23 *addis*
 Dily College, Imbora, Central India

SAMUEL DAVIS, LABORER—see LATERNAH

SAMUEL LAM KHAM, M, B A, L B, High Court Judge Vice-President, Government Press Employees' Union, (1930-1936) M A O College, Almyth Worked on many in re colonial

University, Allahabad
Address : Physics Laboratories, Allahabad
of Relativity, two books on Heat
American Author of a treatise on the Theory
Scientific papers, English, Continental and
search Laboratory in Bengal, and numerous
 pamphlet, "On the Need of a Hydrostatic Re-
1927, New X-rays, 1932, Author of a
in relation of Complex Spectra of Compounds,
Theory of Thermal Ionization and Physical
1918, Selective Radiation Phenomena, 1918,
On a new element of the Theory of Radiation,
1918, On a new element of the Theory of Radiation,
the Fundamental Law of Electric Action
Sugar Works Ltd., India, Director, and Diplo-
Science Congress, 1931, Director, and Diplo-
Institute of Science, President, Indian
Association, Member of Council, Indian
Government, India, Indian Research Fund
of Science, Bangalore (1930), Member of
national Working Committee, Indian Institute of
Allahabad Univ, 1931, Member, Quinquen-
nial, 1931, Dean of Science Faculty,
Academy of Sciences and elected first Pre-
sident, 1931, Founder, founded U P
Astric Soc of Bengal, 1930, Fellow,
at Volta Center, Com 1927, Fellow,
of Roy Soc (1927), Indian Representative
Foundation Fellow of Inst of Physics, Fellow
Life Member of Astronomical Society of France
23, Prof of Physics, Allahabad Univ 1923,
Richard Prof of Physics, Calcutta Univ 1921-
of Science, London, 1921-22 and in Berlin

SAHNI, R.V. BAHADUR DAVI RAY, M.A.
(1903), C.I.E. (1935), b 1 Dec 1879 Ludhiana University, Lahore Lecturer in Punjab University 1903 & appointed Govt. Assistant Superintendent, Archaeological Survey 1910, Curator, Provincial Museum, Lucknow, 1912, Superintendent of Archaeology in Khairabad (on deputation) 1913-17, Superintendent Archaeological Survey of India 1917-1925, Deputy Director-General of Archaeology 1925-1930, Director-General of Archaeology in India 1931. *Publications* (1) Catalogue of Museum of Archaeology at Samrat, (2) Guide to the Buddhist Ruins of Samrat, (3) contributed two chapters to Sir John Marshall's *Alcophorodora* and the Indus Civilization, (1) Annual Report, Archaeological Survey of India for 1925-30, and annual reports of Circle Offices, (2) contributed in my articles to publications of the Museum and of this journal (6) concerned many important sites in India and their significance in the evolution of Harappan civilisation. No 11, Abbe Road, New Delhi

[illegible]

Member of the Reformers Enquiry Committee, 1921. *Publications* - has contributed frequently to the press on political, social and legal topics, edited the *Alibabad Law Journal*, 1904-1917. Address - 19, Albert Road, Alibabad.

SARDAR GHOS BAKSH KHAN-BALSIANI
 SIR, K.O.E., Premier, Chief of Sarawan,
 Baluchistan.

SARKAR, SM, JADUSATE, KT, CIE, NLO

(left) 1926-27, M.A. (English) and Gold Medalist, Premchand Roychand Scholar (1927-28), Hon. Member of Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain (1923), Member of the India First Record Comm. Sir James Campbell Gold Medalist (Bomb. Univ. 1926-28, Indian Educational Services (ret.) 10 December 1870 in Raddumbi Chandharn Lduc Presidency Coll., Cal.

edited some time Unit Professor of
 Modern Indian History, Hindu University
 Madras University (1928) Reader in
 Indian History, Fata University (1920-1922
 and 1932) *Publications* India of Aurangzeb,
 Statistics, Topography and Roads (1901),
 History of Aurangzeb, 5 Vols, Shrivari and
 His Times, Mughal Administration, Studies
 in Mughal India, Anecdotes of Aurangzeb,
 Chattranya. His Life and Teachings, Eco-no-
 mics of British India, Through the
 Ages, Fall of the Mughal Empire, 1, 2 Vols
 Edited and continued W. Irvine, Later
 Mirghat 2 Vols *Addresses* Lucknow Road
 Darjeeling

SABITA, S K, B A, B L, Vaid 6 & April 1880, Educ S P G College, Trichunopoly. Founded the *Wednesday Review* in 1905 and Assst. Editor till 1917. Assst Editor and lead- der writer, *Indu Prakash*, Bombay. 1906-07, Local writer to the *Malabar Standard* in 1911. 12, Witness, Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance (1919) and Indian Tax- ation Inquiry Committee (1924), and Special Public Prosecutor to the Pudu Kotah Darbar in charge of the Conspiracy case in 1931 and 1932. *Publications* "A Note on the Rise of Prices in India," "The Exchange Crisis," "Tortoise Stray," "Economic Nationalism" and "Papers on Currency and the Reserve Bank for India." *Address*. Teppakulam, P O Trichunopoly.

ARVINDHARJ, Sri DEVI Prasad, Kt.,
C.I.D. B.D. M.A. B.L. (Calcutta), I.L.D.
(Albendun), I.L.D. (St. Andrews), Sutarana
(Nivadrip), Vidyaratnakar (Dacca), Vidyā
Bansingram (Bhatnagar), Sudharak
(Benares), Jnan Sinha (Furr) Advocate and
Solicitor, Fellow, Calcutta University,
Jenore, Dacca and Delhi Universities, Dean,
Faculty of Law and late Vice-Chan and Dean,
Faculty of Arts, Calcutta Univ. ; late Mem
of Council of State, late member of Indian
Legislative Assembly, and Bengal Council of
1862 m. 1883, Magendharanand 2 s Kirmal
(B.L.) and Nichel (M.B.) and 3d. M.L.M.,
Nihar and Nitra. *Edue.* : Hamsneshwar-
pore, Sanskrit College, Haro and Howrah
Schools Presidency College, Calcutta. For

CP, 1920-21, Secy, Anjuman
Committee, CP, P. Roy, K. K. K.
nurses during the war, Secy,
High School, Nagpur (1923), and 1931-32
and its General Secretary since 1932. Vice-
President, Nagpur Municipal Committee,
1921-23, one of the secretaries of the All-
India Congress Committee and the Central
Kulast Committee from 1921-23, non-co-
operated from practice from 1947-23 a
member of Swami party, Legisla-
tive Assembly, 1924-26. Whip of the Swami
Party in the Legislative Assembly, 1925, and
a Member of the Executive Committee of the
Anjuman High School Institute since 1915
Hon Secretary, District Bar Association,
Nagpur 1927-32. President, Railway Mil-
Service Association (Branch) Nagpur, (1926)
President, Nagpur Municipal Committee,
since 1932. Address Sadar Bazar, Nagpur,
CP

SAJJITHAN, H. H. MANARAJA STR DRS SINGH
DEO, MANARAJA OF, K C L E 6. 8 NOV.
1863. S 1866. Address . Sambar, Bundel-
band
SANKARABATHALA ARYAN, S, M A
B.L., Advocate, Tinnevely, 6 14 May 1896,
Educ . Presidency Coll, Madras Law Colleges,
Madras and Tiruvandur Graduated in Arts
1920, and in Law 1923 in Rukmaniammal
Zamindar of Ranganudi, Tanj Dist (1920)
and Rayana- District Proprietor
of Kattar Estate, Tinnevely Dist
Winner of S P C A Gold Medal 1920 Special
Lecturer Elementary Teachers' Confc at
Tinnevely, 1923 Chairman of the Reception
Committee, first Tinnevely Postmen's Confc,
1924 Wines, Tamil University Committee,
1927, author of several articles on Meta-
physics, Law and Education, as "Do finite
Individuals have a Substantive or an Adjecti-
val Mode of Being," "Maintenance to a
widow—Quantum and Style of Life," "The
Necessity for a Conscience Clause in Indian
Universities Act," Madras Hindu Religious
Endowments Act, and other connections of
the legislature Address . Zamindar of
Sankarabagar, Vannarpet, Tinnevely

SAHIB, SIR T. BHABHA, M.A., LL.D., K.C.S.I.
(1923). P.C. & B. Dec. 1875. Educ. Agr.
College, Agr. Advocate, High Court, Alha-
bad, 1896-1926; Member, U.P. Leg. Coun-
cil, 1913-16; Member, Imperial Leg. Coun-
cil, 1916-20; Member, Lord Southborough's
Functions Committee, 1918-1919; Member
of Moderate Deputation and appeared as a
witness before Lord Selborne's Committee
in London, 1919; Member, All-India Congress
Committee (1906-1917); Presdt., U.P. Poli-
tical Conference, 1914; Presdt. U.P. Social Confe-
rence (1913); Presdt., U.P. Allahabad Univ., Mem-
ber, Boyers Hindu University Court and Se-
nate and Syndicate; Law Member of the
Governor-General's Executive Council, re-
tired (1927). Member of the Imperial Con-
ference in London (1923); presided over the
All India Liberal Federation, Poona (1923).

Army Headquarters, India 921-24, Metro-
politan's Chaplain, Calcutta, 1925-1928,
Bishop of Lucknow 1928 *Address* Bishops'
Lodge, Alhababad

SAUNDERS, GEORGE MAOAN, D.S.O., OBE
Director, Military Operations, Army Head-
quarters, India 6 Nov 1931, in Major's
H.M. 4, Woolwich, India, 1907, Royal
Artillery, 1903; Lieut, Indian Army, 1907,
Capt, 1912, Major, 1918, Bt.-Lieut.-Col.,
1919, Col 1923, in India till 1914, except for
a year in Russia, Staff Capt, and Royal Naval
Brigade, 1914, operations in Belgium and
siege of Antwerp, Operations in Gallipoli,
1915, from 1st landing to evacuation, G.S.O.
3 in Egypt to March 1916, Brig.-Major, Eastern
Persian Field Force to April 1917, Opera-
tions in Mesopotamia, 1917-18, G.S.O.
2 and Intelligence Officer with Major-Gen.
Dunsterforce's Mission through N.W. Persia
to the Caucasus, 1918, G.S.O. 1, Caucasus
Section, G.H.Q. British Salonika Force, 1919
(wounded), despatches five times, D.S.O.
Bt.-Lt.-Col.), P.S.C. Camberley, 1920,
Military Attaché, Tehran, Persia, 1921-22,
D.D.M.I., Army Headquarters, 1924-25
Address General Staff, Army Headquarters
(India), Simla

SAWANTWADI, MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS RAJAP
SUN SHI KUN SHI YANT THONGSHI, BHALVUT,
C.S.I. (1934) 6 Aug 20th
1937 in Persia Shri Lakshmi Devi of
Bhoda, a Xavari Bhavim Sawant Kide
War at Mesopotamia from Oct 1917 to
March 1919, attached as Hon. Officer to 4/5th
Bavarian Light Infantry *Address*
Sawantwadi

SAVED MOHAMMAD, SHAHZADA SIR, MAJOR SHAH
Nawab, Member, Council of State, elected
Member of the Punjab Legislative Council at
the age of 25, elected twice as member of the
Council of State, a delegate to the Round
Table Conference, *Address* Jalal, Pur Sharif,
Jhelum District, Punjab

SCHORFIELD, ALFRED, B.Sc. (Lond.), His
Majesty's Trade Commissioner, Calcutta, 6
1889 in Gladys Elcomor, d of A. E. Hawley,
Burton-on-Trent *Address* Manchester School
of Commerce, and University of London in
Economics, London County Council, 1917-14,
served with British Expeditionary Force,
1913-18, Lecturer in Economics etc to Ban-
kers' Institute, 1919-20 appointed to Indian
Revenue Department, London, 1921-23 and
Department of Overseas Trade, 1923-1930
'Publications' 'Route of Commerce' and
Club, Calcutta

SCOTT, JOHN GORDON (GARET), M.A. (Cantab),
Medieval and Modern Languages, Tripos
(1911), Principal, Prince of Wales's Royal
Indian Military College, Dehra Dun
14 March 1888 in to India, Youngest
d of Colonel J. Scully, Educ. Manchester
College, and Pembroke College, Cambridge
Appointed to the Chiefs College Branch of
the Indian Educational Service in 1912,

several years, Member of Mun Corps of
Calcutta, Member of Imp. Fab. Vice-President,
Calcutta Rotary Club, W. M. Lodge anchor,
and Hope Trustee, Imp. Museum, Pres.
various literary, social and philanthropic
societies and President Calcutta Licensing
Board, Calcutta Temperance Federation,
Anti-Smoking Society "The Refuge", Calcutta
University Corps Committee Incorporated
Society of Law, Vice-President, Indian as con-
stitution and National Council of Education,
Sahitya Parishad, Asiatic Society, and
President, Calcutta University Institute,
Late Mem. Jyotirmoy Com (Lond) and Paddison
Com (South Africa) Representative of India
Government on the League of Nations,
India has travelled much all over
Europe and South Africa, twice
represented Calcutta Univ at the Congress of
the Univ of the Empire, held in England
Hon. Member, Bombay Incorporated Law
Society, Chairman, Bharti Insurance Co. Ltd.,
Calcutta, Chairman, Bharti Cotton Mills,
Calcutta, *Publications* "Notes and Remarks,"
"Three Months in Europe," "Fifteenth Years,"
Travels in South Africa, Bharati Rakha
Festivals in Geneva, Switzerland, Thoughts
and Problems, Phases in Public Life
Address Prasadpur, 20, Suri Lane, Calcutta

SASTRI, THE RT HON V S SUNDARAI,
P.C. 1921, C.I.E. (1930) 6 Sept 22, 1899
Date at Kumthakuram Started life as a
School-master, joined the Services of India
Society in 1907, succeeded the late Mr G. K.
Gokhale in its Presidency in 1915, Member,
Madras Legislative Council, 1913-16, elected
Mr. Kington during his tour in India in 1918,
Member, Southborough Committee, gave evi-
dence before Joint Parliamentary Committee on
on Indian Reform Bill, 1919, served on
Indian Railway Committee, represented
India at Imperial Conference, 1921, and at the
meeting of the League of Nations, at Geneva
and the Washington Council on the reduction
of naval armaments during the same year
Appointed Privy Counsellor and received
the freedom of the City of London, 1921,
undertook a tour in the Dominions as the re-
presentative of Government of India, 1922;
elected Member, Council of State, 1921
delivered the Karmala Lectures to the Calcutta
University on the "Rights and Duties of
Indian Citizens" since published in book
form High Commissioner for India in South
Africa 1927-29, Member, Royal Commission
on Labour 1929 *Address* Servants of India
Society, Bombay or Poona

SAUNDERS, THE RIGHT REV CHARLES JOHN
GODFREY, M.A., Bishop of Lucknow 6 Feb
1888 in Mildred Robinson Hobbie-
white, one s and two daughters
Merchant Taylor's School, London, St. John
College, Orono, Cuddesdon
College, Orono Decem 1910, First 1911,
Diocese of Lucknow, S.P.C.K. Mission, Can-
pore, 1911-16, Indian Ecclesiastical Labou-
ment, Chaplain, 1917, at Moorkee, 17, Can-
pore, 1918, Chakrata, 1921, Staff Chaplain,

Assistant Master, Daily College, Indore, 1912,
Principal, Prince of Wales's Royal Indian
Military College, October 1921 *Address*
Prince of Wales's R I M College, Dehra Dun,
U P

SCARFORD, ARTHUR EDGAR, BA (1908) and Bachelor, Dublin University (1902) High Court Judge, Dublin 6 24 January 1881 in Judicial Gazette Howwood Llanu Chongo- was Wood College and Trinity College, Dublin, Justice and Sessions Judge, Bilmar and Orona, 1912-1922, Registrar, High Court, Tarna, Judicial Secretary and Local Commissioner, to Government of Bihar, Address Patna, Bihar

SEAL, SIR BRAJENDRANATH, KT, MA, PH.

GREAT, SIR BRADHDANATH, Kt, M A, Ph.
 D, Sc, Vice-Chancellor,
 Alwar, 1920-30, Univ of Bengal and
 Bihar, Secy, Calcutta Univ, 1914-1930
 was a Member of Council, Mysore Government
 1922-26 & 3 Sept 1864, *Edue* Govt Assom-
 bly's Institution, Calcutta University, Del
 Orientalist Congress, Romo, 1890, opened
 discussion at 1st Univ Races Congress, Lon-
 don, 1921, Mem, Simla Committee for
 drawing up Calcutta Univ Reg, 1906
 Chairman, Mysore Constitutional Reform
 Committee, 1922-23 Author of New Essays
 in Criticism, Monist on Co-Elements of Hindu-
 bers, Comparative Studies in Vashnavism
 and Christianity, Race Origins, etc *Address*
 98, Lansdowne Road, Calcutta

SEN, JENDRANATH, M.A., Calcutta Univ
Sen Prof of Phy. Sc, Oly Coll, since 1903
b. 1876. m. 1899. *Educ.* Hindu Sch, Patal-
danga Coll; Oly Coll and Sc Assoc, Calcutta
Publications: Elementary Wave Theory of
Light and other small books
Civ Collge 102/1, Ambabai Street, Calcutta

SETHALVAD, SIR CHINTAMANI HANAIAT, K.C.I.B.,
 (1927) LL.D., Advocate, High Court, Bombay
 6 July 1866 in Krishnagav, d of Nurbheram
 Lughnathdas, Govt Pleader, Ahmedabad
 Ldke. Elphinstone College, Bombay
 Pleader, High Court, Bombay, Admitted as
 Advocate, High Court, Bombay, Bouthoroghi
 Reforms Committee, 1918, Member, Hunter
 Committee, 1919, Additional Judge, Bombay
 High Court, 1920, Member, Executive Council
 of Governor of Bombay, Jan 1921 to June
 1923, and Vice-Chancellor Bombay University
 1917-1920 Address Secalvad Road, Malabar
 Hill, Bombay
 SETHALVAD, HAO BAHADUR CHINTAMANI HANAIAT,
 LL.B, C.I.B., Bar-at-Law, formerly Chiof
 Presidency Magistrate, Bombay Address
 Bombay.

[illegible]

STETHINA, THE HON SRI PRINCE COURTESY,
Kt, B A, J P, O B E (1918), Member, Council,
of State, 7 B Oct. 1866. Manager for India,
Sun Life Assurance Co of Canada, Chair-
man, Central Bank of India, Ltd, Member,
Bombay Municipal Corporation, Presi-
dent, Bombay Municipal Corporation
and Indian Merchants' Chamber
Address

SETHUPATHI IYER, M. B., 2nd January 1938, *Kadu National High School and St Joseph's College, Trichanopoly*, was nominated President of the Taluk Board, Karnar, was elected President of the Board, Kullitala, elected President of the Trichanopoly Dist Board, elected Redemptional of the Trichanopoly District Educational Council Assistant Secretary of the Trichanopoly National College and Hon Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Trichanopoly Dist, elected member of the Madras Legislative Council from 1921, Minister for Development, Madras Government Address: Bosa Bab, Williams Road, Royapuram, Changan, building, Hornoy road, Bombay

[illegible]

First President of the Asiatic Society
of Bengal. Awarded Dersky, Distinguished
by the A S B in 1932. First
President of Indian Science Congress, (1931),
Publications Numerous papers on Zoology
and Oceanography. Address 18, Larkwood
Road, Cambridge

1899; Honourman of Council of Legal Education, 1899; Special Freeman in Constitutional Law, 1899, appointed Member of the Privy Council, 6 May 1897. *Life at Gray's Inn, London, 1897*. Oxford Practice at the Bar 1899-1931. *Officer Judge, Punjab Chief Court 1913 and 1914, Permanent Judge, 1917, Judge, High Court, Lahore, 1919, Chief Justice, May, 1920-1931. Elected by Punjab University to the Leg Council in 1910 and 1913 fellow and student, Punjab University Publications* *Comments on the Punjab Alienation of Land Act and Punjab Pre-emption Act, etc* *Address London*

SHAN MOHAMMAD SULTAN, THE
 HON'BLE SIR K. (1929), M.A. (Cantab),
 LL.D. (Dublin and Aligarh), Barrister-at-Law,
 6 3 R.B. 1880 at Aligarh, Faramah Begum
 Khatun, Central College, Allahabad,
 Christ's College, Cambridge, Trinity College,
 Dublin Bar from Middle Temple Address
 11, Edmondson Road, Allahabad
 SHAHAB-UD-DIN, THE HON'BLE KHAN BAHADUR,
 ADV. SIR CHAUDHARI, KT. (1930) B.A., LL.B.,
 Advocate, High Court, President, Punjab Legislative Council, founder and Proprietor, "Punjab Cases," and "Criminal Law Journal," 4 years and elected President, Punjab Legislative Council, re-elected President, Punjab Legislative Council in January 1937 *Punjab Government Coll and Law Coll, Lahore started Criminal Law Journal of India in 1904 and Indian Cases in 1909* Was first elected member, Lahore Municipal Committee in 1913, President of the Corporation in 1922 Elected member, Punjab Legislative Council, re-elected President, Punjab Legislative Council, 1924 Publications The Criminal Committee, 1924 *Annual Law Journal of India* Indian Cases and the Punjab poems Address "A Khushab", 3, Durand Road, Lahore

SHAHPORE, RIVA DUTTA UPADHYAY, succeeded to goods of 67th March 1876 succeeded to guns *Address* Shalipura, (Rajputana)

SHAHUJI, MAHMOOD HASAY KHAJ HAJI, KHAJ PETA, Bihar and Orissa b 1895 in Darsanmat Ubi Mahan-un-Niswan of the late Mr. Ahmad Hussain, Barrister-at-Law and Subordinate Judge, Bihar and Orissa *Life* 21.1.0

Barh Municipality for three years and Chaur. Was Chairman of the College, Aliphet, U P

man of the Local Board for three years, Secy. Director of the Provincial Co-operative Bank, Bihar and Orissa, Member of the Patna District Board, Hon'ry Officer on behalf of the Government for the Co-operative Societies, Bihar and Orissa

the hereditary title of "Khan" from the time of Shah Alam II, Moghul Emperor, and the family has been granted considerable landed properties with 10,000 cavalry and infantry. The late Ahmad Ali Khan, his great uncle-grand-father was the Commander-in-Chief to

the Mogul Emperor was made a Khin Sahib in 1934 and Khin Bahadur in 1931 *Address*
Mianmool (Ferozen), Dargh, District Patna
Mithar and Oiness

S HAKIM SAEED, ALEXANDER BLAIR, C I B,
Norchant, Suberland & Co, Calcuttare
1873. *Edue* Berhamptead Was
See, Upper India Chamber of Commerece,
1905-12. *Address* Calcuttare.

S HAKIM SINGH, Sir Sardar, Sardar
Barnadur, K O I B, C I B, Ch Alin, Jind
State. b. 1860. *Edue* Jind and
Hoshiarpur II S and Govt Coll, Lahore.
Served during Afghan War, 1879-80, with
march from Kabul to Kandahar. Ch Jind of
State High Court, 1899-1903. *Address*
Sangrur, Jind State.

(1931). Off. Controller of the Currency,
 HATTIVAD, B.A., C.I.D.,
 20 September 1887 in Uma, Bai
 Education Government College, Mangalore and
 Presidency College, Madras Superintendent,
 Government of India, Finance Department,
 1923-24 Indian Audit and Accounts Service
 1924, Assistant Secretary, Government of
 India, Finance Department, Under-
 Secretary, Government of India, Finance
 Department, 1925 Deputy Secretary, Gov-
 ernment of India, Finance Department, 1926
 Budget Officer, Government of India, Finance
 Department, 1926-31, Member, Legislative
 Assembly, 1927, 1930 and 1931, Dy. Control-
 lor of the Currency, Bombay, 1931 Secretary,
 Saranam Cooperative Housing Society Ltd,
 Bombay, 1915-19, President, Maharashtra
 Association, Bombay, 1931-32, President,
 Maharashtra of Chhatrapat Saranam 1932
 Publications Indian Thought in Shelley and
 Tennyson, Ties from Society, The Chhatrapat
 Saranam, Director, 1933, *Litices*. Delhi
 and

SIT IN KASHASTRI, PAVD, JORMASTRI, "Dargun Muk-
rithan" (May 1913) Astronomer, Astro-
loger and Landlord b 19 Dec 1884, in Anna
Purnag, d of Velamunel Chendrasudhiv
of Tammear Mary, Senior *Lake Hosur*,
Tanna Haver, Dhavar Compiler of the
Annual Indian Calendar known as "Hosuril
Punchang", Publisher of the annual general
predictions *Predictions*
Calendar, Bhannu-Dipika in Sanskrit (a
treatise on Astrology); Kalahandi in
Sanskrit, Sanhita Tjaja-Sara (a treatise
on Astrology) with Commentary in Marathi,
Davaunja Bhaktar in Sanskrit (a treatise on
Astrology), *Gita Rahita Jala in Sanskrit* (a
treatise on astronomy), and *hoolets* regard-
ing the administrations of H B Lord Vajing-
don, Viceroi of India and of H Lord
Dhbourne, Governor of Bombay, and later
of Pant Jalakunda Maharaj of Bogam
and Shreem Purnthana Vishnuvard
Sriyasa (Tembe Marathi) The History of
or Channop (Agray) in English History of
Ura Mar (Sipurnish-Jalak) *Address*
Haver, Tanna Haver, Dhavar Dist
SASTRI, PAVD DEVI, PH D (Kiel), B Sc
Late Haver (Oxon), M.A. B.T. Hon. M.O. T.
(Punjab); Viharar (Clcutta); Shastri

SHRIBHAKTAKRISHNAN RAY, THE HON KULAR, B.A., M.L.C., Minister, Government of Bengal, 64th December 1887 m to Annapurna Devi, & c/o Raj S N Majumdar Bahadur of Bhugulpur Bute Central Hindu College, Benares and graduated from the University of Allahabad. Is the oldest & of Raja Bani Bhabar, elected member of Hajshahi District Board (1918), elected member, Bengal Legislative Council 1916 by the Landholders of Hajshahi Division, re-elected to Council by the same body in 1920, 1928 and 1929 appointed senior Chairman of the Bengal Legislative Council in 1924 and became the first elected President in 1925. Has served on numerous official Committees and has been vice-President of the British Indian Association, and President, Bengal Hindu Conference. Appointed Minister, Government of Bengal, 1029 Address P O Taherpur, District Hajshahi

SHILLDY, GEORGE ALEXANDER, O B (1881), King's Police Medal (1922), Deputy Inspector-General of Police O D, Room 47th March 1886 in to Alibi Gathering, d of Robt Steven, J F, Barnhill, Dundee, *Rose Cumnell College, Belfast*, Ireland, joined Indian Police in 1906 as Asst Superintendent of Police, promoted District Superintendent of Police 1916, and Deputy Inspector-General of Police in 1932 *Address* Room

SHIRAS, GEORGE RINDAX, M A, Prin
cipal, Gujarat College, b Aberdeen, 16
July 1886 m 1911, Army Zena, ed at
late George Alwaters, Madras Civil Ser-
vice, two s *Edna*
College, Aberdeen
University of Aber-
deen, University Frieman in Economics,
Professor of Dacca College, 1909, on
special duty under Government of India,
Finance Department, 1910-18; Member,
Govt. of India Prices Inquiry Committee,
1913-14, Reader in Currency and Finance
in Calcutta University, 1914, Member,
Government of Bengal Statistics Committee,
and of Board of Agriculture, India, 1918,
on deputation Imperial Statistical Confe-
rence, London, on behalf of Govt of India, Dec.
1919-Feb 1920, on special duty India Office
in connection with League of Nations work

March 1920, attached International Labour Office and Economic and Financial Section, League of Nations, Geneva, 1924 and Ministry of Labour, Industrial Court, and Home Office, London, Labour Departments, Washington, Boston and New York, 1925, Hon. Rellow, Royal Statistical Society, 1920, Mayor, 4th Gordon Highlanders, (1920, despatches), T.A. Reserve Regimental List, 1921, Director, Labour Office, Government of Bombay, 1921-25, formerly Director of Statistics with the Government of India, Alexander, Bombay Legislative Council, Rellow of the University of Calcutta, Fellow of the Univ of Bombay Publications. Some Aspects of Indian Commerce and Industry, Indian Finance and Banking, 3rd Impression, 1920, Some Effects of the War on Gold and Silver, 1920, The Science of Public Finance, (Macmillan, 3rd Edition), Taxable Capacity

Achaspathi (Nadia), I B S Principal,
 Rajshahi College, Son Fort of Mendenal and
 Moral Phil in Presidency Coll, Calcutta, 1912-
 1933, offg Principal, Hooghly Govt
 College, 1927 b 20 June 1885 *Elite*
 University of Lahor, Oxford, Kail, Bonn and
 Paris Del to and Sectional Frr at 4th Int
 Congress of Philosophy held at Bolzano, 1911,
 Head of Dept. of Philosophy, since 1912,
 Calcutta Univ Lect in Phil. and Sanskrit,
 1912-16, invited to lecture in Universities of
 Geneva, Florence and Rome, 1913-14 Visited
 the U S, A and Canada in 1920-22 and
 invited to address the Universities of Harvard,
 Cornell, Princeton, Yale, Johns Hop-
 kins and Toronto Invited as Sectional
 President at 8th International Congress of
 Philosophy, Naples, 1924 *Publications*
 Several works and articles on philosophical,
 educational, literary, religious and social
 subjects *Address* Bhawan, 3, Multan
 Road, Lahore or Principal's House, Rajshahi,
 Bengal

SHAW, FRANKLIN JOHN FRESHWATER, D.Sc.
(Lond), A.B.C.S., F.R.S., Director, Imperial
Institute of Agricultural Research, b. 16
December 1885 in Cathlamet Canyon, Idaho
Holman's School and Royal College of Science
(Lond) joined the Indian Agricultural
Service as supernumerary mycologist in 1910,
Govt Mycologist, Combaratore, 1913, Second
Imperial Mycologist, 1915, Imperial Economic
Botanist and Joint Director, Fusa Institute,
1928-34, Director, Imperial Institute of
Agricultural Research, 1934. *Publications*
Numerous papers on plant pathology and
plant genetics. *Address* Delhi

SHAIKH, MAH MUBARAK, C I E (1931) MADRAS-
UT-MANAK AVAR 2 18th October 1901
First Class Amrit of the Junagadh State, holding
a hereditary Jagir, *Ekte* at the Mayo College,
Ajmer, visited England in 1913-1914 with His
Highness the Nawab Sahib. Entered Juna-
gh State Service in 1920 as Military Secretary
to His Highness the Nawab Sahib and
subsequently was appointed Private Secretary
to His Highness and then Joint Secretary
Dewan, Junagadh State, 1923-1932. Retired
from Junagadh State Service in February 1932
Address: Ag 11, via Keshod, Junagadh
State

SHPPARD, SAMUEL TOWNSEND, London
Correspondent of *The Times* of India
Bath, Jan 1880. *Review*. Bradfield and
Trinity Coll., Oxford in 1921, Anne, d of the
late J H Carpenter (died 1934) joined the
staff of *The Times* (London) as Secretary to
the Editor in 1902
Times of India, 1907-1928, Editor, 1928-1932,
Temporary Capt in the Army, 1917-18, em-
ployed on the staff of Bombay Brigade,
Corresponding Member, Indian Historical
Records Commission
published to *The Times* History of the War in
South Africa
"Bombay Place-names and Street-names,"
"A History of the Bombay Volunteer
Rifles" and "Bombay" Address. *The Times*
of India, Salisbury Square, Fleet Street,
London, E.C. 4.

from Arms Act is Chairman of the District Council and Member, Village Panch Board, C.P. and Bihar Member of Communication Board, C.P. Publications. Hindi Shiksha Siddhanta Sar Adhya. Jabulpore,

1871, ARCHBISHOP OF, since 1911, MOST REV
 ASSELY, E. J. KEELEY, b. 1864. Laid
 Franciscan Order, 1879; Prev., 1887
 Guardian of Franciscans, Crawley, Sussex,
 1895; Minister Provincial for England,
 1902; first Prior of the Franciscan College,
 Oxford, 1906; elected his member of
 (Royal Union, 1907; Dean of the Home,
 representing English-speaking provinces, 1908,
 1910-1911, Irish Province, 1910, 1914-
 dress: Archbishop's House, Simla E

KING, Lt-Col. BAY JYKS, O.B. (1913)
 I.I.S. (field) 6 May 6 1893. Educ. Govern-
 ment and Medical Colleges, Lahore and S.
 Thomas' Hospital Medical Schools, London-
 joined I.I.S. 1891 Served in Military Depart-
 ment to 1896. Civil Surgeon, Meiktila, 1896
 Secretary, I.G. Prisons, with Civil Medical
 Administration, Burma, 1897-1899 Super-
 Central Jail, Insein, Burma, from 1899 to 1900
 Inspector-General of Prisons, B. Bengal and
 Assam, 1910-1912. Inspector-General of Prisons,
 Bihar and Orissa, from 1912-1920. Director,
 Medical and Sanitation Departments, H.C. H.
 The Mizam's Govt., 1920-23; and Director,
 Medical Sanitation and Jail Depts., H.C. H.
 The Mizam's Govt., 1923-24. Address:
 Ranchi (Chota Nagpur).

INGH, GAY PRASAD, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Pradip, Mazadapur. Was a self-deputy magistrate and Collector for a few years but resigned subsequently, now practising as a pleader, a member of the Mazadapur Municipal Board of the Sunder Hospital Committee; and of the Local Advisory Committee on Excise, an elected member of the Legislative Assembly since 1924, a Member of the Standing Finance Committee since 1924, one of the founders members of the Azad Club at India and Burma; a member of the Government Body of the Indian School at Missa, Dhanbad. Presided over the 13th session of All-India (including Burma) Postal and R. M. S. Bihar and Orissa Provincial Conference at Mazadapur in March 1933. Presided over the 5th session of the Burma Provincial Assembly, Xayapada Sanga in April 1933. Presided over the Punjab Provincial Department Conference at Amritsar in September 1933, presided over the formation of All-India Arts and Crafts Exhibition held in Delhi in 1933. President of the 13th session of the Provincial Postal and R. M. S. Conference at Mazadapur in March 1934. *Publications*—“*Journal Kashmiri*,” *Adhyas*, Mazadapur (Dibrat).

1935, *Secretary to the Ministry, N.A. (Oxford)*,
Council of the U.P. Government, 1935
d. 17 May 1938, m. to Miss Mary Das
Lecturer (English) *Edw.*: Harrow Hill
Coll., Oxford: *Bar. at-Law*, Middle Temple,
1935. Ent. U.P. GS. 1904; Asst Sec to
Govt. of India, Dept. of Education, 1911; Asst
and Coll., or Harrow, U.P., 1917. Secy to
U.P. Govt, 1919, *De. Secretary*, Govt of India,
Education Dept., 1920-23. *De. Commissioner*,
Urbach, 1923, *Commissioner*, Allahabad,
1927, *Commissioner*, Dertre, 1928, Allahabad,
1929, *Chief Minister* Jodhpur 1931; Asst to
the Government of India in South Africa
1932. *Publications*: Annual Report on Co-
operative Credit Societies in the U.P., 1908-
1919. Reports on Indian Emigration to Japan-
tus and British Guiana and on Mission
to East Africa and various contributions to
the press *Address*: Secretariat, Lucknow

SINGH, THE HON. RAJA SIR HARVEY, K.C.I.E., (1910). Member, Council of State; Tangla, 6.7 Aug. 1967. Member of Dharmam, Late Singh, late Tangla of Dharmam. Late in Gaudi Dist. Educ. at Raj Bahadur High School and M.A.O. College, Aligarh. President-elect of the second U. P. Social Conference held in Lucknow in 1908 and of All-India Social Conference in 1910, presided over 5th All-India Hindu Conference at Delhi in 1915; elected President, British Indian Association of Gaudi in 1921 and was re-elected in 1924. Was Fellow of Aligarh Univ. until 1909 and is Secretary of Kashitri College, Lucknow. Member of the Executive Council of the Lucknow University and of the Court of the Board of Directors of Mahatma Sugar Corporation, Lucknow, also Director of the Aligarh Indian Association, Gaudi, 1931 and was Chairman of the Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments Commission appointed by U. P. Government. *Publications* Pamphlets entitled "Tanglars and the British Indians Association" (1917) and "Tanglars and the Amendment of Gaudi Rent Law" (1927) and contributions to the press on social, political and religious topics. *Address*: Kurni Sawai

and religious topics. *Address* : Kuri Sagar,
Raj, Dist. Rae Bareilly, Oudh.

SIR H. ARTHUR KENNEDY, M.A., B.L.
Rajna, and Calcutta. joined the High
Court, Puna, as "Kil", appeared in the
famous "Burrin Case" of the Dunsford
has as junior to Mr C H Des. Smith, as
Ayesgar and the late Sir Ashmead Moorehead,
joined Non-Co operation Movement 1921,
at present Chairman of Gaya District Board
and Member, Council of State, representing
Bihar and Orissa, Chairman, Reception
Committee of the All-India Conference 1916

Dharma in Nepal" and "On some Mahāyāna
 Texts of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth
 Centuries" (published in the Journal of
 the Asiatic Society of Bengal). "Is Tha-
 mat Religion Buddhism?" (read in the Third
 Oriental Conference, Madras 1924) Joint
 editor of the typical selections from
 Mahāyāna proposed to be published by the
 Calcutta University, an Editor of the
 "Barhut Inscriptions", published by the
 Calcutta University, in 1926
 "Srinagar Darbar", P O Srinagar, Dist
 Burewa (Bihar).

SIRHA SACHCHIDANAN, Barrister, first elected Dy President, Indian Leg Assembly, first Indian Finance Member, Ex-Member Revenue Council, Bihar and Orissa Government, 1921-1926, also President of Legislative Council, 10 Nov 1871, in the late Sumatradhaka, d of this late Ali Sava Kaim, of Lahore *Patna College and City College, Calcutta* Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1898, Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1898, Alahabad High Court, 1896 Patna High Court, 1916 Founded and edited *The Indian Review*, 1899-1921, twice elected Member, Imperial Legislative Council, Elected Legislative Assembly, 1920,

also elected its first Deputy President, Feb 1921. Established and endowed in 1924 the Sarmati Madhika Institute in memory of his wife, which building contains, besides the largest public library in Patna, the Sachchi dandan Saha Library, a splendid collection of classical and current works in English. Visited England in 1927 where he in writings and speeches made notable contributions to the discussion of Indian reforms as embodied in the system known as Dharma. In 1926, became Managing Director of the *Hindustan Review*. In 1931, was especially invited while in England in 1933, to appear before the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reforms and submitted a lengthy memorandum on the White Paper from the standpoint of constitutional nation states *"Publication"* The Partition of Bengal or the Separation of Bihar" *Address* Patna, Bihar.

NIGAR, SHI NAIKAWDRA NYEN, KY, M A,
B T, Law Member of the Government of
India in Nabunimi Division of Districts
from Lhasa Privately College Graduate,
Licentiate in English at Bhamo in
March as placed since 1907 Member of
Subordinate Judicial Service 1905-06, first
Honours in in Bar Final with Merit, First
Class, in B A, M A, in Chemistry and
Holds a Foundation Scholarship, University
College, Appointed Law Member, Govern-
ment of India, 1934 Advocate-General of
Bengal 1929-34, Rights to Third Round
Table Conference and Joint Select Committee
New Delhi

STAVADU H. S. RAJA RAY SINGH, RAJA
 of Kachil Baroda in British India
 and keen student of science and ancient and
 modern philosophy, is entitled to a salute of
 11 guns, by selection by Govt. of India
 in default of direct issue, 1900. *Address.*
 Ramnivas Palace, Sitapur, O. I.

SIVAGANAN PILLAI, DEWAN BHADUR
 SIR TIRUNDEVALLI NELLIAIPPA, B.A. 1st
 April 1861 *Edue* Madras
 Christian College Service under Government, Retired
 as Dy. Collector, President, Dist. Board,
 Tinnevely, 1890-1893 Minister of Develop-
 ment, Madras, 1923-26 *Address* 77, North
 Car Street, Tinnevely.

SIVASWAMI AYYAR, S. P. S., K.C.S.I.,
 1916, C.S.I. (1912), C.I.E. (1908),
 Retd. Member, Executive Council, Madras
 67 Feb 1864 *Edue* S. P. G. College,
 Kumbakonam, Presidency College, Kumbakonam,
 High Court Vakils, 1885, Asstt. Professor,
 Law College, Madras, 1893-99, Joint
 Editor, Madras Law Journal, 1893-
 1907, first Indian Representative of the
 University of Madras in the Madras Legisla-
 tive Council, 1904-07, Advocate-General,
 1907, Member of Executive Council, Madras,
 1912-17, Vice-Chancellor, University of
 Madras, 1918-19, Vice-Chancellor of Benares
 Hindu University, 1918-19, Elected to the
 Indian Legislative Assembly by the districts
 of Tanjore and Tirunelveli, 1920, President
 of the Second and Ninth Sessions of the
 National Liberal Federation at Calcutta, 1919,
 and Akola, 1920 Member of the Indian
 Delegation at the Third Session of the Assam-
 bly of the League of Nations at Geneva, 1922,
 Nominated Member of the Indian Legisla-
 tive Council, 1921 *Publication* Indian Consti-
 tutional Problems (1928) *Address* Sudharna,
 Edward Elliot Road, Alaypore, Madras

SKULP, FRANK WHITTINGHAM, M.A., M.B.C.E.,
 13 Dec 1880 in Dorobly Brazier *Edue*
 University of Manchester, Peterhouse
 Cambridge joined I.C.S. (Punjab) Commis-
 sion 1904, Ombudsman D.O. 1910-1913,
 Sessions Judge 1918-1927, Additional Judge,
 Madras High Court 1927, Punes Judge, 1933
Address 24, Race Course Road, Lahore.

SLADE, GEORGE ERIC HOWLAND, B.Sc.
 (London), A.M.I.C.E., Controller of Stores,
 H. B. & C. Railway 26 Nov. 1886 in
 Wiltshire Road *Edue* Cranleigh School
 and University College, London after practi-
 cal training in England joined the H. B. &
 C. Railway, 1910, as Assistant Engineer,
 transferred to Stores Department, 1914,
 Address, 14th Hill, London

STON, DEAN, M.A., C.I.D. (1930), Joint
 Secretary, Home Department, Govern-
 ment of India 9 November 1881 in
 Gladys Hope d. of Hope Robertson, Glasgow,
 Educ. Glasgow Academy, Glasgow University,

and Christ Church, Oxford joined Indian
 Civil Service, 1900, served as Assistant Magis-
 trate and Collector, Assistant Settlement
 Officer, Under-Secretary to Government,
 Magistrate and Collector, Deputy Secretary
 and Secretary to Government in United
 Provinces and also as Under-Secretary,
 Deputy Secretary and Joint Secretary in
 Home Department of Government of India.
Address Home Department, Simla

SALITH, ARTHUR KIRKE, M.A. (Cambridge),
 Solicitor to Government of India, 1932 20th
 August 1878 *Edue* Charterhouse, Trinity
 College, Cambridge, Articled to Freshfields,
 Solicitors, London, and admitted a Solicitor
 in 1903, joined Little & Co., Bombay, in 1908,
 Solicitor to Government and Public Prosecutor,
 Bombay, 1925-1932 *Address* Delhi and
 Simla.

SALITH, S. OSBORN ARKELL, Kt. (1928),
 K.C.I.E. (1923), Governor of the Reserve
 Bank of India (on leave) 26 December 1877
 in Dorothy Lush *Edue* Sydney Grammar
 School, Bank of New South Wales, Common-
 wealth Bank of Australia, and Imperial
 Bank of India. *Address* Bombay

SALITH-PEARSE, THOMAS LAWRENCE HARR,
 B.A. (Oxon.), I.B.S., Principal, Rajkumar
 College, Raipur (on leave) in Mrs. Katharine
 Wigham *Edue* Marlborough, England
Publications "Fighting Errors in Indian
 Schools" *Address* Rajkumar College,
 Raipur C/o Messrs. Lloyds Bank Ltd., Cox's
 and Kings Branch, 6, Pall Mall, London,
 S.W. 1

SALITH, SIR THOMAS, Kt. (1921), V.D. (1914),
 Chevalier of the Order of the Crown (Belgium)
 (1919), Managing Director, Mills Co.,
 Ltd., Calcutta, 28 Aug. 1875, m. Elsie
 Maud d. of Sir Henry Legard in 1907, 2 s.
 1 d. Member of the Hunter Committee on
 Punjab disorders, 1919, President, Upper
 India Chamber of Commerce, 1918-1921,
 Member, U. P. Leg. Council, 1918-26, Fellow
 of Allahabad University, 1918-22; Com-
 mandant, 16th Calcutta Rifles, 1918-20
 Representative of Employers in India at In-
 ternational Labour Conference, Geneva, 1926.
Address Westfield, Camptore, and Mernu-
 wood, Virginia Water, Surrey.

SALITH, WALTER ROBERT GEORGE, Bar-at-Law,
 Commissioner of Police, Bombay 6th
 Nov. 1887 in Ellen d. of the late John
 Cochrane *Edue* Grove Park School,
 Wrexham and Gray's Inn joined Police
 Service, Dec. 1908, as Assistant Superintendent,
 Superintendent of Police, March 1921,
 Dy. Commissioner of Police, Bombay, 1932,
 Off. Deputy Inspector-General of Police,
 March 1933; Commissioner of Police,
 Bombay, 1938, awarded King's Police Medal,
 1938 *Address* Head Police Office, Bombay

SOLA, THE REV. MAJOR, S. J., Ph.D., M.A.
 former Principal of the Ateneo de Manila
 Institution from 1916-1920, Professor of
 Logic and Philosophy at St. Xavier's College,
 Bombay 6, Nov. 7, 1872 in the province of
 Barcelona, North of Spain. Ordained at St.

- SRIYASA BAO, BAI BHADUR PATRI DE-**
KATA, B. A. B. I., High Court Vakil, Guntur,
 and Member, Legis. Assembly. b. 1877,
 m. to d of Rao Bahadur Batri Ramanaswami, to d of Rao Bahadur Batri High School and
 Noble College, Masulipatam, and Christian Coll
 and Law Coll, Madras. Joined Coxsada Bar,
 1908, and Guntur Bar in 1906. Vice-President,
 Guntur Dist. Board, for 6 years; was Municipal
 Councilor for some years; was member,
 Krishna Flood Committee; Secretary of the
 First Dt. Congress Committee. *Address.*
 Guntur.
- SRIYASTAVA THE HON SRI JAYALA PRASAD,**
 KC (1931) MSC, Tech (Yct), ALST, FIC
 AIC MLC Minister of Education and
 Agriculture C P Bais and Landford Bais,
 District Bais C P B 16 August 1889 m
 and February 1907, Kailash d of late
 Deputy Collector Jampur Educ Christ Church
 College, Cawnpore and Alur Central College
 Alahabad Proceeded in 1908 to England
 as Govt of India State Technical Scholar,
 joined Manchester College or Technological
 obtained degree of M Sc, Tech, 1911 Won
 several distinctions Travelled extensively
 in Europe, returned to India in April 1912
 and took up appointment as Industrial
 Chemist under C P Govt During the war
 served in the Indian Defence Force and did a
 great deal of work for the Indian Munitions
 Govt In 1919 gave up Govt service and
 took to private business acquired interest in
 several concerns including the Cawnpore
 Dyeing and Printing Co, Ltd, the New
 Victoria Mills Co, Ltd and the Indian Tur-
 kume and Bism Co, Ltd for the control of
 which he is still responsible Was elected
 member to the C P Legislative Council
 in 1926 by the Upper India Chamber of
 Commerce and was re-elected in 1930 Served
 as Chairman, C P Simon Committee in 1925
 and for three years as Hon. Chairman
 Cawnpore Improvement Trust Appointed
 Minister of Education, C P 7th February
 1941 Acquired the Pioneer Newspaper in
 1932 and established it as an organ of Land-
 holders and business community *Address*
 Lucknow
 Secretary, United Provinces Government,
- SHIYASTAVA, BAI CHANDRA, B Sc, Sugar**
 Technologist to the Imperial Council of
 Agricultural Research, India b. 10th Sept
 1891 m to the late Bahadur Puri Srivastava
 and again to Naval Kishore Srivastava
 Educ. Alur Central College, Allahabad,
 Municipal School or Technological, Allahabad,
 University College, London, Manager, Behar
 Sugar Works, Pachukhi; and Deputy
 Director of Industries, U P. *Address:* Civil
 Lines, Cawnpore
- STANLEY, ALFRED WILLIAM EVANS, Assoc-**
 of the Institution of Engineers (India); Chief
 Engineer and Secretary, F. W. D., Bikaner
 State b 20 Nov 1866 m. Una d of H. D., Bikaner
 Buntington, ICS (retd) Educ. Royal
 Indian Engineering Coll., Cooper Hill,
 College of Mannings and then at Royal
 Assisted Engineer in 1891; Construction of
 Ganga Dam, Upper E J Canal in 1895;
 services lent to Benares Municipality in 1896
 as Resident Engineer for construction of
 drainage and sewerage and water-works.
 Promoted Ex Engineer in 1899; services
 lent to Bikaner State, 1903-06, during which
 several irrigation schemes, water works and
 central electric power station were designed
 and constructed, also organised the investiga-
 tion of the feasibility of irrigating the North
 fracts of the State from the Baghel river which
 has eventually led to Bikaner getting a share
 of the water in the Baghel Valley Project now
 under construction; Sanitary Engineer to Govt.,
 U.P. in 1908 and 1909. Promoted to Superin-
 tending Engineer, 1912, and then Chief
 Engineer and Secretary to Government,
 Irrigation Branch, U.P. in 1918 and
 retired in 1921. *Publications:* Papers on
 "Baghel Reservoirs" in the Journal of the
 Institution of Engineers (India), Vol. II
Address: Bikaner, Rajputana.
- STRIN, SRI AUREL, K.C.I.E., Ph.D., D. Litt**
 (Hon. Oxon), D. Sc. (Hon. Camb), D. O. L.
 (Hon. Punjab), Kellow, Brit. Acad., Corres-
 pondant del Institut de France, Gold Medal
 list, H Geogr. Soc., B. Asiatic Society, etc;
 Indian Archaeological Survey, Officer on
 special duty. (retired) b. Budapest; 26
 Nov. 1862. Educ. Budapest and President;
 studied Oriental Languages and Antiquities
 at Vienna and Tubingen Universities and in
 England, 1883-99. Principal, Oriental College
 and Beggara, Punjab University; app to
 I. B. S. as Princ. of Calcutta Madrasah, 1899.
 Inspector-General of Education, N. W. P.
 and Baluchistan, 1901. Carried out archaeologi-
 cal explorations for Indian Govt. in Chinese
 Turkistan, 1900-1, and in G. Asia and W.
 China, 1906-08; transferred to Archaeological
 Survey, 1908; carried out geographical and
 archaeological explorations in G. Asia and
 returned 1929 Explored in Persian
 Baluchistan, Khurasan and Kabul, 1926-28;
 returned 1929 Explored in Persian
 Baluchistan, a long Persian Gulf Coast
 and in Southern Persia, 1932-1934
Publications. *Kahana's Chronicle of*
the Kings of Kashmir; Sanskrit text,
 1592, trans. with commentary, 2 vols 1900;
Sandhi-Burns of Khotan, 1903-1921. *An-*
cient Khotan, 1908 (2 vols). *Remains of Dervit*
Guhay, 1912 (2 vols). *Servinda*, 1921 (5 vols),
The Thousand Buddhas; Memoir on Maps
of Chinese Turkistan and Kansu (2 vols),
Central-Asian Tract, 1933, and numerous
 papers on Indian and Central Asian archae-
 ology and Geography. *Address.* *Stran-*
ashmir; E. I United Service Club, London.
- SUGAR WORKS, Pachukhi; and Deputy**
 Director of Industries, U P. *Address:* Civil
 Lines, Cawnpore

SURABHANTYAM, RAO BHABUR CATAG
SURABHANTYAM, B.A., B.L., Landowner. b
 Madras Presidency College in Balambram and
 d. of C. Munakshaya, Bar-at-Law and Judge
 in Mysore. Practised as Vakil at Bellary,
 Chairman, Bellary Municipality, 1904-10.
 Vice-President, District Board, Bellary,
 1911-1918. Member, Labour League, Madras,
 has taken interest in co-operative work and
 the Legislative Assembly, 1920. Appointed
 President of Bench of Hon. Magistrates,
 Mayavaram Town in 1923. Publications
 pamphlets on Rythuwar Plaque and Irrigation
 Problems of the Ceded Districts. Chairman,
 Board of Directors, Indo-Commercial Bank,
 Limited, Mayavaram. Address Mayavaram,
 S. India.

SURABHAWADY, SRI, HASSAN, KT (1932); Lt-
Colonel, I.R., O.B.E. (1927), Karsar-I-Hind
Medal 1st Class (1930), I.M.S.M.D., R.R.C.
 S.I., D.P.H., L.M. Robinson, Chief Medical
 Officer, (Indian State Rlys. R.B. Administrators)
 6 Dacca, 17-11-1884. s. of Abdulla Obaidul
 lah ib Obaidul Shukurahy, Promoter of Anglo-
 Islamic Studies & Female Education in Bengal.
 m. Shahar Banu Begum, daughter of Hon.
 Nawab Syed Mohammed of Dacca & one Educ.
 Dacca Madrasah, Dacca College, Calcutta
 Med College Postgraduate—Dublin, Kilm-
 burg and London, Member, Bengal Legislative
 Council 1921-24, Deputy President, 1923,
 Member, Beng Industrial Unrest Committee,
 1921. Member, Court of Muslim Univ.,
 Aligarh. Member, Court & Executive Council,
 Dacca Univ. Leader, Indian Delegation,
 1931. British Empire Univ. Congress, Edinburgh,
 1931. President, Board of Studies, Arabic &
 Persian, President, Board of Studies, Medicine
 (F.U.) Commanding Officer, Calcutta Univer-
 sity Corps Associate Officer of the Order of
 St John President, Bengal I.R. Committee,
 1923-25. Organising Member, Indian Field
 Ambulance Bays Water, London, 1914.
 (Founded by Mahatma Gandhi) Bengal
 Field Ambulance, 44th Bengal Regiment
 Excipient & Rounder, Servants of Humanity
 Society, Social Hygn & Public Work Bengal
 Govt. Delegate, British Empire Social Hygn
 Congress, London, 1927. First Class Hon'y
 Presidency Magistrate Publications. Member
 of Indian Welfare for India, Calcutta and
 Environments Manual of Post Operative Treat-
 ment, Manual of First Aid for India, The
 Economic Effects of Venereal Diseases on
 Indians in India, Establishment of more
 Medical Schools in Bengal; Revival and
 Development of the Indigenous Tibbi System
 of Medicine. Several pamphlets on Public
 Health and Social Hygiene propaganda.
 Address 2, Belvedere Park, Alipore,
 Calcutta, India.

SURABHAWADY, SRI ZAHNADUR BANU
 (Calcutta Address: 3, Wellesley 1st Lane,
 High Court b. 1870. Educ. Dacca and
 Government of India; late Judge, Calcutta
 Bench, Railway Rates Advisory Committee,
 Calcutta)

SUKHDEO PERSHAD, SRI B.A., Thakur of
Jasnaagar, Rao
Gold Karsar-I-Hind Medal (1901),
O.B.E. (1902), Knight Bachelor (1922) b
 March, 1862. m. Mohanji, d. of Parmanath
 Hukko. Educ. at Agri College Settlement
 Ambala, 1885, Judicial Secretary, Marwar
 Member, 1901; Minister Marwar 1908,
 1886, Member of Council, 1887, Senior
 Chief Minister, Udaipur, 1914-18, Revenue
 Member, Regency Council, Marwar, 1919-21.
 Officially as Vice-President, 1920. Political
 and Finance Member, 1922-26.
 Munsib Alie, Udaipur, from 1880 a Sirdar of
 Holds three villages in Jagir of an annual
 rental of Rs 25,000. Publications. *Ramane*
 Report, 1899-1900, Origin of the Rathors,
 Agri. Indebtedness.
 Sukh Ashram, Jodhpur, (Rajputana) Address

SUKTHANKAR, VISNU SIVRAJ, M.A.
Kansar-I-Hind Medal, Corresponding Member, Oriental
Institute in Prague Czechoslovakia, Fellow
Nowrojee Vaidya College, Poona. Lecturer
 in the Post-Graduate Department of the
 Bombay University. b 4th May 1887
 m. Eleanora Bowring (died 6th Aug, 1926)
 Educ. Marwar High School and S. Xavier's
 College, Bombay. St. John's College
 Cambridge (England), and Berlin University
 formerly Assst. Superintendent, Archaeological
 Survey, Western Circle, Secretary, Bhambur-
 kut Oriental Research Institute, Poona.
 Publications. *Die Germanisch Saketayanas*
 Leipzig, 1921. *Vasavadatta*, Oxford Univ.
 Press, 1923. First Critical Edition of the
Alaukhavata, 1923, Studies in Bhassa, Type
 Studies Contributor to Journal, American
 Or Soc. Ind. Linguary, Epigraphia
 India, Journal, Bombay Branch, Royal
 As Soc. Journal, German Or Soc., etc.
 Editor-in-Chief of Journal of the Bombay Branch,
 Royal Asiatic Society. Address Bhamburkut
 Oriental Research Institute, Poona.

SITILAN AHMAD KHAN, SIBDA SARRADA,
Sr, KT (1932) Karsar-I-Hind Medal, C.I.E.
(1924), M.A., LL.M. (Canada), Barrister-at-Law
 son of Imtiaz-Ud-daula Nawab Ghulam Ahmad
 Khan Bahadur Ahmadi, Appeal Member emer-
 itus in 1912. Lucy Felling Hall,
 or Bristol. Educ. at the Aligarh Muhammadan
 Anglo-Oriental College and Christ's College,
 Cambridge (called to the Bar at the Inner
 Temple, London, April 1894. B.A., LL.B.,
 June 1894. M.A. and LL.M. (1909), was
 Member of Council, 1909-12, Finance Member,
 1912-16, and Army Member, 1917, a Member
 of the Hunter Committee to inquire into
 causes of Disturbances in Delhi, Punjab, and
 Bombay, 1919-20. A delegate to the Round
 Table Conference, specially to represent
 India. Address Gwalior State, 1880-31.

SUNDARA RAJ, DR B, M.A. (Madras)
Ph.D. (Liverpool), Director of Fisheries,
Madras b 1888. Educ. Madras and
Liverpool Assistant to the Piscicultural
Expert 1916, Asst. Director of Fisheries,
 (Madras) Publications 1920

and P W D, 1929-30 Member in charge of
of Finance and Law and Order from November
1930 to April 1934 Address 216, Lower
Circular Road, Calcutta.

SYED, SIBDAR ALI KHAN, created Nawab Sirdar
Nawaz Jung Bahadur, 1921; Postmaster
General of B. H. H. the Nizam's Dominions,
1929-1929 (retired) b. 26th March 1879, eldest
surviving s. of late Nawab Sirdar Diler Jung
Sirdar Diler-ud-Dowla, Sirdar Diler-ul-Mulk
Bahadur, C.I.B., some time Home Secretary
at Hyderabad, in 1906, six s two d Educ
privately. Entered the Nizam's service, 1911,
has held several responsible positions, includ-
ing the Commissionership of Gulbarga Pro-
vince, presented Georgian and Queen Mary
Historical Furniture to the National Collec-
tion at Victoria Memorial Hall, Calcutta,
1908 *Publications*: Lord Curzon's Adminis-
tration of India, 1905; Unrest in India, 1907,
Historical Furniture, 1908; India of To-day,
1908, Late or Lord Moley, 1923; The Earl
of Reading, 1924; British India, 1926. The
Indian Moslems, 1928; contributions to the
English and Indian Press with regard to
Hyderabad, Deccan.

SYED BAZA ALI, Sir, C.B.E. (Rt 1935) Agent
of the Government of India in South
Africa, B.A.L.T.B. (Alahabad Univ.)
b. 29 April 1882 m d of his mother's
first cousin Educ Government High
School, Moradabad and Mahomedan
College, Aligarh Started practice at
Moradabad in 1908 and was a radical in poli-
tics, returned to U.P. Legal Council 1912,
took prominent part in Calcutta Moslems
agitation, elected Trustee of Aligarh College
and Southborough Committee; returned
unopposed to U.P. Council in 1916 and 1920,
was one of those responsible for introducing
separate Moslem representation in Municipal
Boards in U.P.; took active part in negotia-
ting the Congress League Compact in 1916;
same year settled at Allahabad, identified him-
self with Swaraj and Khilafat movements but
strongly differing from non-co-operation pro-
gramme; became independent in politics 1920,
member of Council of State 1921-1926, elected
member of Delhi University Court, was mem-
ber of North West India Inquiry Committee and
signed majority report; headed two deputa-
tions of Moslem members of Indian Legisla-
ture to Viceroy in 1922 and 1923 in connection
with Turkish question; gave non-party evi-
dence before Keshavnagar Inquiry Committee in
1924; President, All-India Moslem League,
Bombay Session, Decr. 1924
Member, Govt. of India's Deputation to South
Africa (1925-1926). Subordinate Delegates
Government of India's Delegation to Assembly
of League or Nations, Geneva, 1929 *Publica-
tions*: Essays on Moslem Questions (1912),
"My Impressions of Soviet Russia," (1930)

SYED NA TAHIR SAIFUDDIN SAHAB, His
Holiness Sardar (Mulla) Sahab, High
Priest of Dawood Bohra Shia Mahomedan
community and First Class Sardar of Deccan.

App't. Member of the proposed London
Mosque Committee, 1911; appld. Member
at Univ of London, 1911; joined Muslim
Deputation which waited upon Lord Har-
dinge in 1914; elected Member of Aligarh
Muslim University Assocn, 1914; elected
Vice-President of Bihar Students' Associa-
tion and Anjuman-Islams, Patna, 1914;
served 2 years as Director, Bihar and Orissa
Provincial Co-operative Bank, Patna, 1917-18,
nominated non-official member, Muzil
Hospital, Patna, 1928 Address: Abulhas
Lane, Bankpur, Patna.

SYED, MOHTAR BAKKAS, B.A., LL.B.,
M.R.A.S., F.R.S.A. (London), M.L.C., High
Court Pleader, Aikola; born at Sangur, 1893,
educated at Aligarh and Allahabad; Senior
Vice-President, Aikola Municipal Board (the
Premier Municipality of Betar), 1925-1928;
Officer-in-Charge of the Aikola Municipality
1928; Chairman, School Board, Aikola Muni-
cipality, 1925-1927; Member, Government
Body, Government High School, Aikola,
(1928-30); Member, C. P. Legislative Council
since 1926; nominated to the Panel of
Chairman, C. P. Council, Deputy Leader,
Democratic Party (Majority Party) C. P. Legis-
lative Council (1928), Member, Governing
Body C. P. and Betar, Literary Academy,
Member, Executive Council, All-India Muslim
League and All-India Muslim Conference;
President several Anjuman and Political
Organizations in Betar, Member, Central
Uthilat Committee, some time Hon.
Editor, the *Al-Haq*, Xazpur; Member His
Majesty's Commission, (1928), Chair-
man, Reception Committee, Betar, Muslim
Congress Conference, (1928); President,
C. P. and Betar All Parties Muslim Con-
ference, 1925 President Muslim Education
Society, Aikola, re-elected Senior Vice-Presi-
dent Aikola Municipality, 1932; Member,
Governing Body, King Edward Memorial
Society of C. P. and Betar A Constant Contri-
butor to several leading journals in India and
England. Selected by Government to give
evidence before Lothian Committee on behalf
of Muslims in Or Betar (1932) Member
C. P. Educational Service Selection Committee,
Member, Standing Committee
Committee, Member, Selection Committee
on Education C. P. Council; Member several
"Muzil" "Muzil" and "Muzil" Publications.

SYED, Sir MIRHAMMAD SAADULLAH
Rt (1925) M.A. (Chemistry) 1906, B.I. 1907,
Advocate, First Grade, Calcutta High
Court, 1886 Educ Cotton
College, Guwahati, Assam (F.A.), Pre-
sident, Calcutta (M.A.), Assn Lecturer in
College, Calcutta (B.L.), Assn Lecturer in
Chemistry Cotton College, Guwahati, 1908,
Presided as a lawyer in Guwahati courts,
1909-19, in the Calcutta High Court, 1920-24,
Member, Assam Legislative Council, 1913-20;
again since 1923; Minister, Assam Govern-
ment in charge of Education and Agriculture
1924-29; Member, Executive Council, Assam
Government in charge of Law and Order

1931: Off. Commander, Lahore District, Military Secretary, Army Headquarters, India, 1932 Promoted Major-General, April 1929, Fellow of Royal Geographical Society, Founder Member, Royal Institute of International Affairs (Chatham House), Founder Member of Himalayan Club, Bronze Medal of Royal Humane Society (1903) Officer of Norwegian Military Order of St Olaf (1909), Member of American Military Order of the Dragon (1901) Address Army Headquarters, Simla or Delhi.

TVABJI, HASAIN BAHADURJI, M.A. (Honours), LL.M. (Honours), Cantab. 1896; Barrister-at-Law, Second Judge, Presidency Court of Small Causes, Bombay. Acted Chief Judge Retired 11 October 1878. M. Niaz Mithun. mad. Rakhali. Educ. Anymanne-Islam, Bombay, St Xavier's School and College; Downing College, Cambridge. Practised in the Bombay High Court. Address: Marhabana-bad, Andheri.

TYLDER-PATTENSON, A. R. H. B. B. A. 1910, Member, Railway Board, 15 Nov 1888, M. Dorothy Margaret Glover Educ.: "Gresham, Norfolk. Had three years' training, Great Northern Railway, England, joined as probationer in Traffic Dept of G. I. P. Railway in 1908, was in charge of Great Northern Light Railway and subsequently worked as District Traffic Superintendent, G. I. P. Was Chairman Superintendent from 1922 to 1924, officiated as Deputy Traffic Manager and from 1925 to 1927 was Officiating Chief Traffic Manager, in 1928 was selected by Railway Board to organise the new department of State Railways Publicity and was Chief Publicity Officer, in 1929 he went on deputation to Europe and America to supervise the inauguration of extensive publicity schemes on behalf of Indian Railways, in March 1930 was appointed Chief Transport-Superintendent and in 1931 was made Agent Address: "Glenogle", 110 n t Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

T. J. J. SINGH, SARDAR, M. A. (Punjab) Landlord and Millowner, 27 Dec. 1895. D. Govt College, Lahore. Went to England in 1920 as member of Sikh Deputation to press the claims of the Sikh community before the Joint Parliamentary Committee; has been member of Shromani Gurdwara Committee since 1921, member of Address: Simla and Delhi.

Scientific papers on Air Navigation and Air Routes for Royal Aeronautical Society 1926, "Flying for Air Survey Photography", Part author, "Commercial Air Transport", Civil Aviation, India, 1931, Publications, Civil Aviation Department, 1928, Director, Route, 1927, Chief Technical Assistant, Superintendent of the Cairo-Karachi Air Navigation Department, 1919, Air Ministry Civil Air Force during war, Air Ministry Civil Regiment, Royal Flying Corps and Royal Home Civil Service, South Lancashire of Civil Aviation in India, 6 August 1889 or the Royal Aeronautical Society, Director Croix de Guerre (1917), Associate Fellow Order de la Couronne (1917), Belgian Chevalier, M. C. (1916), Chevalier, T. J. J. SINGH, SARDAR, M. A. (Punjab) Landlord and Millowner, 27 Dec. 1895. D. Govt College, Lahore. Went to England in 1920 as member of Sikh Deputation to press the claims of the Sikh community before the Joint Parliamentary Committee; has been member of Shromani Gurdwara Committee since 1921, member of Address: Simla and Delhi.

Khasia College Council and Managing Committee; Member, Indian Central Cotton Committee since 1926; elected member, Punjab Legislative Council; was member and Hon. Secretary of Punjab Reform Committee which co-operated with the Simon Commission, served on Punjab Unemployment Committee, Hydro-Electric Enquiry Committee, Punjab Betterment Committee, Punjab Compulsory Primary Education Committee, Resided over non-government schools, Conference, Punjab, 1928, was selected delegate for Round Table Conference, 1930, served on Federal Structure Committee, on the Business Committee of the Round Table Conference, was invited in 1931 to attend meetings of Federal Structure Committee and Minorities Committee of the R. T. Conference. Resided over Punjab Sikh Political Conference 1932, was appointed Member, Consultative Committee, 1932, Resided over Sikh Yonths Conference, 1933 Address: Mianbhuan, Punjab

VIJAY HAYAN KHAN TIWANA, THE HON. COLONEL NAWAB BAKHSH, SIR K. C. I. B. C. B. B. A. 1900, Member, Council or State, Member of the Council of the Secretary of State for India, Landlord, 1874 Educ. King Edward's Coronation Durbar at Delhi, served in Somaliland, joined Tibet Expedition; was attached to the late Amier of Afghanistan, attended King George's Coronation Durbar at Delhi, saw active service in the world war in France and Mesopotamia, Lions Star 1914, Member, Provincial Recruiting Board, represented Punjab, Delhi War Conference in 1916, served in the 3rd Kabul War (mentioned in despatches), made Colonel, Member, Father Committee, 1920; has been President of the National Horse Breeding and Show Society of India. Address: Karni, Dist Shabipur, Punjab.

URQUHART, DR. WILLIAM SPENCER, M.A., LL.B. (Hons. Calcutta), 1928-1930, Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University, 1928-1930, Scottish Church College since 1928, M. Margaret Macaskill, d of Rev M. Macaskill, Dingwall, Educ. Aberdeen University, New College, Edinburgh, Professor of Philosophy, Duff College, Calcutta, 1902, Scottish Churches Congress, 1908, Member, Indian Universities Congress, 1924 and 1929, Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Calcutta University, 1927 and 1931, Vice-Chancellor, University, 1927, Chairman of the Inter-University Board, India, 1931-32, Principal, Scottish Church College, since 1928, Publications: The Historical and the Value of Life, (1918); Pantheism and the Thought, (1922), Vedanta and Modern Thought, (1928), Contributor to Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics Address: Principal's House, Scottish Church College, Calcutta.

VIRBA DE CASTRO, Most Rev. THEOLOGICAL

MASTON RIZZO, D.D., B. C. Bishop

Archbishop of Goa and Patnach of the East

Indes since 1929 b Oporto, 1889. Educ.

Gregorian Univ., Rome. Address: Nova

Goa.

DR. S. F. K. B. E. (1920), Vice-Chairman,

Imperial Council of Agricultural Research

from 1923 b August 1875. Educ. Presidency

College, Madras joined Provincial Service,

1898, Revenue Officer, Madras Corporation,

from 1912 to 1917; Secretary to the Board

of Revenue, 1917-18; Director of Land

Records, 1918-19, Deputy Director of Indus-

tries, 1919-19, Deputy Director of Indus-

tries, 1919-19, Deputy Director of Indus-

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tries, 1919-19, Deputy Director of Indus-

tries, 1919-19, Deputy Director of Indus-

Ltd. and Sholapur S. & W. Co. Ltd. 1892-1931,

ex-Director, The Central Bank of India,

Director, Bharat Co. (1928) and ex-Director, the

Secundia Navigation Company. b. 2 Aug. 1844

in 1860, but widower since August 1883 Educ

Elphinstone Coll., Bombay, in Cotton Indus-

try, since 1874; for 30 years Bombay Mun-

icipal Corporation, 1901-02; for 45 years,

Mem., Bombay Millowners' Association Com-

mittee since 1880 and President in 1917 and

member, Bombay Imp. Trust since its forma-

tion in 1888 up to 1919; Pres. of 17th National

Congress, Calcutta, 1901; and of Belgaum

Prov. Conference, 1894; gave evidence before

Royal Commission on Indian expenditure in

1897; Trustee of Elphinstone Coll.; also

ex-Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber

and Bureau; was Gen. Sec., Indian National

Congress for 17 years from 1894; Trustee of

the Jubilee Technical Institute since 1902

and Hon. Sec. from 1909 to 1923; President

Western India Liberal Association from 1919-27;

was Secretary, Bombay Presidency Associa-

tion from 1885 to 1915 and President from

1915 to 1918. Was President of the first

Bombay Provincial Liberal Conference in

1922; is Chairman and Trustee of People's

Free Reading Room and Library since 1917;

Publications; Pamphlets on Indian Finance,

Current and Economic, Agricultural Condi-

tion of India, Railways, Currency, Temperance,

Liberty, Expenditure, etc.; formerly large

contributor to leading Indian newspapers

and journals for 45 years from 1875; also had

published History of Share Speculation

of 1883-84; Life of Pemchand Roychand and

of J. N. Tata; the Rise and Growth of the

Bombay Municipal Government, four papers

on Indian Commerce and Statistics and My

Recollections of Bombay (1860-75). Address

7/11 House, Keshavnagar Street, Bombay

WADIA, APPASAH BROTHERS, B.A. (Bom-

phology), Bar-at-Law, Professor of

Philosophy, University of Mysore and Sec-

etary, Inter-University Board India

6 June 1888 in Telukma Homeri Postwalla

College, Bombay; at the Middle Temple,

London, for Bar, at St Catherine's, Oxford,

for Diploma in Economics and Political

Science (with distinction); at Fitz William

Hall for Moral Science Tripos, Professor

of English and Philosophy at Wilson College,

Bombay, 1914; Lecturer in Psychology,

University of Bombay, 1914-16 Professor

of Philosophy, Mysore University since 1917

Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Mysore Univer-

sity, 1927-80; Offg. Director of Public Instru-

tion in Mysore, 1930-31, President of the All-

India Federation of Teachers' Associations at

Panna, 1926; President, Indian Philosophical

Congress at Dacca in 1930 Delegate of

the Mysore University to the Ruth Congress

of the Universities of the British Empire,

London and Edinburgh, 1931 President,

Fourth All-Karnataka Hindi

Conference, 1932 Secretary, Inter-University

Board since April 1932. Publications: The

Extinct of Benism; A Text-Book of Cris-

A Handbook of Moral Instruction for Teachers;

Civilisation as a Co-operative Adventure

(The Principal Miller Lectures in the University

of Madras 1932). Articles in Mind, Philoso-

Co., Agents, Morari Gokuldas S. & W. Co.,

Member, Council of State (1920); Member

and of Imperial Leg. Council (1915-16)

Member, Bombay Leg. Council (1915-16)

Government of the Imperial Bank of India (1920).

WACHA, Sir DINESH BHATT, Kt., J.P., a

Government of the Imperial Bank of India (1920).

Member, Bombay Leg. Council (1915-16)

and of Imperial Leg. Council (1915-16)

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and of Imperial Leg. Council (1915-16)

Member, Council of State (1920); Member

Civilisation as a Co-operative Adventure

(The Principal Miller Lectures in the University

of Madras 1932). Articles in Mind, Philoso-

ness in India since 1912 apptd. Consul for Siam at Bombay, 1926, Member, Legislative Council, Bombay, 1926-27, Vice-President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1927 and 1932 President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1929 and 1934 President, Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, 1920 Member, Legislative Assembly, 1920 Address Monte Rosa, Dadu Sett Hill, Bombay 6

WOODHEAD, SIR JOHN (ACKROYD), THE HON KCSI (1934), CIB (1931), Finance Member, Government of Bengal b 10 June 1881 in Alice Mary Wadsworth Educ Bradford Grammar School, Clare College, Cambridge Entered Indian Civil Service, 1904, Asst Magistrate and Collector, Mysore, 1904, Asst Magistrate and Collector, Hailakandi, 1904, Sub-Divisional Officer, Hailakandi, 1904, Asst Magistrate and Collector, 1904-10, Magistrate and Collector, Faridpur, 1911-15, Magistrate and Collector, Almora, 1916-17, Addl Judge, Alipur, 1917-18, First Land Acquisition Collector, Calcutta Improvement Trust, 1918-24, Offg Chairman, Improvement Trust, 1924, Finance Secretary, Government of Bengal, 1924-27, Joint Secretary, Commerce Department, Govt of India, 1927-28, Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India, 1928-32, Officiating (Commerce) Member, Government of India, 1931, Re-presented Government of India on Burma Round Table Conference, Finance Member, Government of Bengal, 1934 Address 15, Governor of Bengal, 1934 Address Wright, Sir WILLIAM OWEN, KT, OBE, VD, Director, Parry & Co Ltd, Madras, b 11 August 1882, in Barbours, d of the late R Smith, DIG, Madras Police, *India*

St Paul's School, London, Member, Madras Legislative Council, President, Local Board, Imperial Bank of India, Chairman, Madras Telephone Co, Trustee, Madras Port Trust, Chairman, Madras Chamber of Commerce, Chairman, Madras Branch European Association, Directors, various companies Address Bens Gardens, Adyar, Madras

YAIN, THE HON SRI LEE AH K-I-H, Bar-at-Law, MLC, Ex-President, Kangoon Corporation, MLC, Below of Kangoon University, Minister of Forests b April 1874, *India* Address Kangoon College and Cambridge, Address Kangoon Secretariat, Kangoon.

ZAFRULLAKHAN, CHANDRU SRI, MLC-KAD, KT (1935), BA (Honours), Punjab, LLB (Honours) London, Barrister-at-Law (Lincoln's Inn) Member for Commerce and Railways, Government of India b 6 Feb 1893 in Badrum, Missa Begum, eldest d of the late M S A Khan, ICS (Bihar and Orissa) Educ Government College, Lahore, King's College, and Lincoln's Inn, London, Advocate, Sialkot, Punjab, 1914-16, practised in Lahore High Court, 1916-31, Editor, "Indian Cases", 1916-32, Law Lecturer, Univ Law College, Lahore, 1919-1924, Member, Punjab Legislative Council, 1916-1932, Member, Punjab Provincial Delegates Committee, 1930 and 1931, Round Table Conference, 1930 and 1931, Member, Constitutive Committee, President, All-India Muslim League, 1931, Crown Counsel, Delhi Conspiracy Case, March 1931 or June, 1932 Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council, 1932 Publications "Indian Cases", the Criminal Law Journal of India; Reports of Punjab Criminal Review, Vol IV, and Fifteen Years' Digest Address Delhi and Simla

1935-36



NOBLES

AND

CHIEFS

PRINCES

INDIAN

AMONG

WHO'S WHO

SHRIMANT
VIJAYSINHRAO
RATESINHRAO
RAJE
BROSIE, RAJESABH OF
AKALKOT.

Born 13th. December 1915
Is a minor, 19 years old.

Passed the Diploma Examination of the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, attended for some time the Deccan College, Poona, and is at present receiving general and administrative education at Bangalore under the guardianship of Colonel E. V. Sarson, D S O. Shrimant Rajesabhab married on 23rd February 1934 Princess Kamla Raj (Shanta Devi) of Gwalior But unfortunately Shrimant Soubhagya Shanta Devi

Ranesabhab expired on 19th March 1934 at Akalkot

Area of State 498 Square miles
Population 92,605

Capital Town—Akalkot (Sholapur District).

The State for the purpose of administration is divided into a Taluka—Akalkot—and two Pethas—Pihv and Kuria. Owing to minority the State is at present administered by the Dowager Rani Sahab Shrimant Tarabai as Regent with the help of a Government Adviser and exercises wide powers as Regent

Judicial An independent High Court Bench established in 1931. **Educational** Primary education free to backward and depressed classes and girls of all castes and creeds. Free secondary education to girls. Scholarships and bursaries for secondary and higher education **Local Self Government** Municipality at Akalkot and Taluka District Local Board.

General A new Water Works scheme costing Rs 8 lakhs has been in progress. More than Rs 2½ lakhs are spent on this work. A new Girls' School at a cost of Rs 40,000 was completed. Town planning and removal of congestion in Akalkot town is in progress. **State's Reserve Balance** Rs 14,94,829 earmarked for programmes of Public works and needs of the Rajesabhab's family.

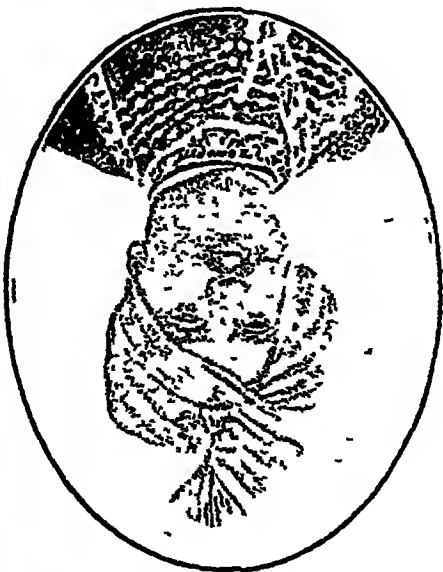
Government Adviser Rao Bahadur A. N. Pradhan, B A He is also on the High Court Bench
Dewan Mr V B Parulkar, B A. He is also the District Magistrate and District and Sessions Judge

Chief Police Officer Rao Bahadur S R Jagdale
State Engineer in charge Akalkot Water Works Mr. B. M. Bachhal, L C E



THAKORE SHREE KESHRI Singh the present Thakore Sahab of Ambahara is aged about 48 years and completed the Silver Jubilee of his reign in the month of May 1933. The rulers of Ambahara State are Chohan Rajputs, tracing their direct descent from Rajputs of Sam-bhar or Ajmer.

The State was acquired by the valour of the ancestors of the present Chief, during the reign of Aurangzeb (1658 to 1707) and they were famous for the heroic resistance they made more than once to the Galikwar troops. The State is entitled to receive tributes in the nature of Chasdana and Giras Haks from various States as also from the British Treasury



The State comprises of 36 villages covering an approximate area of 67 square miles *Population* nearly 11,000 *Revenue* of Rs 96,000. The State possesses Civil Powers to decide suits upto Rs 10,000, and Criminal Powers of giving imprisonment upto 2 years and fine upto Rs 5,000.

Owing to recent changes, the State has been brought under the direct control of the Government of India along with the other Alahi Kantha States

At present the Thakor Sahab has three sons, the eldest of whom Yuvraj Shree Sardarsinghji, is getting his educational training at the Talukdar Girassia College, Wadhwan Camp

Primary education is imparted free throughout the State and Medical Relief is also given free to the State people

Chief Officers of the State.—

(1) Mr TRVAMBAKLAL H SANGHVI, Chief Karbhari and Revenue Officer.

(2) Mr. BHOLASHANKER N GOR, B A, LL B Nyayadish.

(3) Mr LAKHMANSINH D. CHOWHAN, Chief Medical Officer.

SHRIMANT BHAVANRAO SHRINIWASRAO *alias* BALASAHEB PANT PRATIDHI, the Ruler of Aundh, is a graduate of the Bombay University and a treaty Chief. His age is 66 and is married to Shrimati Saubhagyawati Ramabai Sahab *alias* Mat-sahab from the Rode family of Poona.

Heir-Apparent: SHRI-MANT BHAGWANTRAO *alias* BAPUSAHEB is 15 years of age.

Shrimant Pantsahab is alive to the rapid progress going on in the civilized world. A Legislative Assembly was established in the State in 1924. Its strength consists of 39 members with a predominating popular element. The notable feature of the Assembly is that it includes two female members. The Assembly is competent to discuss any subject and pass resolutions without restrictions, while the Annual Budget is passed item by item.

By the Aundh State Act passed in 1931 a Darbar has been formed to run on the administration. It is a miniature executive council and consists of the Dewan of Aundh and the High Court Judge. An elected representative of the people is to be a member of the Darbar from 1935. He takes considerable interest in Rural Uplift and has been making vigorous efforts in that direction.

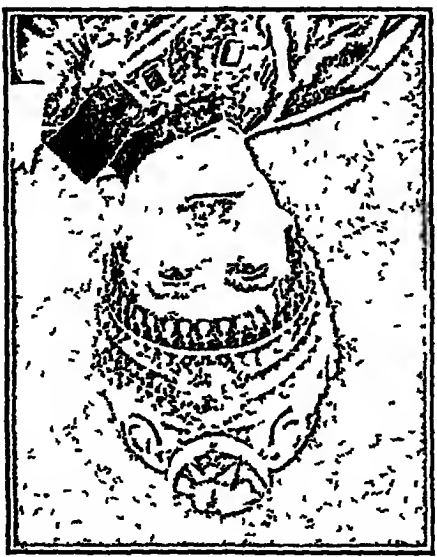
Shrimant Pantsahab is a keen student of drawing and painting and has edited Picture Venu, Pictorial Ajanta, Pictorial Ramayana and life of Shiva in three picture volumes. He also takes great interest in physical exercise and has written in English a book on the subject called "The Surya Namaskars."

The State possesses an independent High Court. Most of the villages have got Village Panchayats.



MAJOR DR HIS HIGHNESS
RUKN-UD-DAULA NUS-
SAY UD-
RAT-I-JANG
DAULA, HAFIZUL-MULK MUKHTAR-
UD-DAULA WA MUTI-UD-DAULA
NAWAB SIR SADIQ MOHAMMED
KHAN SARIB BAHADUR ABBASI
V, LLD, GCIE, KCSI,
KCVO, Nawab Ruler of
Bahawalpur

Born in 1904 Succeeded in
1907 Educated in Atchison
College, Lahore Married
in 1921 Invested with full Rul-
ing powers in 1924 A member
of the Standing Committee of
Indian Princes Chamber A D C
to Prince of Wales during his
Indian tour, 1921. Hon. Major
in the 21st K G O, Central
India Horse Visited Europe and
England, 1913-14, 1924, 1931,
1932 and 1933 Received by King-Emperor on each occasion



Largest Mohammedan State in the Punjab Direct descendant of
Abbade Kalphs of Baghdad and Cairo Her. Saribzada Moham-
med Abbas Khan Sarib Bahadur

Area . 22,000 square miles
Population 1,000,000
Revenue . Rs 85 lakhs.
Salute : 17 guns.

CABINET.

Prime Minister

IZZAT NISHAN INADUL-MULK, RAISUL-WUZRA KHAN BAHADUR
MR NABI BAKHSH MOHAMMED HUSAIN, M A, LL B, CIE, Bo-CS
P W & Revenue Minister
MR C A H TOWNSEND, CIE, ICS

Minister for Law & Justice.

RAIUSHAN IFUKHARUL MULK, LIBUT-COLONEL MAGBOOL HASSAN
KURRISHY, M A, LL B

Honie Minister

UMDAT-UL-UMARA ANINE-UL-MULK SARDAR HAJI MOHAMMED
AMIR KHAN

Army Minister

RAIUSHAN-SHUYAULNUK, LIBUT-GENERAL SAHIBZADA HAJI
MOHAMMED DILAWAR KHAN ABBASI, MBE, R I H

Minister for Commerce

DIWAN SUKHA NAND, R I H.

HIS HIGHNESS NAWAB SHAFI BAHADUR BABI SHRI JAMIAH KHAJI, the present ruler of Balasinor State, in the Gujarat Agency

Born. 10th November 1894

Educated. At the Raj Kumar College, Rajkot After finishing the full course at this College he joined the Imperial Cadet Corps, Dehra Dun He is a ruler of literary taste and can compose poetry in Urdu and Gujarati

Ascended the Gadi on 31st December 1915

Married. First with the daughter of Babi Shri Sher-Jumakhani Sahab, the heir-apparent of Junagadh State, but she died At present the Nawab Sahab has three Begum Sahabas. (1) Sardar-Begum Sahaba, (2) Khurshed-Begum Sahaba, (3) Zohra-Begum Sahaba. The senior Begum Sahaba, Sardar-Begum Sahaba, the daughter of the Thakor Sahab of Kervada, gave birth to a son in 1920, who unfortunately died in infancy The third Zohra-Begum Sahaba has given birth to a daughter

The Nawab Sahab comes of a very ancient and well-known Babi dynasty the members of which had enjoyed a very high social position at the time of the Mughal Empire and since that time till to-day the same magnificent position has been fully maintained and the British Government also have been always graciously pleased to protect the interests of the Ruling Family The Rulers of this noble clan have been famous not for their kingly pomp, dignity and splendour, but for the luxuriance of benevolence and exuberance of munificence throughout Gujarat and Kathiawar

Permanent Salute 9 guns The ruler has been granted a sanad of adoption He is also a member of the Chamber of Princes

Balasinor State is a second class State in the Bombay Presidency with highest Civil and Criminal powers

Area of the State 189 square miles

Population 52,525.



Nawab Mir Fazil Ali Khan Bahadur, the present Ruler of Banaganapalle, the only Muslim State in South India
Born 1901
 Installed on the Masnad of his ancestors on the 6th July 1922
Educated At St George Grammar School, Hyderabad, Deccan The Newington Institution, Madras, and the Mayo College, Ajmer Passed the Diploma Examination in 1920
Married The only daughter of his paternal uncle, Nawab Mir Asad Ali Khan Bahadur in 1924
 After the death of his first Begam Sahiba in the year 1928, the Nawab Sahib Bahadur re-married in the year 1930, a lady from the family of Nawab Salar Jung Bahadur
Recreation . Polo, Tennis and Cricket
 The Ruler exercises full control over the administration of the State During the short period of his rule, the present Nawab Sahib Bahadur has given practical proof of his keen interest in every branch of the administration and is striving hard to do everything that can be done for the welfare of his loving subjects The Nawab Sahib Bahadur is a member of the Chamber of Princes
New-Apparent. Nawab Mir Ghulam Ali Khan Bahadur, born 12th October 1925
Salute : 9 guns
Area of the State 275 square miles
Annual Revenue Rs 4 lakhs
 There are diamond deposits in the State, also copper and coal mines. "Labour is cheap, water supply plentiful and conditions of working ideal" is the view expressed by Geologists about the Diamond mines The chief food grain is cholium

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan

Mir Iqbal Hussain Sahib Bahadur, B.A, B.L
Ministry **Khazi Ghulam Mahamood Sahib**
Tahsildar. **Syed Iqbal Sahib**, B.A
Magistrate **Syed Ali Nagui Sahib**



Nawab Mir Fazil Ali Khan Bahadur, the present Ruler of Banaganapalle, the only Muslim State in South India
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HIS HIGHNESS
MAHARAJA SHREE
INDRASINGHI PRATAP-
SINGHI, Ruler of the Bansda
State in Gujarat, belongs to
the Solanki clan of Rajputs
and traces his descent from
Siddhraj Jaysinh, the famous
and illustrious Emperor of
Gujarat in the twelfth century
Born 16th February 1888
Educated at the Rajkumar
College, Rajkot
Accession to Gadi 11th
November 1911
Married. A S Shreemati
Anandkumverba Sahiba,
daughter of Raoji Shree of
Manasa
Clubs
Willingdon Club,
Bombay, Hindu Gymkhana, Bombay, Shree Digvij Club, Bansda
Heir

1st October 1927.
Area of State 215 Square Miles
Revenue Rs 7,58,538
His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes in his own
right

RELATIVES.

Brother **RAJKUMAR SHREE PRAVINSINGHI**
Nephews **K S NARENDRASINGHI, K S. GNANSHYAMSINGHI,**
K S VIKRAMSINGHI, K S BHUPENDRASINGHI, K S PRADUMANSINGHI,
K S NRUPENDRASINGHI

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan **H P BUCH, BA, LL B**
Chief Medical Officer **V B MOHITE, L M & S**
Private Secretary **MR G I PUROHIT**
Revenue Officer **MR V K MOHITE**
Treasury Officer. **MR T B UPADHYAY**
Nyayadhashi **A N VANSIA, BA, LL B**
Forest Officer **B H UPADHYAY, DDR**
Police Superintendent **MR H B DURANI.**
State Physician. **DR B L TRIVEDI, MBBS, DTM**
Inspector of Schools **MR R ADHVARYU**
Head Master **T P BUCH, BA**
Riyasat Officer **MR F R JADEJA**
Auditor. **R M GANDHI, FCS (London)**
Abkari Supervisor. **MR G. K DESAI**
Garden Superintendent **A S MAHAPUZE, F.R.H.S (London)**
Mechanical Engineer **MR DHANII MAVJI**

MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS
RANJITSINGH I,
KCSI, Ruler of Baria

Born 10th July 1886
Educated At Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Imperial Cadet Corps College, Dehra Dun, and in England

Married. In 1905 to Shrimant Taktakunverba Sahab, daughter of His late Highness the Maharaja of Rajppla

In 1918 to Shrimant Dilhar-kunverba Sahab, a niece of His late Highness the Maharaja

Sahab of Rajppla
Succeeded to the Gadi: 20th February 1908 Assumed full Ruling Powers May 1908

Served in France and Flanders during the Great European War (1914-18) and also during the Third Afghan War (1919).

Second Son Raj Kumar Shree Heersinghji
Grandson, eldest son of *Heir-Apparent* **RAJ KUMAR SHREE**

FAMILY. Chohan Rajputs lineal descendants of the renowned Rava-paties, Rulers of Gujrat with their capital at Champaner

The State pays no tribute either to the British Government or any other State, and receives Chauth of Dohad, Kalol and Halol Talukas of the Panch Mahals from the British Government

Area of State: 813 square miles.
Gross Average Revenue Twelve lacs
Salute. Permanent 9; Personal 11

Recreation. Pig-sticking, Polo, Tiger-hunting, etc

ADMINISTRATION.

Dewan. Rao Bahadur Mottal L Parekh, MA, LL B

Officer Commanding State Forces: LT-COL MAHARAJ NAHARSINGHJI

Rajharach Officer SARDAR Z N. GOHEL

Personal Staff Officer. Captain KALLANSINGH

Sar Nyayadhishta and First Class Magistrate. U. J SHAH, Esq.

BA, LL B

Nyayadhishta and First Class Magistrate. M V. SHETH, Esq

M.C.P.S

Medical Department. Dr J. H KUMBHANI, MBBS, D.T.M.

Electrical Department. M L PATEL, Esq, D.F.H (London).

P. W D Department. C. S. MALKAN, Esq, B.E. (Civl), A.M.I.E

Education Department. G. L. PANDYA, Esq, M.A, B.T.

Banking Department. CHANDULAL N SHAH, Esq





HIS HIGHNESS FARZAND-I-KHAS-I-DOWLAT-I-ENGLI-SHA MAHARAJA SIR SAYAJI RAO GAEKWAR SENA KHAS KHET SAMSHER BAHADUR, GCSI, GCIE, LL D, Maharaja of Baroda

Born. 1863. Ascended the gadi 1875, Invested with full powers in 1881

Educated Privately

Married In 1880 Shri Chinnabai Sahab, a princess belonging to the House of Tanjore, who died in 1885.

Married Second time in 1885, Shri Chinnabai Sahab of the Chatge family of the Dewas State

Attended the Round Table Conference, 1930, 1931 The Minister was deputed to the third session of the Round Table Conference by His Highness, 1932

Publications

- (1) From Caesar to Sultan; (2) Famine notes, (3) Speeches, (4) Selected letters

Recreation. Billiards, tennis, shooting, tiger-hunting, etc
Address Baroda, Gujerat, Western India
Her: SHRIMANT YUVARAJ PRATAPSINH GAEKWAR
Area of the State 8,164 square miles
Population 2,443,007 (1931)
Revenue Rs 270 to lakhs
Salute 21 guns

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

President

SIR V T KRISHNAMMA CHARI, KT, C I E, Dewan

COUNCILLORS.

SHRIMANT YUVARAJ PRATAPSINH GAEKWAR (*Kayma Sachiv*)
 RAO BAHADUR RAMLAL HIRALAL DESAI, B.A. LL B (*Mantra Sachiv*)
 MANJIL BALABHAI NANAVATI, B.A. LL B, M A (PENN) (*Mantra Sachiv*)
 GOPAL KRISHNA DANDEKAR, B.A, LL B, *Legal Representative*
 BHADRASINH ANANDRAO GAEKWAD, B A, LL B. (CAMP),
Bar-at-law

His Highness DEVI-SINGHI, RANA SAHEB of Barwani (Minor), Central India.

Born . On 19th July 1922.

Ascended the gadi on 21st April 1930.

Sisodia Rajput and a descendant of the Udaipur Rukhng House None of the rulers of Barwani was

ever a tributary of any of the Malwa Chieft.
Being educated at Daly College, Indore.
Area of State 1,178 square miles

Area of State 1,178 square miles

Population: 141,110.

Revenue About Rs 12 lacs

Salute II guns.

State Council appointed by Government to carry on Minority Administration.

Dewan and President.

DIWAN BAHADUR H. N. GOSALIA, M A , LL B

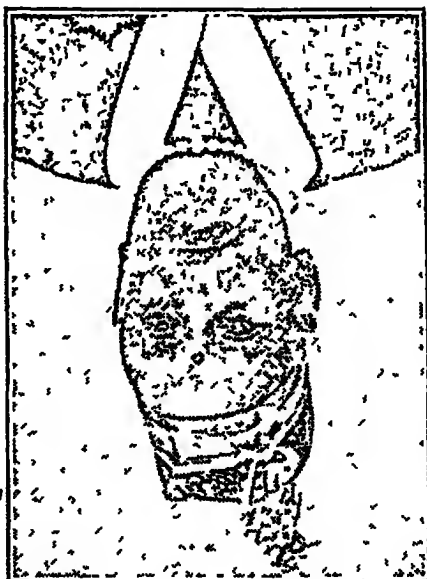
Revenue Member.

KHAN BAHADUR MEHERJIJI HOJMUJI

Judicial Member.

RAI SAHEB M. S. DUTT CHOWDHARY, B.A., LL B





C **SIR ADITYA NARAIN SINGH BAHADUR, KCSI,** the present Ruler of Benares

Born On 17th November, 1874

Received liberal education in Sanskrit, Persian and English and is a great reader of books

In his fondness for Shikar specially big game His Highness takes closely to his father the late Maharaja Sir Prabhu Narain Singh Bahadur. He is also a good rider and used to play polo in his earlier days

His Highness possesses a thorough insight into the details of administration relating to all the important Departments and always devotes a considerable portion of his time to State work. He is readily accessible to all his subjects high or low and likes to hear all that they have to say.

The Kingdom of Benares under its Hindu Rulers existed from time immemorial and finds mention in the Hindu

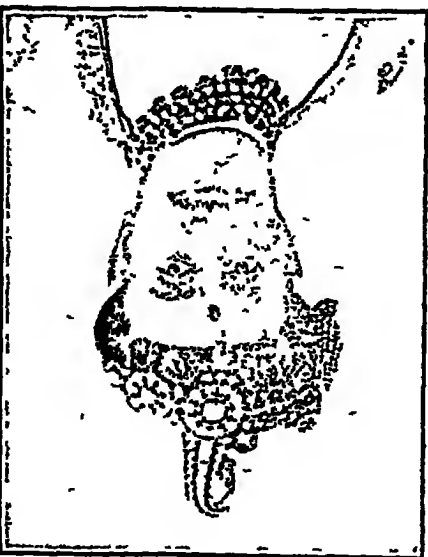
and Buddhist literature. In the 13th century it was conquered by Sahab-ud-din Ghori and formed a separate province of the Mohammadan Empire. In the 18th century when the power of Moghal Emperors declined after the death of Aurangzeb, Raja Manasa Ram an enterprising Zamindar of Gangapur (Benares District) obtained a Sanad from the Emperor Mohammad Shah of Delhi in the name of his son Raja Balwant Singh in 1738 and founded the Benares State, which comprised the four Sarkars of Benares, Ghazipur, Jaunpur and Chunar. Raja Manasa Ram died in 1740 and his son Balwant Singh became the virtual ruler. During the next 30 years attempts were made by Saladar Jung and after him by Shuja-ud-daula of Oudh to destroy the independence of the Raja but the latter withstood them successfully, strengthened his position and built the Fort of Ramnagar on the bank of the Ganges opposite the Benares City. Raja Balwant Singh died in 1770 and was succeeded by his son Chet Singh. He was expelled by Warren Hastings. Balwant Singh's daughter's son Mahip Narain Singh was then placed on the Gaddi. The latter proved an unbecome and there was maladministration which led to an agreement in 1794 by which the lands held by the Raja in his own right, recognised by the British Government, were separated from the rest of the province. The direct control of the latter province was assumed by the British Government under an arrangement by which the surplus revenue of the province which was worked out at the time to be one lac rupees was granted to the Raja while the former constituted the Domains. Within the Domains the Raja had revenue powers similar to those of a Collector in a British District. There was thus constituted what for over a century was known as the Ramly Domains of the Maharaja of Benares. On the 1st of April, 1911, the major portion of these Domains became a State consisting of the pergunas of Bhadohi and Chakia (or Kera Mangraur). The town of Ramnagar and its neighbouring villages were ceded by the British Government to the Maharaja in 1918 and became part of the State. The State now consists of three districts, viz., Bhadohi, Chakia and Ramnagar.

The British system of administration in the U P is closely followed. The Diwan or Chief Minister is designated the Chief Secretary.

Her apparent Maharaj Kumar Bishnu Narain Singh, born on 5th November, 1927 Adopted by His Highness the Maharaja as his son and successor on 24th June, 1934.

SHRIMANT RAGHUNATHRAO SHANKARRAO *alias* BABA-SAHAB PANDIT PANT SAHIV, MADARUL-MAHAM (most faithful) Ruler of Bhore *Founder of Dynasty*—Shankaraji, member of Cabinet (ministry) of Eight, Chhatrapati Rajaram's time 1698 *Present Ruler* Born, 1878 Education, Collegiate Ascended Gadi, 1922 Representative member of Princes' Chamber (7 years) Trip to England and Continent of Europe, 1930 Audience with King-Emperor

His SHRIMANT SADASHIV-RAO *alias* BHAVSARAB, B A



State Matters Area 910 sq. miles *Population* 141,546. *Revenue*. Rs 6,92,916. 9 guns Dynastic Salute bestowed for excellent administration and loyal and whole-hearted co-operation with British Government, 1927 Ruler enjoys full Internal Powers Reforms and improvements —

Administrative. Executive Council system started, 1925. Legislative Council established, 1928 and non-official majority and non-official Vice-President granted, 1933 Privy purse moderately fixed.

Judicial. An Independent High Court's Scheme inaugurated, 1928.

Educational: Primary Education made free, 1922. Scholarships and Freeships for higher education founded. Library built at Bhore, 1928. Shrimant Babasahab is President of Poona Boy Scouts' Association.

Local Self-Government Institutions: Bhore Municipality reconstituted and election-right granted, 1929 Taluka Local Boards established, 1932.

General: A big bridge over Nira built, 1932 The State rendered varied and valuable help to Government in the construction of Lloyd Dam at Bhatghar.

HIS HIGHNESS BHARAT
DHARAM-INDU

MAHARAJA SAWAI SIR SAWANT
SINGH BAHADUR, K C I E, of

Byawar.

Born, 25th November
1877, ascended the Gadi
first into the Bundelkhandi
Ponwar family of Sonrai in
Jhansi district and secondly
in 1913 into that of Diwan
Gajraj Singh, a jagirdar of
Datia State who belongs to
Karabuya family

Son MAHARAJ KUMAR AMAN SINGHJI

Area of the State: 973 square miles

Population . 115,852

Gross revenue . 3½ lakhs

Salute . 11 guns

Railway Station Harpalpur, G I P Railway, 57 miles Jorly
service

ADMINISTRATION.

Revenue Officer:

L. RAGHUBIR CHAND

Nazim.

MR. LAXMI NARAYAN,

B.A, LL.B.

Superintendent of Police:

M GULAB KHAN.

Diwan

SARDAR BASHESHAH SARUP.

Chief Secretary

PANDIT MAHADEO RAO.

Private Secretary .

AITMAD-UD-DAWLAH

M. RAFAT ALI QURRESHI.

Bundi One of the most picturesque towns in Rajputana
Ruler His Highness
 Harendra Shrivaman Deo Sar
 Bhand Rai Maharao Raja
 Ishwari Singh Bahadur
Born 8th March 1893,
 succeeded to the Gaddi on
 8th August 1927
Educated . Privately
Her-apparent Maharaj
 Kumar Bahadur Singh
 His Highness is the head
 of the Hada clan of Chauhan
 Rajputs and stands fourth in
 order of precedence amongst
 the Princes of Rajputana



Area of State 2,220 square miles Population in 1931, 2,16,722
Revenue Rs. 12,98,000 Hali and Rs 3,51,000 Kaldar
Salute : 17 guns. Annual tribute to Government Rs 1,20,000

COUNCIL.

Dewan and Finance Member . Major W F Webb, I A
Judicial Member Pandit Deoki Nandan Chaturvedi,
 B A, LL B .

Revenue Member . Thakur Mahendra Singh Ranawat
Home Member - Kanwar Sheonath Singh
Member without Portfolio . Munshi Khadii Hussain.

HIGH OFFICIALS OF THE STATE.

Private Secretary Mr Sohan Lal R Jhamaria
Inspector General of Police Pandit Wasreshar Nath Datla
Chief Medical Officer Dr D N Ahluwalia, M B
Accountant General Pandit Muket Behari Lal Bhargava.
Superintendent of Customs and Forests Thakur Manipal
 Singh
Sessions Judge Pandit Jagmohan Nath Tikku, B A, LL B.

HIS HIGHNESS NAZAMUD-DAULAH MUMTAZ-UL-MULK MOMIN-KHAN BAHADUR DILAVARJUNG NAWAB MIRZA HUSAIN YAVAR KHAN BAHADUR, Nawab of Cambay (A First Class State with powers to try capital offences) is a Mogul of Shah Faith, of the Nazam-i-Sani Family of Persia

Born: 16th May 1911
Succeeded to the Gadi on 21st January 1915. Ascended 13-12-30 (With full powers)
Educated: At Rajkumar College, Rajkot, till April 1928; spent a year in Europe accompanied by his tutor and companion.

Area of State. 392 sq miles.

Population. 87,761 (Census 1931)

Revenue. Rs. 13 lakhs (on the average of the last 5 years)

Salute. 11 guns

Political Relations—With the Government of India, through Agent to the Governor-General, Gujarat States, Baroda His Highness has prescribed a schedule of subjects in which His Highness has got plenary powers of disposal for joint deliberations with the Dewan and the Private Secretary. Thus a miniature Cabinet form of Government has been introduced as a first step towards reform

Dewan

KHAN BAHADUR FRAMROZ SORABJI MASTER, B A
Private Secretary.

LT-COLONEL H. S. STRONG, C.I.E.

Chief Revenue Officer.

RAO SAHEB PURSHOTTAM JOGIBHAI BHATT, B A, LL.B.

Sar Nyayadhash.

MAGANLAL CHELABHAI MEHTA, Esq., B A, LL B.

HIS HIGHNESS RAJA RAM SINGH, the present Ruler of Chamba State, is a Rajput of the Surabansi Race and the progenitors of the dynasty have ruled in Chamba for fourteen hundred years

Born 17th October 1880, ascended the Gadi in September 1919, installed in May 1920.

Educated. In Chamba and in the Aitchison College, Lahore



Married: The daughter of Raja Raghunath Singh of Jaswan in 1912.

Recreation. Shooting, Tennis, Cricket, Hockey and Football.

Her-Apparent. Shri Tikka Lakshman Singh, born 17th October 1924

Substitute: 11 guns.

Address Chamba, Punjab, India

Chief Secretary DIWAN BAHADUR LALA MADHO RAM

Area of the State: 3,216 square miles

Population: 146,870

Revenue. Rs 9,00,000

Chamba is one of the oldest principalities in India and has been ruled by the same dynasty since its foundation in A D 550.

H IS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI NATWARJI FATEHSINGH, Ruler of Chota Udupur State in Gujarat, is a Chohan Rajput and traces his descent from the renowned Patali Kawal of Pavagadh

Born 16th November 1906.

Succeeded to the Gadi On 29th August 1923

Was invested with full powers on 20th June 1928

Educated At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Married In 1927, Shri Padmakumver Basahab, the daughter of His Late Highness The Maharaja Sahab of Rajpipla, and after her demise on 10th April 1928, married second time on the 5th December 1928, Shri Kusumkumver Basahab, daughter of H H The Maharaja Sahab of Rajpipla.

H H is a member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right

Visited Europe in 1926

Near Relations BROTHER, Lt MAHARAJ NARAKSINGH.

Area of the State 890 34 square miles

Population 1,44,640

Gross Average Revenue 13,10,259.

Salute 9 Guns

Clubs Willingdon Sports Club, Bombay, W I. Turf Club, Bombay, British Union Club, London, S F Gymkhana, Chhota Udupur

Recreation Shooting, Cricket, Riding, etc.

Tribute The State pays Rs 7,805 to H. H The Maharaja Gokwad of Baroda and it receives Tankas or tribute from the Estates of Chorangla, Gad, Bhaka, Khareda and Choramal.

There are manganese mines in the State The State owns Railway in its limits There are telephone connections in the Town and Taluka Head Quarters In the capital there are electric and Water Works There is also a Dak Bungalow.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan Rao SAHEB JAINNADAS D MEHTA, BA, LL B

Revenue Officer Mr NATWARLAL D PARIKH, MA, LL B,

B Com, F R E S

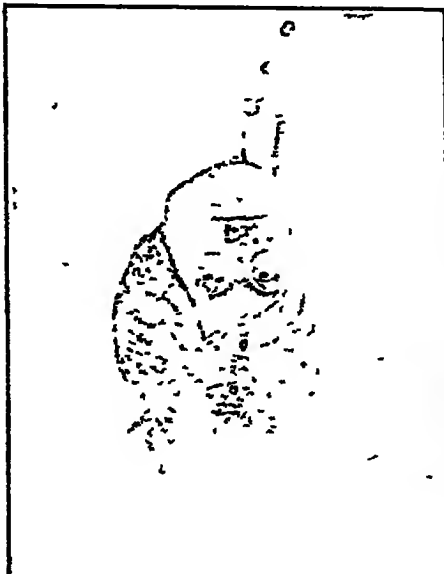
First Class Magistrate and Nyayadhishta, Mr CHANDRASHEKHAR I MEHTA, BA, LL B

Superintendent of Police K S RAISINHI C CHOWAN.

Chief Medical Officer and Jail Superintendent DR. R M DAVE, M B B S

State Engineer Mr MORARJI C KUPPRA, L C E.

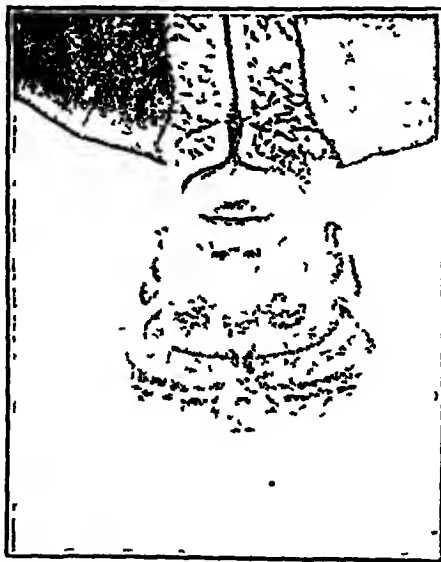
Forest Officer Mr N D AIYENGAR



HIS HIGHNESS SIR SRI RAMA VARMA, G C I F, Maharaja of Cochin.
Born. 30th December 1861.
Ascended the Musnad 25th March 1932.

Educated Privately.
Her: His Highness Kerala Varma, Elaya Raja

Cochin is a maritime Indian State lying in the south-west corner of India. It has an area of 1,480.28 sq. miles and a population of 1,205,016. It is bound-



ed on the north by British Malabar, on the east by Malabar, Coimbatore and Travancore, on the south by Travancore and on the west by Malabar and the Arabian Sea. In point of Education the State takes the 2nd place among the Indian States and Provinces. It owns 3 Colleges, 46 High Schools, 103 Lower Secondary Schools and 886 Primary Schools.

The State maintains 53 Hospitals and Dispensaries. Local administration is carried on by four Municipalities in the four important towns and 86 Panchayats in the Villages

The Government of the State is carried in the name and under the control of His Highness the Maharaja who is the fountain head of all authority in the State. The Chief Minister and Executive Officer of the State is the Diwan. To help the Government a Legislative Council with a predominant non-official majority has been constituted.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 17 guns

The present Diwan of the State is Sir R. K.

Shanmugham Chetty, K C I E

HIGHNESS
SHRI
MAHARAJA
BHAWANI
SAHR BAHADUR, Danta
State, Rajputana.

Born. 13th September
1899 A.D. The Ruling family
of Danta belongs to the
celebrated clan of Parmar
Rajputs. The founder of the
State, His Highness Mahara-
naji Shri Jasraj, came from
Sind and established the State
by way of conquest in 1068
A.D.

Educated. At the Mayo
College, Ajmer.
Ascended the Gadi 10th
March 1926.

Area of the State. 347 sq miles **Population.** 26,172

Revenue. Rs 1,77,075 **Salute.** 9 guns hereditary.

The State enjoys full plenary powers, and the Ruler as a
Member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right. Succes-
sion to Gadi is governed by primogeniture

Her-Apparent. Maharajakumar Shri Pitturaj Singhji
Sahab Bahadur, born 22nd July 1928
Maharaj Kumar Shri Madhusudan Singhji, born 31st May
1933

Maharaj Kumar Shri Raghuvar Singhji, born on 4th
December 1934

Places of interest. Shri Ambaji, Shri Koteswarji and Shri
Kumbharaji are the places of interest and holy pilgrimage.

STATE OFFICERS.

Dewan Mr RAMPRASAD BAPALAL DIVANJI, B.A. (Retired
Senior Superintendent and Acting Assistant Secretary to the
Government of Bombay, Revenue Department)
Naiab-Dewan MAHARAJ SHRI PRITHI SINGHJI SAHR
Revenue Commissioner. MAHARAJ SHRI NARAYAN SINGHJI
SAHR

Private Secretary. BABU BISHRAM SINGHJI.
First Class Magistrate: MR. P. P. DESAI, B.A., LL.B.
Assistant Revenue Commissioner: MR. R. P. KANHERRE, B.Ag.
Medical Officer: DR. S. M. RAO, M.B.B.S.

MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS
MAHARAJA LOKEN-
DRA SIR GOVIND-
SINH JU DEO BAHADUR,
G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Ruler
 of Datta

Born. 1886 **Ascended**
 the Gadi on 5th August
 1907.

His Highness is a Patron
 of St. John Ambulance
 Association, Vice-Patron of
 National Horse Breeding
 and Show Society, Vice-
 President of Red Cross
 Society and All-India Baby
 Week Society, Vice-Patron

of Girl Guide Association, Indian Empire, Member of Cricket
 Club, India, besides being a member of several Societies,
 Associations and Clubs.

He contributed about 7 lakhs during the War, has
 presented Lord Reading's statue to the Imperial Capital,
 Delhi, and has built several beautiful buildings of public
 utility in his own capital including Lord Hardinge Hospital
 and Lady Willingdon Girls' School

Besides shooting several big game in South-East Africa
 in 1912-13 he has shot 154 tigers in India.

His Highness celebrated his Silver Jubilee in 1933

Constitution: The administration is carried on through
 the Chief Minister, who is the central administrative
 authority. The Chief Minister is assisted by the Heads of
 departments and advised by the Legislative Council which
 was constituted in 1924

Chief Minister SIR AZIZUDDIN AHMED, K.T., C.I.E.,
 O.B.E., I.S.O., K.B.

Area of the State: 912 square miles.
Population: 158,834.

Revenue: About Rs. 18 lakhs.

Address: Datta, Central India.



HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA ANAND RAO PUAR SAHAB BAHADUR (Minor), Ruler of Dhar State, C I

Born: 24th November, 1920. Adopted by Her late Highness the Dowager Maharaj Sahaba, D.B.E., on 1st August, 1926.

Succeeded to Gadi: On the 1st of August, 1926.

Education: His Highness is receiving education at the Daly College, Indore, under the guidance of an European Graduate and Tutor, Captain M. S. Harvey Jones.

Salute. 15 guns.

Area of the State. 1,800 24 square miles.

Average Revenue of the State. Rs 30,00,000 including revenue of the Khasgi, Thakurates, Bhunmats and Jagirs, etc Population: 243,521.

Railway Station: Mhow—33 miles. Rutlam—60 miles on B B & C I Lines

COUNCIL OF ADMINISTRATION.

Dewan and President, Council of Administration of the State and Khasgi Kavbhari.

Dewan Bahadur K. NADKAR.

Member (without Portfolio) of the Executive Council Rao Bahadur Shrimant Mahara] Setu Ramji SAHAB PUAR Home and Revenue Member.

MR RAGHUNATH SAHAI

Ministry Member:

MR RAGHUNATH SAHAI (Acting)

Judicial Member.

MR M N KHORRY, B A, LL.B

Consultative Member and Assistant to the Dewan in the Finance Branch:

RAJ SEVA SAKTA MR VENKAT RAO C PATKAR

Consultative Members:

PANDIT PURNASHANKAR RAO JOTISHI.

THAKUR JASWANT SINGHI OF BIDWAL

Durbar and Council Secretary:

MR B S BAPAT, M A, LL.B.

HIS HIGHNESS
VIJAYADEVI MOHANDEVI
RANA, Raja Sahab of
Dharampur.

Born : 1885

Ascended the Gadh 1921

Educated at the Raj-
kumar College, Rajkot

Married in 1905 A S

Rasikunverba, daughter

of His Highness Maharana

Shri Gambhirsingh, Maharaja Sahab of Rajpura, and after
her demise in 1907 A S Manharkunverba, daughter of

Kumar Shri Samantsingh of Palitana

Heir : MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI NARHARDEVI

Area of the State : About 800 square miles.

Population : About 115,000.

Revenue : Rs. 12½ lakhs

Salute : 11 guns personal

SECRETARIAT SYSTEM.

Political Secretary :

MR. DULABH DAS VITHAL DAS SARAAYA, B A, LL B

Huzur Personal Assistant :

MR. BHOGILAL JAGIVAN MODY.

Revenue Secretary .

MR. SHANTISHANKER JESHANKER DESAI, B A.

General Secretary

MR. PRANLAL DULABHI KAMDAR, B A, LL B



L T-COL. HIS HIGHNESS
RAIS-UD-DAULA SIPAH-
DAR-UL-MULK SARAMAD
RAY HAI HIND MAHA-
RAJADHIRAJA SRI SAWAI
MAHARAJ RANA SIR UDAI
BHAN SINGH LOKINDAR
BAHADUR, DIER JANG JAI
DEO, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.,
K.C.V.O., Maharaj Rana of
Dholpur.
Born. On 12th February
1893
Succeeded. To the Gadi
in March 1911 and assumed
full ruling powers in 1913

His Highness was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma examination and won several prizes.

Married To the daughter of the Sardar of Badrukha in Jind State. **Area of State :** 1,221 square miles.
Population. 2,54,986. **Revenue :** Rs. 16,78,000.
Salute : Permanent 15 guns and personal 17 guns.

STATE COUNCIL.

President : H H THE MAHARAJ RANA BAHADUR
NAWAB RUSTAM ALI KHAN
Political Secretary A. N. THORPE, ESQ.
Revenue Secretary : R. S. R. B. MUNSHI KUNJ BEHARI LAL.

Financial Secretary : PANDIT KALADHAR TEWARI.
Personal Secretary : RAI SAHIB MUNSHI DIN DAYAL, B.A.
Military Secretary : LT.-COL. SARDAR RAGHUBIR SINGH.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI SIR GHANSHYAM SINGH, K.C.S.I., Maharaja Raj Sahab of Dhrangadhra in Kathiawar

Born. In 1889, and succeeded to the Gadi in 1911

Educated Rajkumar College, Rajkot and later in England with private tutors under guardianship of Sir Charles Ollivant

Married: Five times Has three sons (1) Maharaj Yuvraj Kumar Shri Mayurdhwajsinhji, (2) Maharaj Kumar Shri Virendrasinhji, (3) Maharaj Kumar Shri Dharmendrasinhji



Area of the State 1,167 square miles exclusive of the State's portion of the Lesser Rann of Cutch Population: 88,961 Annual Revenue Rs 25,00,000 Dynastic Salute 13 Guns

STATE COUNCIL (Members).

Revenue Member RANA SHRI SABATSINHJI S JHALA
Finance Member RAO SAHEB CHIMANLAL A MEHTA, B.A., S.T.C.
Military Member RANA SHRI JASWANTSINHJI D. JHALA
Political Member ANANTRAI N MANKER, MA
Huzur Secretary RAJ RANA SHRI NARSISINHJI, P JHALA
Secretary to the Council BALASHANKER M BHATT, High Court Pleader
Chief Agricultural Products. Cotton, Jowar, Bajri and Wheat

Principal Industries.

Salt and Manufacture of Soda Alkalies at Shri Shakti Alkali Works, Dhrangadhra, which is the first and only work of the kind in India

HIS HIGHNESS RAJ-RAVAN, MAHI-MA-HENDRA, MAHARAJADHI-RAJ MAHARAWAL SHRI LAKSHMAN SINGHI BAHADUR of Dungarpur belongs to the Ada branch of the Sisodia Rajputs The Rulers of Dungarpur are descended from Samant Singh, elder son of Kshem Singh, who ruled over Mewar in the beginning of the 13th century of the Vikram era



Born 1908.

Ascended the Gadi. 1918.

Educated : At the Mayo College, Ajmer. -

Married In 1920 to the daughter of the late Raja of Bhinga in U P and a second time in 1928 to a Princess of Kishengarh, the second daughter of His late Highness Maharaja Madan Singhi Bahadur of Kishengarh.

Heir . MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI MAHIPAL SINGHI BAHADUR

Area of State . 1,460 square miles.

Population : 2,27,000.

Average Revenue : Rs 8,85,000.

Salute : 15 guns.

LEBURNANT HIS HIGH-
NESS FARZAND-I-SADAT
NISHAN HAZRAT-I-KAI-
SAR-I-HIND RAJA HARINDAR
SINGH BRAH BANS BAHADUR,
Ruler of Faridkot State

Born On 29th January
1915

Succeeded to the Gadi Dec
1918 His Highness assumed
full ruling Powers on 17th
October 1934

Educated At the Archeson
Chiefs' College Lahore, where
he had a brilliant academic
career Passed the Diploma
Test with distinction in the year

1932, standing 1st in his college in English and winning the Godley
Medal, and the Watson Gold Medal for Histories and Geography
His Highness received practical Administrative and Judicial training
in his State

In December 1933 His Highness successfully completed a course of
Military training at Poona with the Royal Decan Horse His Highness
is a keen sportsman and fond of all manly games especially of Polo
Married The daughter of Sardar Bahadur Sardar Bhagwant
Singh Sahib of Bhareli, Ambala District in February 1933

Salute 11 guns
Area of State 643 square miles
Population 1,64,346
Gross-Income 18 Lakhs

Kanwar Manjit Indar Singh Sahib Bahadur —
The younger brother of His Highness the Raja Sahib Bahadur
born on 22nd February 1916, educated at the Archeson College, Lahore,
is Military Secretary to His Highness the Raja Sahib Bahadur since

Chief Secretary Sardar Bahadur Sardar Indar Singh, B A
Home Secretary Sardar Bahadur Sardar Fateh Singh
Judicial and Revenue Secretary Lala Har Gobind, P C S (Retired)
Under Secretary S Nazar Singh, B A, LL B



H IS HIGHNESS SHREE BHAGVAT SINGH JEE, M.D., G.C.I.E., F.R.C.P.E., F.R.C.P., D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S.E., M.R.A.S., M.R.I. (G.B.), F.C.P. & S.B., H.P.A.C., Fell. Bom University, Maharaja Thakore Sahab of Gondal

Born 1865

Assumed Full Powers, 1884

Educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and at the University of Edinburgh.

His Highness was married to Nandkumverba, the daughter

of H H Maharana Shri Naran Devji of Dharanpur

Author of "A History of Aryan Medical Science," A Journal of a visit to England

Her YUVARAJ SHRI BHOFRAJI

Area of State 1,024 square miles
Population : 2,05,846
Revenue Rs. 50,00,000
Salute 11 guns

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Khangri Karbhari P P BUCH.

Secretary : Miss J D RATHOD, BA
Huzur Secretary P B JOSHI, BA

Nyaya Mantri. T P SAMPAT, BA, LL B

Sav Nyayadhashi K J SANGHANI, BA, LL B

Vasulati Adhikari P W. MEHTA, BA

Manager and Engineer-in-Chief. J M PANDYA, B Sc (Edin), AMIE

Police Superintendent. H. S SANGHANI

Bandhkhani Adhikari J P PARIKH, B.E, PH D

Khajanchi. D K VYAS

Chief Medical Officer. M K S. BHUPATISINHJI, L R C P, MRCS, DTM, MB, B.Ch

Vidya Adhikari : C B PATEL, BA.

Darbari Vakil. L K SHUKLA, BA, LL B

Raja Bahadur Naba Kisnore
Chandra Singh Marday
Jagadev, M R A S, F R S A
(London), Ruler of Hindol in the Eastern
States Agency, in direct political relation
with the Government of India

Origin The Ruler of the State belongs
to the Ganga Dynasty tracing his descent
from Kapileendra Deb, a famous sovereign
of the Orissa Kingdom in the 15th century
Born On the 14th June 1891
Succeeded to the Alusnad On the 10th
February 1906 and invested with ruling
powers on the 20th October 1913

Educated At Ravenshaw Collegiate
School, Cuttack, and finally passed the
Diploma Examination from the Rajkumar
College, Raipur (C P)

Married In 1912 the eldest daughter of the Raja Sahab of Kharrar in C P, a
descendant of the Chowhan origin. On the demise of the first Rani re-married the only
daughter of the Raja Sahab of Thumal, Raipur, of the well-known Nag Family

Family Shriman Pratap Chandra Singh Deo, the Her-Apparent, born on the 12th
October 1917.

Area 312 square miles Population 48,897

PERSONAL STAFF.

PRIVATE SECRETARY
PALACE SUPERINTENDENT
ARJUN DE-OJAR
FAMILY PHYSICIAN

MANTRI MANDAL.

PRADHAN SACHIV

NAVYA SACHIV
DHARMA SACHIV

VICAR PARISAD.

Chief Court
Munsiff's Court
Judge Court
Magistrate's Court
Revenue Court

DEPARTMENTAL HEADS.

Superintendent of Education
Superintendent of State Jail
Office Superintendent
Chief Medical Officer.
Chief Police Officer
Forest Officer.
Officer in Charge of P W D
Auditor-in-Chief

General. Vernacular education is imparted free in the State. Scholarships for higher
education have been founded. The State Hospital gives every sort of medical help free to
all irrespective of caste and creed
Importation of liquor is prohibited. Village Panchayats have been introduced almost
in every important village

All public buildings have been electrified and street lighting of the town is conducted
by electricity as well. State Telephone Service links Institutions, Officers' Quarters, Police
Stations in the interior and the nearest Railway Station
Address P O Hindol (Orissa) Railway Station Hindol Road (B N Railway)



H IS EXALTED HIGHNESS, RUSTOV-I-DOWAN, AVASTU-I-ZAKAN, LT GENERAL, MUZAFFARU-D-U-L-K WAL-MANLIK, NAWAB SIR MIE OSMAN ALI KHAN BAHADUR, RATER JUNG SIPAH SARAR, Faithful Ally of the British Government, NIZAMU-D-DOWLA, NIZAM-UL-MULK ASAR JAR, GCSI, GBE, BORN 1886

Ascended the throne 1911

Educated Privately

Married In 1906 Dulhan Pasha,

daughter of Nawab Jehangir Jung, a

nobleman, representing a collateral

branch of the Nizam's family

Her. NAWAB MIR HIMAYAT ALI

KHAN BAHADUR, AZAM JAR

Area of the State 82,698 square miles

Population 14,512,161

Revenue 854 79 lakhs

Salute 21 guns

The State has a Legislative Council

of twenty members eight of whom are

elected and an Executive Council of six

officials with a President It maintains its own

paper currency and coinage, postal system,

Colleges for Engineering, Medicine, Law and Teaching

It has also an Honours College

affiliated to Madras University, a College for Jagirdars and a

Central Cottage Industries Institute, a College of Physical Education

Observatory The State is of great historical and archaeological interest, as within its

limits, are situated many old capitals of ancient and medieval Deccan Kingdoms, famous

forts, temples, mosques and shrines and the wonderful Buddhist sculptures and paintings of

Ellora and Ajanta

Capitol Hyderabad—Population 466,894 It is the fourth largest city in the Indian

Empire The city is beautifully situated on the banks of the river Musi, with fine public

buildings, broad cemented roads, good electricity and water supply and an efficient but

service run by the State Railway Among interesting places are the Char Minar, the Mecca

Masjid, the fort and tombs of Golconda and the large artificial reservoirs—the Osman

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

President.

G C I E

Raja RAJAYAN RAJAN SIR KISHAN PRASHAD MAHARAJA BAHADUR, YAMINUS SALTANATH,

Finance and Railway Member

NAWAB SIR AKBAR HYDARI

Judicial and Army Member

NAWAB LUTFUD-DOWLAN BAHADUR

Public Works and Medical Member

NAWAB AGEEL JUNG BAHADUR

Political and Education Member

NAWAB MAHDI YAR JUNG BAHADUR

Revenue and Police Member

T J TASKER, Esqr

His Highness Maharaja Dhruv Shree Kumar Singh of Idar—The Idar House was founded 200 years ago by two brothers of the Maharaja of Jodhpur. His Highness Maharaja Shree Hummat Singh is the roth of this illustrious line, and the grandson of the well known soldier and statesman, His Highness Maharaja Major General Sir Pratap Singh Sahib of Jodhpur fame. Maharaja Hummat Singh succeeded to the *Gadi* on the sudden death of His Highness Maharaja Sur Dowlat Singh on the 14th April 1931.

Born On 2nd September 1899

Married In the year 1908 to Shree Jawahar Kunwar Sahiba, the eldest daughter of Raja of Khandela in the Jaipur State

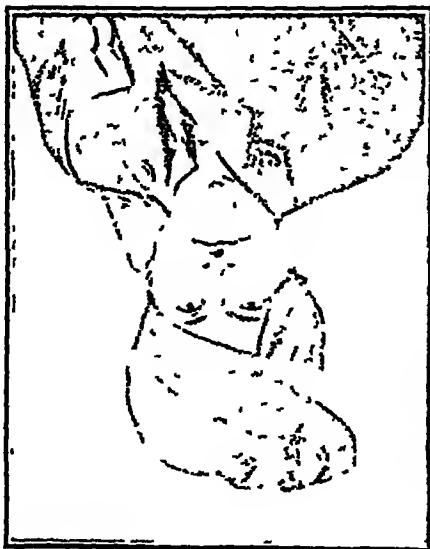
His Highness received his education at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he remained for 5½ years, leaving it after a brilliant career in 1916. He attained his diploma standing first in the list of candidates from all the Chief Colleges in India and was awarded His Excellency the Viceroy's medal. He won every class prize from the fifth to the diploma, five prizes for English and eleven others for various subjects. He won prizes in each division in succession for riding, and represented the College against the Aitchison College for 3 years at tent pegging, and also at tennis. For several years he was captain of one or other of the junior football or cricket eleven, and he was one of the best and keenest polo players in the college.

As will be seen, he upheld his family tradition as a horseman. From boyhood he was keen on hunting and pigsticking and before he had joined the College at the age of 10, he had accounted for many panther and bear to his own ride. His Highness now keeps a racing stable and has had many successes. These active sports are not his only recreation for he has a good ear for music and is interested in painting and photography.

On leaving the college, His Highness Maharaja Shree Hummat Singh took an active part in the State administration being appointed to His late Highness' Council, and later for several years was in charge of the administration under His late Highness' personal directions. He gained further practical experience from an extensive tour throughout India in 1929-30. He was therefore well qualified to take up his responsibilities as Ruler of His State when he ascended the *Gadi* of Idar. Since his accession in 1931, many schemes of improvement have been inaugurated which concern the social welfare of his subjects, their education, industries and agriculture. His Highness has embarked on an ambitious programme of reform and advancement which it is expected his experience and keen personal interest will enable him to carry through successfully.

His Highness has got two sons, Maharaja Kumar Shree Dajit Singh and Amar Singh, the eldest Maharaja Kumar Shree Dajit Singh, the heir apparent, was born in 1917.

Salute 15 Guns **Area** 1,669 sq miles. **Revenue** Rs 21 Lakhs **Dewan** : RAI BHABHUR RAY KARTAY JAGANNATH BHABHARI, M.A., LL.B.



HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJADHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SAWAI SHREE YESHWANT RAO HOLKAR BAHADUR, G.C.I.E., Maharaja of Indore
 Born: 6th September 1908
 Accession: 26th February 1926
 Investiture: 9th May 1930
 Educated: In England 1920-23 and again at Christ Church, Oxford, 1926-29.
 Married: In 1924 a daughter of the Junior Chief of Kagal (Kolhapur)
 Daughter Princess Ushadevi, born 20th October 1933.
 Invited delegate to the R.T.C. in 1931



Area of State. 9,902 square miles Population: 1,325,000
 Revenue Rs 1,35,00,000
 Salute. 19 guns (21 guns within State).

Address. Indore, Central India
 Recreation Tennis, Cricket and Shikar

STATE CABINET.

President

WAZIR-UD-DOWLAH RAI BAHADUR S M BAPNA,
 C.I.E., B.A., B.Sc., LL.B., Prime Minister.

MEMBERS.

Home Minister:

SARDAR R. K. ZANANAB, B.A.

Revenue Minister:

DEWAN-I-KHAS BAHADUR RAO SAHEB K B TILLOO

Finance Minister

MUSAHIB-I-KHAS BAHADUR S V. KANUNGO, M.A.

Member for Medical, Jails and Health & Sanitation Departments
 Lt-Col. J. R. J. TYRRELL, C.I.E., I.M.S. (Retired).

Member for Army

Major-General T M CARPENDALE

SHRIMANT SHANKARRAO APASARE PATWARDHAN, Chief of Jamkhandi

Born 1906
Invested with full powers in May 1926
Educated in the Rajaram College, Kolhapur, and then privately

Married in 1924 Shrimant Subhagya Bai Lalavthabai, Kamsahab of Jamkhandi, daughter of Madhav Rao Moreshwar, the late Chief, the Pant Amatya of Bavada

Heir. SHRIMANT PARASHURAMRAO BHAVSAR, the Yavraj, now in his tenth year

Daughter. Shrimant Indira Rajah alias Tassahab, now in her ninth year

Area of State 524 square miles
Revenue Rs 9,92,515

Population 1,11,282
Capital Town Jamkhandi



The State for purposes of administration is divided into two Talukas, Jamkhandi and Kundgol and three Thanas, Wathar, Pathakal and Dhavalpuri. The present Ruler has been pleased to institute a separate High Court Bench and the judicial and executive branches of the administration have been separated. He has also gone ahead in the matter of popularising the administration by the inauguration of a Representative Assembly of the people. Elementary and secondary education have all along been free in the State. The present Ruler has made even Higher Collegiate Education free for his subjects by endowing fifty freeships in the Sir Parashurambhan College, Poona, so named in beloved memory of his revered father, the late Captain Sir Parashuramrao Bhan Sahab. He is also the elected President of the Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Poona.

The Chief Sahab has been a representative member of the Princes Chamber for Group IV for the last seven years. The State has provided for Free Medical Aid.

Diwan. Mr R K Bal, BA, LLB. He is also the *ex-officio* President of the Jamkhandi State Representative Assembly and High Court Judge
Sanyasaddhish Mr B B Mahabai, BA, LLB
Revenue Officer Mr H C Patwardhan, BA
Private Secretary. Mr M B Mahajan, BA, LLB

H IS HIGHNESS SIDI MUHAMMAD KHAN NAWAB SAHEB - OF JANJIRA

Born March 7th, 1914

Succeeded To the Gadi on 2nd May 1922 Was invested with full Ruling powers on 9th November 1933.

Educated At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, where he took the Diploma with distinction in 1930 Received instruction in administration, politics and agriculture in the Deccan College, Poona, and administrative training in the Mysore State

Married On the 14th November 1933 to the Shahajadi Saheba of the Jaora State in Central India

Area 379 square miles.

Population 1,10,388

Revenue Rs 8,85,000

Salute 11 guns permanent, 13 guns local

Principal sources of State income are Agriculture, Forest, Abkari and Customs

PRINCIPAL STATE OFFICERS.

Dewan Rao Bahadur H. B. Kotak, B.A., LL.B., J.P.
Sar Nyayadash Mr Ramkrishna Babaji Datvi
Sadar Tahasildar Mr Sidi Jafar Sidi Mahmud Sheikhani, B.A., LL.B.

Chief Medical Officer Dr A. F. Dasilva Gomes, L.R.C.P., L.R.C.S. (Edn), L.F.P.S. (Gls), L.M. (Dublin)
Chief Forest Officer Mr T. P. Mascarenhas
Excise Inspector Mr D. V. Desai

Chief Engineer Mr V. V. Deodhar, B.E.
Customs Inspector Sidi Ibrahim Sidi Abdul Rahman-Khanjade
Mamlatdar, Jafarabad Mr G. A. Dighe



LIEUTENANT-COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS FAKHrud DAULAH NAWAB SIR MOHAMMAD IFTIKHAR ALI KHAN BAHADUR, SAULET-JANG, K.C.I.E., Nawab of Jaora.

Born 1883
 Ascended the Gadi in 1895.

Educated at the Daly College, Indore. Served in the Imperial Cadet Corps for fifteen months till 1902, and is Honorary Lieutenant-Colonel in the British Army.

Married: His Highness' first marriage was celebrated in 1903, and marriage in 1905 and the 3rd in the year 1921

New-Appearance: NAWABZADA MOHAMMAD USMAN

Ali Khan Sahib

Area of State . 601 square miles
 Population : 100,204.
 Revenue 12,00,000

STATE COUNCIL.

President : HIS HIGHNESS THE NAWAB SAHIB BAHADUR.
Vice-President & Chief Secretary :

KHAN BAHADUR SAHIBZADA MOHAMMAD SERFERAZ ALI KHAN.
Secretary.
 MR. NASRAT MOHAMMAD KHAN, M.A., LL.B. (Alg.)

Member.

NAWABZADA MOHAMMED NASIR ALI KHAN SAHIB.
Military Secretary : NAWABZADA MOHAMMED MUNTAZ

Ali Khan Sahib.

Secretary, Public Health Department

SAHIBZADA MIR NASIRUDDIN AHMED SAHIB

Private Secretary : Major P. F. NORBURY, D.S.O., I.A.
Judicial Secretary and Judge, Chief Court :

MR. SERAJUR REHMAN KHAN, Bar-at-Law

Revenue Secretary : MIRZA MOHAMMAD ASLAW BEG.

Finance Member : SETH GOVINDRAMJI.



JASDAN is the premier Kathi State and the Rulers are Sakethya Suryavanshi Kshatriyas, being descendants of Katha, the younger son of the Suryavanshi Maha-
raja, Karan Shruta, of Ayodhya

The Kathis have, since their advent to this Province, effected a change in the name of the Province from Saurashtra to Kathiawad, and they are one of the most important and influential tribes on the westernmost coast of India

Darbar Shree Ala Khachar is the present Ruler of Jasdhan. He was born on 4th November 1905. He was educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and has passed the Diploma examination

He succeeded to the *Gadi* in June, 1919, and assumed the reins of State administration on 1st December, 1924.
Hev Yuvraj Shree Shivrāj, born 9th October, 1930 -
Area of the State 296 square miles including about 13 square miles of non-judicial territory.
Population 36,632 including non-judicial territory.
Revenue (gross) Rs six lacs nearly

All education is free throughout the State.

Medical relief at the Hospital, etc., is also supplied free. Importation of liquor is prohibited.

Cultivators are granted permanent heritable tenure with rights of full ownership over their holdings and are protected against usury by special rules for settlement of money-lenders' claims

Village Panchayats introduced in twenty villages with a non-official president.

Subordinate land-holders have recently been granted the unusual privilege of exemption from resorting to the Civil Court for adjudication of their *inter se* disputes. These are now settled through the Arbitration Court presided over by the Niyadash.



Lt.-COL. HIS HIGHNESS

SARAMAD RAJAHAI
HINDUSTHAN MAHARAJA
DIRAJ SIR UMAD
SINGHI SAHIB BAHADUR,
G C I E, K. C. S. I,
K C V O, ruler of the
Jodhpur State

Born 1903 Ascended
the gadi 1918
Educated. At the Mayo
College, Ajmer

Married Daughter of
Rao Bahadur Thakur Jey
Singh Bhati of Umednagar

in 1921. Has four sons and one daughter

Her-Apparent MAHARAJ KUMAR SRI HANWANT

SINGHI SAHIB, born in 1923

Area of the State 36,021 square miles

Population 2,125,982

Revenue: Rs 1,47,00,000

Permanent Salute 17, local 19 guns.

STATE COUNCIL.

President.

HIS HIGHNESS THE MAHARAJA SAHIB BAHADUR.

Judicial Minister:

RAO BAHADUR THAKUR CHAIN SINGHI, M A, LL B

OF POHKARAN

Home Minister.

THAKUR MADHO SINGHI OF SAKKHWAS

Revenue Minister

MR. J. B. IRWIN, D.S.O, M.C, I.C.S.

P. W. Minister:

MR. S G. EDGAR, I. S. F.



HIS HIGHNESS SIR MAHA-
BATKHAJI RASUL
KHANJI III, GCIE,
KCSI, Nawab Sahab of
Junagadh

Family. Babi (Yusufzai
Pathan)

Born 2nd August 1900

Educated Preparatory
school in England and at the
Mayo College, Ajmer.

Her-Appeant. NAWABZADA
DILAWAR KHANJI, born 23rd
June 1922.

Area of the State 3,337 sq miles. Population: 545,152.

Principal Port. Veraval. Revenue. Rs 87,00,000.

Salute 15 guns personal and local.

Indian States Forces—Junagadh State Lancers, Mahabat-
khany Infantry.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Dewan, Junagadh State and President of the Council.
J MONTGATH, Esq, I.C.S.

Narb Dewan and Member of Council

MR ABDUL KADIR MUHAMMAD HUSAIN, J.P.

Revenue Member :

MR. S. T. MANKAD, B.A., LL.B.



COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS

FARZAND-I-DILBAND
RASULKHUL I TIKAD

DAVLAT-I-INGLISHIA RAJA-I-
RAJAGAM MAHARAJA JAGAT-

JIT SINGH BAHADUR, Maha-
raja of Kapurthala, GCSI.

(1911), GCIE (1918) Great-
ed GBE (1927) on the

occasion of his Golden Jubilee
Honorary Colonel of 3-11th

Sikhs (45th Rattays Sikhs)
One of the principal Sikh

Ruling Princes in India. In
recognition of the prominent

assistance rendered by the
State during the Great War

His Highness' salute was
raised to 15 guns and the

annual tribute of £9,000 a
year was remitted in perpetuity by the British Government,

received the Grand Cross of the Legion d'Honneur from the
French Government in 1924, possesses also Grand Cross of the

Order of the Star of Roumania, Grand Cordon of the Order of
Nile, Grand Cordon of the Order of Morocco, Grand Cordon of

the Order of Tunis, Grand Cross of the Order of Chili, Grand
Cross of the Order of the Sun of Peru, Grand Cross of the Order

of Cuba, thrice represented Indian Princes and Indas on the
League of Nations in 1926 and 1927, celebrated the Golden Ju-

bilee of his reign in 1927 Received Grand Cross of the Order of
St Maurice and Lazarre from the Italian Government



Born 24th November 1872, son of His Highness the late
Raja-i-Rajgan Kharok Singh of Kapurthala
Her-Apparent SIRI TIKKA RA A PARAMJIT SINGH
Chief Minister LT-COLONEL G T FISHER
Area of State 652 Square Miles
Population 316,757
His Highness owns landed property in the United Provinces
of an approximate area of 700 sq miles with a population of
over 450,000
Revenue Rs 36,00,000
Address . Kapurthala State, Punjab, India

Raja SHRI BALABHADRA
NARAYAN BHUNJ DEO,
Ruling Chief of the
Keonjhar State, Eastern
States Agency
Born : On the 26th De-
cember 1905.
Ascended the Gadi on the
12th August 1926
Educated : At the Rajku-
mar College, Raipur, C P
Married : In June 1929,
Rani Sabeeda Srimati Manoja
Mangari Devi, daughter of the
Raja & Ruling Chief of the
Kharsawan State, Eastern
States Agency
Her . TIKAYAT SHRI
NRUSINGHA NARAYAN BHUNJ

DEO

Uncle ROUTARAI BASUDEB BHUNJ DEO.

Brother CHOTARAI LAKSHMI NARAYAN BHUNJ DEO

Area of the State 3,217 square miles. Population, 460,647
Gross Revenue. Rs. 15,05,415

CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER.

Dewan : RAI BAHADUR JUGAL KISHORE TRIPATHI, M A

OTHER PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Forest Officer : MR. E S HIGHER.

State Judge : RAI SAHEB SASIBHUSAN SARKAR

State Engineer : RAI SAHEB JADAB CHANDRA TALPATRA.

Chief Medical Officer and Jail Superintendent :

DR. D C SEALY.

Sadar Sub-Division : BABU KRISHNA CHARAN MAHANTY,

B A, B.L., S.D.O.

Champur Sub-Division : BABU RAGHUNANDAN TRIVEDI,

B A, B.L., S.D.O.

Anandpur Sub-Division : BABU KANHAICCHARAN DAS, S.D.O
Superintendent of Police : BABU PRADYUMNA KUMAR BANERJEE



HIS HIGHNESS MIR
ALI NAWAZ
KHAN, Ruler of Khair-
pur State.

Born 9th August
1884

Ascended the G a d i.
25th June 1921.

Educated at the Aitchi-
son College, Lahore, and
later privately in England

He comes of the Baloch family called Talpur.

Her-Apparent : Mir Faiz Mahomed Khan.

Khairpur is a first class State It is the only State
in Sind. The Ruler is entitled to a salute of 15 guns
outside and 17 guns inside the State

Area : 6,050 square miles, a large portion of which
is desert.

Population : 227,168.

Current annual income : Rs. 15 Lakhs.

Minister . J. M. STADEN, Esq, I.C.S.



HIS HIGHNESS

MAHARAJA DHIRAJ
MIRZA MAHARAO
SHRI KHENGARJI SAVAI
BAHADUR, G.C.S.I.,
G.C.I.F., Maharao of
Kutch

Born in 1866 Succeeded
to the Gadi in 1876 and
was invested with full
powers in 1885.
Attended the Imperial
Conference, London, and
the League of Nations,
Geneva, in 1921. Attend-
ed the Round Table
Conference, 1931.

Education Privately educated.

Her-Apparent: MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI VIJAYARAJI.
Area . 8,249.5 square miles, excluding the Runn
which is about 9,000 square miles.

Revenue: About Rs. 32,00,000.

Population . 514,307.

Salute . Permanent 17 guns ; Local 19 guns.

Deewan . SURYASHANKAR D. MEHTA, B.A., Bar-at-
Law

OFFICERS.

Narb Deewan . JADURAM P. BHATT, B.A., LL.B.

Revenue Commissioner : H. H. DIVAN, B.A.

Police Commissioner : KHAN BAHADUR ABDUL
RASPID KHAN.

Chief Judge, *Vaishita* Court : PARVATISHANKAR
M. BHATT.



RANA KRISHEN CHAND
BAHADUR, Ruler of
Kuthar State, (Simla
Hills)

Born In 1905, the only son of the late Rana Jagjit Chand Bahadur. After being educated at the Aitchison Chiefs' College at Lahore, he was put under training, and after its completion was given charge of certain departments of the State. His father struck by the ability of his son, appointed him in 1927 as Administrator of the State.



with the approval and sanction of the Government. In 1930, Rana Jagjit Chand decided to hand over the entire administration to him, and magnanimously abdicated the Gaddi in his favour.

Rana Krishen Chand, when only 22, carried into practical shape the scheme conceived by his father of founding a new town in his State, called after him Jagjitnagar, and which though barely five years old is making fast progress. The views from Jagjitnagar, of plains and the snow-covered ranges of the higher Himalayas, are believed to be one of the best in India.

The area of the Kuthar State is 26 square miles, with a population of 6,000, and an annual revenue of Rs 55,000. The Rana Sahib is at the head of each department of the administration, and is assisted by a staff of judicial and executive officers.

He married in 1926 the daughter of the Rana Sahib of Dudhrey, Kathiawar. His favourite sports are tennis, cricket and shooting.

Address. The Palace, Krishnagarh, and Kuthar House, Simla.



THE Rulers of Lathi State, which is situated in Kathiawar, are Gohel Rajputs and descendants of Sarangji, one of the sons of the famous Sejakji, the common ancestor of Bhavnagar, Palitana and Lathi Houses. The present Thakoresahab Shree Pralad-singji is about the 26th in descent from Sarangji, who was famous for his glorious and chivalric deeds in Kathiawar. He is the grandson of the Thakoresahab Sursingji, best known as "Kalapi", whose poetic genius has shed a lustre over the literary life of modern Gujarat.

Born . . . 31st March 1912
Succeeded to the Gadi on the 14th October 1918, on which date his father, Thakoresahab Shree Pratapsingji, died.

Educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and before formal installation on the 9th February 1931, received practical administrative training in various Departments of Wankaner State under the able supervision of His Highness the Maharana Raj Sahab.

Married. Swayakunverba, daughter of the late Thakoresahab of Kotda-Saugani situated in Kathiawar.

The Thakoresahab made primary education free at the time of his formal installation and organized a Praja Pratimidhi Sabha to learn public opinion on matters of public interest.

Area : 41.8 square miles.

Population : 9,407

Revenue : Rs. 1,67,970

Rule of Primogeniture governs succession.

FAMILY MEMBERS.

K. S. MANGALSINGHI

K S HARISCHANDRASINGHI.

Both are younger brothers of the Thakoresahab.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Karbhari . Keshavji K Oza, Esquire, B.A., LL.B.

Private Secretary . K. S. GAMBHIRSINGHI Vijaysinghi of Lathi

Medical Officer : Mr. PRANJIVAN KANJI DAVE.

Revenue Officer : Mr. GOKLIDAS DEVCHAND PATEL.

Nyayadish and First Class Magistrate : Mr. HARKAT B SHUKLA, B.A., LL.B.

Treasury Officer : Mr. SHIVSINGHI R. JHALA.

Superintendent of Police : Mr. GULMAHOKED H. SUNDHI.

Superintendent of P.W.D. : Mr. JETHALAL, R.

Personal Secretary and Head of Female Education
 Miss (Dr) ELIZABETH SHARPE, K H M, F R G S, etc
Chief Medical Officer
 DR KESHAVLAL T. DAVE, L M & S, etc
Finance Secretary
 MR TURESHIDAS J LAVANGIA, B A
Political Secretary
 MR DOLARRAI M BUCH, B A, L L B
Revenue Secretary: RANA SURI JIWANSINGHI, M G B V C
Educational Inspector: MR A D. PANDYA, B A

F R G S
 RAJ KUMAR SURI FATEHSINGHI, M A, L L B (Cantab), Bar-at-Law,
 Diwan

STATE OFFICERS.

Salute: 9 guns
 A member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right
 Willingdon - Club, Bombay
 Empire Society—Roshanara, Delhi—Rajputana Club, Mount Abu—
 Geographical Society—Royal
 Clubs A Fellow of the Royal
 Educated Privately
 April 1908
 Accession to Gadi 14th
 Born . 11th July 1868
 full powers of internal autonomy
 Western Indian States enjoying
 sinhi and rules over one of the
 Thakore Sahab Sur Jaswant-
 He was adopted by the late
 Dev and the Goddess Shakti
 of Rajputs founded by Harpal
 and belongs to the Jhala Clan
 of Limbd, A D 1486 (1542)
 descendant of Maharana Khetaji
 SAKH of Limbd, is a direct
 K C I E, THAKORE
 K C S I, K C S I,



SARHANA SRI SIR DAU-
 LAT SINGHI, K C S I,
 K C I E, THAKORE
 descendant of Maharana Khetaji
 of Limbd, A D 1486 (1542)
 and belongs to the Jhala Clan
 of Rajputs founded by Harpal
 Dev and the Goddess Shakti
 He was adopted by the late
 Thakore Sahab Sur Jaswant-
 sinhi and rules over one of the
 Western Indian States enjoying
 full powers of internal autonomy
 Born . 11th July 1868
 Accession to Gadi 14th
 April 1908
 Educated Privately
 Clubs A Fellow of the Royal
 Geographical Society—Royal
 Empire Society—Roshanara, Delhi—Rajputana Club, Mount Abu—
 Willingdon - Club, Bombay
 A member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right
Salute: 9 guns
 Kumari Shri Nandkumvarba, daughter of the late H H Maharaja
 Kesharsinghi of Idar.
 The State is bounded on the North by the Lakhtar State and
 the British Taluka of Viramgam, on the East by the British Taluka
 of Dholka and on the West by the Wadhwan and Chuda States
Area of the State: 343 96 sq miles, besides 207 miles of Bar-
 walla territory
Population. 40,088
Revenue. Rs 9,00,000

HIS HIGHNESS MAHA-
RAJA SHRI VIRBHA-
DRASINHJI, RAJAJI
SAHEB OF LUNAWADA STATE

His Highness belongs to the illustrious clan of Solanki Rajputs, and is descended from Sidhraj Jaysinh Dev of Anhilwad Patan, once the Emperor of Gujarat, Cutch and Kathiawar

Born . 1910. Ascended the
Gadi . 1930
Educated . At Mayo College,
Ajmer.

Married In 1931, Rani
Sahab Shri Manharakunverba,
daughter of Capt. His High-
ness Maharana Raj Sahab

Shri Amarsinhji, K.C.I.E., of Wankaner State.

New-appointed : Maharajkumar Shri Bhupendrasinhji, born
on 14th October 1934

King's Commission : His Majesty the King Emperor
recently conferred on His Highness the Hon rank of 2nd Lieut.
in the Regular Army on 7th September 1934

Area of State . 388 square miles.
Population 95,162. Revenue : Rs 5,50,000.
Dynastic Salute . 9 guns.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Deewan : MAGANLAL L. DESAI, B.A., LL.B.
Sanant Officer and Police Commissioner . K. S. PRAVINSINHJI.
Rajbhavch Officer : K S VIRVIRAKASINHJI
Private Secretary : MOHANLAL T. JAINI.
Nyayadish and Educational Inspector : VADILAL A. MEHTA,
B.A., LL.B.

Police and Excise Superintendent : CHATURSINHJI J. SOLANKI.
Huzur Personal Assistant . N. K. KANABAR.
Chief Medical Officer : NENSHI D. SHAH, M.B., B.S.
Custom Officer . HATHISINHJI M. SOLANKI.
Head Master, S. K. High School . RANIKIRLAL G. MODI, M.A.
Electrical Engineer : MAGANLAL B. PANCHAL



CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS
RAJA SIR JOGINDER
SEN BAHADUR,
KCSI, the present Ruler of
Mandi, is a Rajput of
Chanderbanshi clan and it is
traditionally asserted that the
promoters of the dynasty
ruled in Indraprastha (Delhi)
for over a thousand years

Hon Captain 31/17 Dogra
Regiment

Born 20th August 1904
Ascended the Gadi 1913

Invested with full ruling
powers, 1925

Educated Queen Mary's
College and Aitchison College,
Lahore



Received Administrative and Judicial Training in Lahore 1923-24
Married twice First the only daughter of His Highness the
Maharaja of Kapurthala in 1923 and then the daughter of Kanwar
Prithvi Singh of Rajpura in 1930

Visited Important countries in Europe in 1924 and 1932—Egypt,
Palestine, Syria, Greece, Turkey, Balkans, etc in 1927
Recreations Shooting, Tennis and Cricket

Her Apparent SRI YOGAL YASHODHAN SINGH, born 7th
December 1923

2nd Son SRI Rajkumar Ashok Pal Singh, born 5th August 1931
Only daughter Shrimati Rajkumari Nirvana Devi, born 12th
December 1928

Salute 11 guns

Address Mandi State, Punjab, India
Telegraph Address "Paharpadsha" Mandi

Area of the State 1,200 square miles

Population 207,465 Average annual Revenue, Rs 12,48,483
Mandi is the premier hill State in the Punjab States Agency

EXECUTIVE COUNCILORS.

SIR DAR D K SEN, M A, B C L (Oxon), LL B (Dublin), Bar-at-Law,
Chief Minister

PANDIT KANWAR NARAIN, Bar-at-Law, Revenue Minister

KANWAR SHIV PAL, B Sc, Home Minister



KHAN SAHEB GHULAM
MOINUDDIN KHAN, Chief
 of Manavadar and
 Bantva, is a descendant of the
 illustrious Babi (Usman Zai Pa-
 than) family who since the reign
 of Humayun have always been
 prominent in the annals of
 Guzerat

Born On 22nd November
 1911 Invested with full
 powers on 22nd November 1931
Educated At the Rajkumar
 College, Rajkot

Married In October 1933
 Nawab Begum Qudsia Jehan
 Begum, daughter of the Heir
 Apparent to the Sheikh Sahab
 of Alongroi

The Khan Sahab is an all-round
 sportsman, distinguishes himself
 specially in the Hockey and Cricket fields, is the first Indian Prince
 to take to Hockey seriously and represent his country in the Western
 Asiatic Games held in Delhi in February last, selected to Captain the
 Western India States Cricket Association's Team in the Inter Provincial
 Trials, patronizes many leading Competitions and Tournaments
Fatima Siddqa Begum Sahaba Revered mother of the Khan
 Sahab is the first lady in Kathiawar to take the reins of the State during
 the minority of the Khan Sahab for the period 1918 to 1931; was
 awarded Gold Kaiser-e-Hind Medal by the Government for her admi-
 nistrative genius evinced amply during the regency
Prince Abdul Hamid Khan Younger and only brother to Khan
 Sahab is a young man of charming habits
 The State imparts free education to boys and girls and every village
 is provided with a school where free primary education is given An
 up-to-date Hospital looks to the wants of the poor classes
Area of the State 107 square miles
Population 32,000
Revenue : 7 50 Lakhs average

STATE OFFICERS

Dewan T M TRIVEDI, B.A., LL.B.
Huzur Personal Asstt K S MOHAMMAD BAKRUDDIN, B.A.
Revenue Commissioner MOHAMMAD JAMILUDDIN GHANUSI, M.A., LL.B.
Private Secretary M N MASUD, M.A.
Chief Medical Officer T A SHAH, L.M. & S.
Assistant Chief Medical Officer N P MEHTA, L.C.P. & S.
Secretary M U IRWIND, B.A., LL.B.
Comparison to Prince Abdul Hamid Khan A W ASIM, M.A., M.O.L.
Huzur Office Superintendent U S KHAN, B.A., LL.B.
Police Superintendent KHAN BAHADUR N BAKI

S HAIKH SAHEB MOHAMMAD JEHANGERRHAN, SHAIKH SAHIB OF MANGROL

Born 29th October 1860

Accession 29th June 1908

Educated Privately and at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot

Her-Apparain SAHEBZADA

SHAIKH MOHAMMED ABDUL

KHALIG SAHIB, has four other

sons and five daughters

Area 144 square miles in-

cluding about 67 square miles

non-jurisdictional territory

Revenue. Rs 64 Lacs

Mangrol Chieftainship is an Administration having plenary jurisdictional powers analogous to that of second class States as known in Kathiawar Its relations with Junagadh of Political Subordination are mediated by the British Government This question is still under consideration by Government for final elucidation It is styled as a "Mediatized Taluka under Junagadh."

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Chief Karbhari. S ALTAH HUSAIN
Political Officer and Sir Nyayadhrish. KANTILAL M VASAVADA,
B A, LL B

Huzur Assistant: SHAIKH MD HUSAIN

Revenue Commissioner. MADHAYAL S MEHTA, B A

Chief Medical Officer. DR G. G. GATHA, L M. & S.

Private Secretary. K. S GULAM ALI

Customs Officer: FASHIULHAG Z ABBASZY.

Educational Inspector. MD MORTAZAKHAN, B A

Engineer: A. K PATEL, B E.

Head Master. HIDAYATULLA KHAN,

Electrical Engineer. M. S SAYED, M E





RAOJI SHREE SAIJAN-SINHJI, the present Ruler of Mansa State. Age 26 years. Succeeded to the Gadi on 4th January 1934. *Educated:* At the Princes' Mayo College, Ajmer. Mansa is by origin, descent and repute an ancient and important State of the Sabbar-Kantha Agency having political relationship with the Government of India through the Hon'ble the A. G. C. The ruling house of Mansa is lineally descended from the illustrious Vansaji Chavada who in 764 A.D. ruled both Gujarat and Kathiawar with his capital at Patan, and according to a statement of an Arabian traveller quoted in the Ras-Mala, he was one of the four great kings of the world.

The late lamented Ruler Raoji Shree Talhatsinhji ruled Mansa for 17 years. During his beneficent regime the State progressed in a variety of ways. Interested as he was in the development of agricultural and natural resources, he himself took great interest in the plantation of mango trees on a very large scale which added largely to the fertility of the soil and the prosperity of the State. He visited Europe in 1928 and while in England attended the sittings of the Butler Committee on Indian States. The eldest sister of the present Ruler is married to the Raja Sahab of Bansda and the younger to the Yuvaraj Sahab of Lakhtar. Two of his younger brothers are studying law in England. *Average Annual Income:* Rs. 1,80,000. *Population:* 17,000. Mansa is the capital of the State. Electric lighting has been introduced in the capital. The State also maintains water works, a flour mill, a decent library and one dispensary for the comfort of the subjects. Medical treatment and attendance are given free to the people of the State. Primary education is also provided for in the State. An Anglo-Vernacular School upto English Standard is maintained by the State and it is hoped that this School will shortly be turned into a High School.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS OF THE STATE.

General Adviser RAJKUMAR SHREE YESHWANTSINHJI, second brother of the ruler, has got Higher Diploma of the Princes' Mayo College *Dewan:* RANCHOHDAI M. MEHTA, Esq. *Nyayadhisht:* VADHAI M. SHAH, Esq., B.A., LL.B. *Palace Medical Officer:* C. F. BHATIA, Esq., L.C.P.S. *State Medical Officer:* S. V. MOHITE, Esq., M.B., B.S. *Raj Ryasat Officer:* MOHANVSINHJI K. KHERR, Esq. *Revenue Officer:* BHAVSINHJI PARMAR, Esq.

M

CHANDRA BHANU DEO,
K. C. I. E., Maharaja of
Mayurbhanj

Born . February 1901.
Succeeded to the Gadi on the
23rd April 1928 on the demise
of his elder brother Lieutenant
Maharaja Purna Chandra Bhanj

The Maharaja was admitted
into the Chamber of Princes
by his own right in March 1931
by the Government of India.

Educated At the Mayo
College, Ajmer, and Alwar
Central College, Allahabad

Married : On the 25th
November 1925, the daughter
of Maharaj Sardar Singhi and
grand-daughter of the late
Rajadhras Sir Nahar Singhi,

K. C. I. E., of Shabpura in Rajputana
Area of State 4,243 square miles.
Population . 889,603.
Revenue . Rs. 26,60,384
Salute : Permanent salute of 9 guns.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan & Chief Judge of the High Court
Dr P K SEN, M.A. (Cal), M.A., LL.D (Cantab), Barrister-at-Law
Other Judges of the High Court
MR S N. MUKHERJI, B.L.
MR A K. CHATTERJI, B.L.
Chief Revenue Officer (Excise, Income Tax and Zemindari) :
MR. P. M. MUKHERJI, BA
Land Revenue Officer :
MR. H. R. MAHANTY, B.L.
Chief Engineer (P.W.D.) : MR F. D WELWOOD, M.L., Mun & Cye.
Forest Officer : MR. F. B. GAGLIARDI, M.R.A.C, M.E.F.A
Director of Primary Education and Cottage Industries :
RAI SAHEB B. C. PATNAIK.
Examiner of Accounts : MR J. G. MUKHERJI, BA
Superintendent of Police : MR R. C. DASH.
Chief Medical Officer and Superintendent of Central Jail.
DR. C. M. SINHA, MB

Director of Industrial and Economic Survey .
MR. R. G. DAS, MA, B.L.
State Archaeologist : MR. P. ACHARYA, B Sc., M.R.A.S



MADHAVRAO HARHARRAO alias BABASAHEB PATWARDHAN, the present ruler of Muz Junior State, is the 2nd son of late Shrimant Balasahab Patwardhan, Chief of Kurundwad Senior. He was selected by the Bombay Government for the chieftship of the Muz Junior State, and was adopted in December 1899, by Lady Parvatabasahab, the mother of the late Chief Laxmanrao Annasahab, who died prematurely on the 7th of February 1899. **Born**: In 1889. **Educated**: At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot. **Assumption of Powers**: Was invested with full powers on the 17th of March 1909.

Caste: Is a Chitpawan Brahman

Marriage Married to Shrimati Thakutiasahab, daughter of the late Mehrban Krishnarao Madhavrao Peshwe of Bareilly. Has three sons and three daughters.

Her-Appearance. Eldest son Kumar Shrimant Chintamanrao alias Balasahab, born in 1909 on the 3rd of December. Married. **Other sons** 2nd son Kumar Haribharao alias Dadasahab, born in 1911, on 23rd May

3rd son Kumar Krishnarao alias Appasahab, born in 1916, on 6th May.

Recreation Daily Muscular Exercise, Tennis and Shkar

Area. 196½ square miles

Population. 40,686.

Revenue. Rs 3,68,515.

Tribute: The State pays an Annual-Tribute of Rs 7,388-12-6 to the British Government

Capital Town: *Budhgaon* (5 miles from Sangli). **Official** Rao Bahadur V. V. Yargop, B.A., L.L.B., Diwan of the State, is the Ruler's sole Minister.

Other particulars. The Ruler received the Silver Coronation Delhi Darbar Medal in 1911.

He is entitled to be received by the Viceroy.

The Muz Junior State has been placed in direct political relations with the Government of India, with effect from the 1st of April 1933. The Resident at Kolhapur acts as Agent to the Governor-General of India, for this State.

This State is a full-powered State. It can try its own subjects as well as the subjects of other States for capital offences and can make its own legislature.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA
SHREE LUKHDHRI
BAHADUR, KCSI,

Maharaja of Morvi
Born 1876
Ascended the Gadi 1922,
Educated Privately in
India and England

Heir YUVARAJ SHREE
MAHENDRASINGHI Age 17
Second Son MAHARAJ

KUMARSHREE KALIKAKUMAR
Age 16
Area of State 822 square
miles Morvi State has a
district in Cutch also

Population 113,024 in
1931 (Increase during
1921-1931, 17 per cent)

Average Revenue Rs 40,00,000 Sahite 11 guns

Chief Port in the State Navlakhi Regular periodical
service of ocean-going steamers from Europe, Japan, Java as
well as Indian Ports

Morvi Railway, solely the property of the State, 133 miles
Morvi Tramway, 63 miles.

State Postal Service, post offices in over 50 per cent of
the State villages, letter-boxes in a further 20 per cent of
State Telephone, over 40 per cent of the villages directly
connected with the capital city.

Industries in the State. Cotton Pressing and Ginning
Factories, Parsuram Pottery Works, Ltd, Morvi Salt Works,
Railway Workshop and Electric Power House The Morvi
Cotton Spinning & Weaving Mill started its work regularly from
13th July 1934 Shree Mahendrasinghi Glass Works are being
erected and are expected to begin work shortly.
Free primary and secondary education.

STATE COUNCIL.

Senior Member and Acting President . M.P BAXI, B A, LL B
Junior Member . P P. JADAJA.



COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS
MAHARAJA SIR SRI
KRISHNARAJA WADIVAR
BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., G.B.E.,
Born: 4th June 1884
Succeeded: 1st February
1895.

Educated: Privately.

Invested with full ruling
 powers: 1902. Celebrated
 Silver Jubilee of his reign.
 8th August 1927.

Area of the State: 29,474.82 square miles.

Population: 6,557,302.

*Address: The Palace, Mysore, Bangalore; and Fern
 Hill (Nilgiris)*

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Dewan of Mysore.

AMIN-UL-MULK SIR MIRZA M. ISMAIL, KT., C.I.E., O.B.E.

Members.

RAJAMANTRAPPAVINA DIWAN BAHADUR K. MATTAN, B.A.
 RAJAMANTRAPPAVINA S P RAJAGOPALACHARI, B.A., B.L.

Private Secretary to His Highness:

SIR CHARLES TODHUNTER, K.C.S.I., J.P.

Huzur Secretary to His Highness.

RAJASABHABHUSHANA T. THUMBBOO CHETTY, B.A.



CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI DIGVIJAYSINHJI RANJITSINHJI MAHARAJA JADEJA, Maharaja Jam Sahab of Nawamagar.

Born. 1895 The adopted son of His late Highness Maharaja Shri Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji Jadeja

Ascended the Gadi on 2nd April 1933.
Educated. Raj Kumar College, Rajkot, Malvern College and University College, London.



Commissioned in 1919; Regiment 5th/6th Rajputana Rifles Napiers, rose to the rank of Captain.
Specialised courses: Small Arms Course, Lewis Gun Course; Tactics, Machine Gun Course and the Searchlight Course.

Recreation Racquets, Cricket, Squash, Tennis, Shooting
Address: Jammagar, Nawamagar, Kathiawar
Area of State 3,791 sq. miles
Population 409,192.
Revenue. Rs. 90 lakhs yearly.
Salute 15 guns.
Chief Port: Bedi Bunder.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan. KHAN BAHADUR MERWANJI PESTONJI
Military Secretary and Home Member. LT-COL. R. K. HIMATISINHJI.
Revenue Secretary: GOKALBHAI B. DESAI, Esq
Manager, J. D. Railway. RAJ SAHAB GIRDHARLAL D. MEHTA.
Port Commissioner. LT-COMMANDER W. G. A. BOURNE, R.N.

HIS HIGHNESS
SARAKMAD-I-RAJAHAI,
BUNDELKHAND SHRI
SAWAI MAHENDRA MAHA-
RAJA SHRI VIR SINGH DEV
BAHADUR of Orchha.

Born. 14th April 1899

Ascended the Gadi: On the 4th March 1930.

Educated: In the Daly College, Indore; Rajkumar College, Rajkot; and Mayo College, Ajmer; also received administrative training in the Saugor District in the Central Provinces.

Married: A sister of His Highness the Maharana of Wadhwan (Kathiawar) on the 4th March 1919, who is dead; subsequently married a grand-daughter of His Highness the Maharaja of Gondal.

Heir-Apparent: Raja Bahadur Shri DEVENDRA SINGH JU DEV.

Area of State: 2,080 square miles. **Population:** 314,661. **Revenue.** About Rs 17 lakhs. **Salute:** 15 guns.

STATE CABINET.

President:

HIS HIGHNESS.

Members.

SAWAI RAO RAJA GENERAL KARAN SINGH JU DEV,
(Army Minister).

RAO RAJA RAJ BAHADUR PT SHYAM BEHARI MISRA,
M.A., (Chief Adviser)

MAJOR B. P. PANDE, B.A., LL.B., F.R.E.S., (Chief Minister).

MR A K PANDE, B.A., (Home Minister).

MAJOR SAJJAN SINGH, (Revenue Minister).

MR M N ZUTSHI, B.A., (Private Secretary)

CAPT. CHANDRA SEN, (Huzur Secretary).

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA MAHENDRA SIR YADVENDRA SINGH BAHADUR, KCSI KCIE, of Panna, direct line of descendants of the famous hero Maharaja Chhatrasal

Born January 31st, 1893
Succeeded to the Gadi On 20th June, 1902
Was invested with full Ruling powers on 4th February 1915
Educated At the Mayo College at Ajmer, where he took the Diploma—joined the Imperial Cadet Corps in 1913
Attended the Coronation Durbar at Delhi in December, 1911

Married On the 2nd December, 1912, the daughter of His late Highness the Maharaja of Bhavnagar, and has two sons Her Highness the late Maharani received the Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal of the 1st class on the 3rd June, 1916 She died in 1927 In 1928 His Highness married the sister of the present Maharaja of Jaspur

His Highness was created a KCIE on the 2nd January, 1922, and the insignia of KCSI was conferred on him on 1st January, 1932

The Supremacy of Panna State among all the sanad States of Bundelkhand was recognised and full Sovereign hereditary Powers conceded to the Ruler in 1933

Her-Apparent RAJA BAHADUR NARENDRA SINGH JU DEO

Younger Maharaaj Kumar M K Pushpendra Singh Ju Deo.

Area of State . 2,596 square miles

Population 2,12,130

Salute : 11 guns

The administration of the State is carried on with the help of a Council consisting of three Ministers His Highness himself is the President of the Council

Revenue Minister . RAJA SHRI RAGHAVENDRA SINGH JU DEO (Younger brother of His Highness)

Home Minister . RAJA SHRI BHARATENDRA SINGH JU DEO (Youngest brother of His Highness)

Political Minister . PANDIT CHUNNI LAL SHARMA, M.A., LL.B



HIS HIGHNESS MAHA-
RAJAWAT RAN SINGHJI
BAHADUR of Partabgarh
State.

Born . In 1908.

Succeeded to the Gadi :
In 1929

Hereditary Salute 15
guns

Partabgarh State, also
called the -Kanthal, was
founded in the sixteenth
century by a descendant of Rana Mokal of Mewar.

The town of Partabgarh was founded in 1698 by
Partabsingh In the time of Jaswant Singh (1775-1844)
the country was overrun by the Marathas, and the
Maharawat only saved his State by agreeing to pay Holkar
a tribute of Salum Shahi Rs 72,700 (which then being
counted in the State Mint was legal tender throughout the
surrounding Native States), in lieu of Rs. 15,000
formerly paid to Delhi The first connection of the State
with the British Government was formed in 1804, but the
treaty then entered into was subsequently cancelled by Lord
Cornwallis and a fresh treaty was made in 1818 The tribute
that used to be paid to Holkar, is being paid to the British
Government under the terms of the treaty of Mandsaur and
was, in 1904, converted to Rs 36,350 British Currency.
The State enjoys plenary jurisdiction The highest adminis-
trative and executive office is termed "Mahakma-Khas"
where sit His Highness and the Dewan of the State. There
is a duly graded judiciary under a High Court Revenue
about 5½ lakhs.



His Highness represented the Indian Princes at the League of Nations in 1925. In 1926 he was elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes (Narendra Mandal). He was re-elected Chancellor of the Chamber in 1927-28-29-30. In 1930 His Highness led the Princes' delegation to the Round Table Conference. His Highness was again elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes in 1933.

- | | |
|-----|--|
| (a) | Grand Cordon of the Order de Leopold, |
| (b) | Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour, France, |
| (c) | Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy, |
| (d) | Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, |
| (e) | Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Roumania, and |
| (f) | Grand Cross of the Order of St. Saviour of Greece (1926) |

His Highness was selected by His Excellency the Viceroy to represent the King of Prussia at the Imperial War Conference and Imperial War Cabinet in June, 1918, and during his stay in Europe His Highness paid visits to all the different and principal Fronts in Belgium, France, Italy and Egypt (Palestine) and received the following decorations from the allied Sovereigns and Governments —

Since the State entered into alliance with the British Government in 1899, it has rendered help to the British Government on all critical occasions such as Gurkha War, Sikh War, Mutiny of 1857, Afghan War of 1878-79, Tursh and N. W. F. Campaign of 1897. On the outbreak of the Rimpoman War His Highness placed the entire resources of his State at the disposal of His Majesty the King-Emperor and offered his personal services. Again in 1919 on the outbreak of hostilities with Afghanistan His Highness served personally on the Frontier on the Staff of the General Officer Commanding and the Imperial Service Company. His Highness was mentioned in despatches.

Gross Income Rupees One crore and fifty Lakhs

Population 1,625,520

Area . 5,932 square miles

The State maintains a first grade College which imparts free education to State Subjects. Primary education is also free throughout the State.

Cavalry and four Battalions of Infantry, one Battery of Horse Artillery

LEUTENANT-GENERAL HIS HIGHNESS
FARZAND-I-KHAN DOWLAT-I-ILAKI-
SHAH, MANSHUR-UL-ZAMAN AMIR-UL-
URWA MAHAVALYA DURSAL KAJ
RAJESHWARYA SHRI MAHAVALYA-I-KAJVALAN
SIR DAVUD VANSAGVATARS BHATTI KUL
BROUSMAN, GCSC GCIE GCVO
GCB, ADC, the present Ruler of
Pothohar, which is the largest of the Pun-
jab States and the premier State in the
Punjab, was born in 1897, succeeded in
1907, and assumed the reins of Govern-
ment in 1909, on the expiration majority. His
Highness the Maharaja Dhruva enjoys at
present a personal salute of 19 guns and
exemption from presenting Nazars to the
Viceroys in Durbar in perpetuity. The
State possesses valuable forests and
is rich in antiquities. One hundred and
thirty-eight miles of broad-gauge railway
are comprising two sections—from
Rajpura to Bhandara and from Sirhind to
Rupnar—have been constructed by the
State at its own cost. His Highness main-
tains a Contingent of two Regiments of



CAPTAIN MEHRBAN MALOJIRAO MUDHOJI-RAO NAIK NIMBAIKAR Maratha (Kshatriya), Ruler of Phaltan.
Born: 11th Sept. 1896.
Educated at: Kolhapur and Rajkot, obtained Diploma of the Rajkumar College
Married: In 1913 S Laxmidevi, daughter of Shrimant Raje Shambhu-singrao Jadhavrao, First Class Sardar of Malegaon B K. in the Poona District.



Her . SHRIMANT PRATAPSINH alias BAPUSAHAB
Date of Succession: 15th November 1917. Phaltan State dates its origin as far back as the middle of 13th century. The State has full control over its administration, having the right to inflict capital punishment and to enact its own laws.
Area of State: 397 square miles.
Population. 58,761.
Revenue. Rs. 4,44,215 based on the average of the past five years.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

President:

RAO SAHEB K. V. GODBOLE, B A, LL B, Devan.

Vice-President:

S. H KHER, Esq, B A, LL B, Revenue Member

Member:

B. L. LIKHITE, Esq, M A, LL B., Finance Member.

H IS HIGHNESS MAHA-
RAJA SHRI SIR
NATWARSINGHI BA-
HADUR, KCSI, Maharaja
Rana Sahab of Porbandar
Born 1901
Succeeded to the Gadi
1908

Educated At the Raj-
kumar College, Rajkot

Married In 1920

Kunvari Shri Rupabha,
M.B.E., daughter of His
Highness Thakore Sahab
Shri Sur Daulatsinghi Baha-
dur, KCSI, Thakore
Sahab of Limbd



His Highness ranks fourth among the Ruling Princes
of Kathiawar enjoying plenary powers

Club. The Macconochie Club, Porbandar

Area of State 642.25 square miles **Population** 115,741
Revenue Rs 20,00,000 **Salute** 13 guns

Wazir

JADEJA SHRI PRATAPSINGHI RANSINGHI

High Officials of the State :

Dewan Mr TRIBHOVANDAS J RAJA, M.A., LL.B.
Hazir Secretary Mr B P PATTANI, B.A. (Cantab)
Private Secretary Col JADEJA SHRI PRATAPSINGHI
Judicial Secretary Mr BHUPATRAI M BUCH, B.A., LL.B.
Ag Railway Manager HIRACHAND P DAVANI
Chief Medical Officer Dr D N KALYANWALA, M.R.
CS (Eng), F.R.S.M., L.M. & S. (Bom.), Etc.
State Engineer & Ag Engineer-in-Chief: (P.S. Railway)
Mr MANILAL R JIVRAJANI, B.E., A.M.I.E.
Ports Commissioner. Capt. R S RAJA IYER, B.Com.
Revenue Commissioner. Mr GOPALDAS V MEHTA
Officer Commanding the State Forces. Major UDEY-
SINHJI N GOHIL

HIS HIGHNESS NAWAB
SAHEB SIR JALALUDDIN-
KHAN BABI BAHADUR,
K C I E, the present Ruler of
Radhanpur State, is a descen-
dant of the illustrious Babi
family who since the reign of
Humayun have always been pro-
minent in the annals of Guzerat.
Born 1889 Invested with
full powers on 27th November,
1910

Educated At the Raykumar
College, Rajkot, and secured
the Final Diploma in the year
1909 His Highness was the
first Chief in the Bombay
Presidency to win the Guzerat Cup at the Pig-Sticking Meet at
Bhandu, in the year 1911

The Nawab Sahab is a member of the Chamber of Princes in his
own right from the beginning

Hereditary and permanent salute . 11 guns

The State of Radhanpur is situated in the North of Guzerat and
has 172 villages It is a first class State in the States of Western India
with full Plenary, Criminal and Civil Jurisdiction.

The State pays no tribute to the British Government or to any
other Indian State, but on the contrary receives an annual Jama
(tribute) amounting in all to Rs 1,712 from some of the surrounding
villages.

Area of the State . 1,150 square miles

Population 70,530 according to census of 1931 .
Average Gross Revenue . Rs 7,50,000 to 8,00,000.

Cotton, wheat, rapeseed, castorseed and different kinds of grain
are the principal agricultural products.



HIS HIGHNESS RAJA RAWAT
SIR BIR INDRA SINGHJI
SAHIB BAHADUR, K C I E,
the present Ruler of Rajgarh

Born January 1892

Educated at the Daly College,
Indore.

Ascended the *gadi* in 1916

His Highness is a member of the
Chamber of Princes in his own
rights

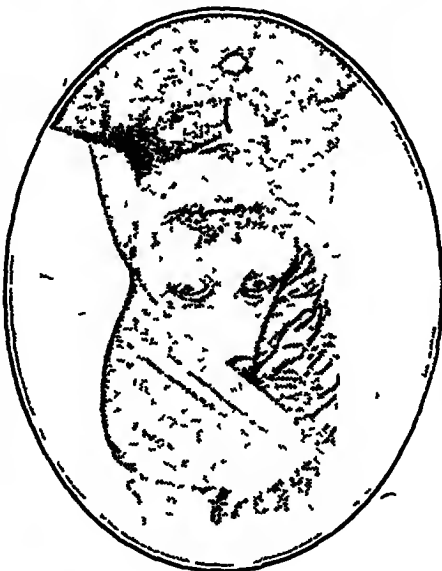
Rajgarh is one of the ancient
Rajput States in Central India
The principal town and capital of
the State is Rajgarh Area of the
State 962 sq miles Population
1,34,891 Annual gross revenue
Rs 12 lakhs

Liberal remissions in land revenue are being given almost every year for the last four years in view of the general depression, so much so that the Darbar remitted land revenue to the extent of 50 per cent in one single year The State has a High School, 3 Middle Schools, 4 Girls' Schools and 53 village schools The State sends up almost every year a batch of students selected from the successful High School students for technical education and training for the various State Departments. The State has recently provided a large, up to date building for the hospital at Rajgarh constructed at a cost of over 2 lakhs of rupees with the requisite equipment to meet the growing need of the public An Asylum for the lepers is also in existence to provide relief to the lepers who are given free diet, clothes, bedding and other requirements The other public activities such as Boy Scout movement, Co-operative Credit Societies and village Panchayats are also flourishing well in the State The State has constructed a number of new roads in the rural areas to provide increased facilities to the transport of agricultural produce, and consequently more cotton producing areas have been put in direct touch with the central places and a number of more grinning factories have of late come into existence Similarly increased opportunities have been provided for the extension of cultivation by improving and developing the sources of irrigation There is a State Bank also which provides cheap credit to the cultivators and traders

The State pays through the British Government Rs 61,718-13-5 to Gwalior State and receives annually from the Gwalior State Rs 2,400 direct It also pays Rs 902-9-4 to Jhalawat State and receives through British Government from Dewas Senior and Junior Rs 4,107-3-9

Hereditary and Dynastic Salute 11 guns

Heir MAHARAJ KUNWAR BIRI RAJ SINGHJI, born December 1932



H IS HIGHNESS THAKORE
SAHEB SHRI DHARMEN-
DRASINHJI, Thakore
Sahab of Rajkot, Kathiawar

Born On 4th March 1910,
succeeded to the Gadi on 21st
April 1931

Educated At Rajkumar Col-
lege, Rajkot, and later on in
England at the High Gate
School, London. He belongs to
the Vibhami clan of Jadeja
Rajputs and enjoys plenary
powers in the administration of
the State

Area of the State 283 sq miles
Population 75,540
Average Revenue, Rs 12,50,000
Dynastic Salute : 9 guns

The Administration is carried on a Secretariat system in co-opera-
tion with Praja Pratimdh Sabha or People's Representatives Assem-
bly based on universal franchise with a Legislative Council and demo-
cratic Municipality linked thereto.

Rajkot town is a trade emporium, also known for its various
industrial activities. It is the headquarters of the W I S Agency,
has a "Rajkumar" College and is served by three important Railway
lines. Educationally it is a premier city in Kathiawar.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Political Secretary DARBAR SHRI VIRAVALA

Palace Secretary DARBAR SHRI MADARSINHJI.

Judicial Secretary MR ABHECHAND G DESAI, BA LL.B

Revenue & General Secretary MR T P BHATT.

Public Works Secretary MR NENSHI MONJI.

Education Department Secretary MR TALAKSHI M DOSHI

Sar Nyayadhisht MR H. R. BUCH, BA, LL.B

Police Superintendent K S VALERAVALA.

Chief Medical Officer . DR A P MEHTA, MBBS

Educational Inspector MR C A. BUCH, MA, B Sc

Managing Engineer . RAI SAHEB A. C DAS

Private Secretary MR JAVANTHAL L. JOBANPUTRA, BA, LL.B



Major HIS HIGHNESS
MAHARAJA SHRI YUVARAJA
SINHJI, KCSI, MAHA-
RAJA OF RAJPIPIA

-Family. Gohel Rajput

Born. 30th January 1890

Date of succession 26th Septem-

ber 1915.

Education at the Rajkumar

College, Rajkot, and Imperial

Cadet Corp, Dehra Dun

Has travelled extensively in

Europe and America

Clubs Marlborough Club,

London, Hurlingham Club, Lon-

don, Willingdon Sports Club,

Bombay, The Calcutta Club,

Calcutta

Recreations. Polo, Racing,

Shooting

New-Apparent YUVARAJ SHRI

RAJENDRASINHJI Born 1912



Younger Sons Maharaj Kumar Pramodsinhji Born 1915.

Maharaj Kumar Indrajitsinhji Born 1925

Rajpura is the Premier State in the Gujarati States Agency. Its

Rulers enjoy full internal sovereignty

Area of State 1,517.50 square miles

Population 206,085 according to the Census of 1931

Revenue. Rs 27,00,000 **Salute** 13 guns—Permanent Hereditary

Indian States Forces Infantry Full Company of 165 men, A class

first line troops

Important Feature The State possesses Cornelian and Agate

mines The famous cup of Ptolemy is known to have come from

the mines at Limboda in the Rajpura State.

Capital Rajpura, a pretty little town surrounded on 3 sides

by the river Karjan with a population of about 15,000 and is studied

with beautiful buildings principal amongst which are the Palace,

Guest House, High School and the Gymkhana

Principal reforms introduced by His Highness the present Maharaja :

1 Making all services pensionable

2 Extension of the Survey Settlement System to every village in

the State.

3. Making Primary Education free and grant of liberal scholar-

ships for secondary and higher education.

4 Liberal endowments for the benefit of widows and the destitute.

5. Encouragement to Trade and Industry. Introduction

of the 1027 A L F. Variety of cotton throughout the

State and development of Pressing and Ginning Industries

6 Extension of Railways

7 Introduction and organisation of State Forces

8 Introduction of the Legislative Council

Principal Officer. PHEROZE D. KOTHAVALA, Dewan

CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS ALI-JAH FARZAND-I-DUPIZIR-I-D-AULATI-INGLISHIA, MUKHLIS-UD-DAVLA, NASIR-UL-MULK, AMIR-UL-UMARA, NAWAB SYED ALOAKYAD RAZA ALI KHAN BAHADUR, MUSTAFI-JUNG, Ruler of Rampur. The Reigning family of Rampur are Syeds and come from the famous Sadat-i-Bareha in the Munzafarnagar District (U P).

Born: 17th November 1906. **Succeeded to the Gadi:** On 20th June 1930. **Formal installation took place on 26th August 1930. Educated:** At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Married: In 1921 the daughter of Sahabzada Sir Abdussamad Khan Bahadur, Kt, CIE. His Highness has two sons and four daughters.



Heir-Apparent Sahabzada Syed Murtaza Ali Khan Bahadur, born on 22nd November 1923.

His Highness is a keen sportsman and has a taste for music and fine arts, is a Patron of the Delhi Flying Club; and is a Captain in the 2 King George's Own Gurkha Rifles.

Since the creation of the State of Rampur by Nawab Sayed Ali Mohammad Khan Bahadur in the middle of the 18th century invaluable service to Mughal Emperors, alliance with the British against France in 1771 and perfect devotion to His Imperial Majesty during the Mutiny of 1857 have been the landmarks of the history of his family. During the Great War of 1914-18, Nawab Sir Syed Mohammad Hamid Ali Khan Bahadur rendered meritorious services to the British Government.

Area of State: 892 54 sq miles. **Population:** 464,919. **Salute:** Permanent 15 guns.

STATE COUNCIL.

President.
KHAN BAHADUR MASUD-UL-HASAN, Bar-at-Law, Chief Minister.

Members.
SYED BASHIR HUSAIN ZAIDI, B.A. (Cantab), Bar-at-Law, Political Minister.
MR R S SYMONS, ICS, Finance & Revenue Minister
COL SAHEBZADA SYED HASAN RAZA KHAN, Household Minister
COL D BARNBRIDGE, MC, Army Minister.
MR MOAZZAM ALI KHAN, Bar-at-Law, Home Minister
MR C D PARKIN, IPS, Inspector General, State Police.
MR RAGHUNATHAN KISHORE, B.A, LL B, State Advocate.

COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS
SIR SAJJAN SINGHI,
 G.C.I.F., K.C.S.I.,
 K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H.R.H.
 the Prince of Wales,
 Maharaja Sahib Bahadur of
 Ratnam.

Born: 13th January
 1880 Descended from
 younger branch of Jodhpur
 family. He is the recog-
 nised head of the Rathor
 clan and maintains a moral
 supremacy over Rajput
 Chieftains in Malwa

Educated. At the Daly
 College at Indore and
 succeeded his father (Sir Ranjit Singhji, K.C.I.E.) in 1893

Married In 1902 a daughter of His Highness the
 Maharao of Cutch and in 1922, a daughter of the well-known
 Soda Rajput family of Jammagar, by whom he has three
 daughters and two sons.

Served in European War (France) from April 1915
 upto 1918; was mentioned in despatches; was presented with
 "Croix d'Officier of the Legion d'Honneur" by the French
 Government and was granted the honorary rank of Colonel
 in the British Army in 1918 Served in Afghan War in 1919.
 Has enjoyed an international reputation as a Polo
 Player.

Her-Apparent. MAHARAJKUMAR LOKENDRA SINGHI

Area of State: 693 square miles

Population. 107,321.

Revenue: Rs. 10 lakhs

Salute: 13 guns (local salute 15 guns).

Administration: Of the State is carried on with the
 help of a Council of which His Highness is the President and
 RAO BAHADUR DEVSHANKER J DAVE, Advocate, is Dewan
 and Vice-President.



HIS HIGHNESS BANDAVERSH
MAHARAJA SIR GULAB
SINGH JU DEO BAHADUR,
G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., MAHARAJA
OF REWA (Rajput Baghel).

Born 1903, Ascended the
gadi in 1918, invested with
ruling powers in 1922.
Educated At the Daly
College, Indore.

Married. In 1919 a sister of
His Highness the Maharaja of
Jodhpur, and also married in
1925 the daughter of His late
Highness Maharaja Sir Madan
Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I.,
K.C.I.E., Ruler of Kishangarh.
The Maharaja is a noted
sportsman and has shot 491
tigers.

He was a delegate to the 1st
and 2nd sessions of the Round
Table Conference and was also a member of the Federal Structure
Committee of the Conference. He is a member of the General Council
of the Daly College and of the Managing Committee of King Edward
Medical School, Indore.



Her-Apparent SRI YUVRAJ MAHARAJ KUMAR MARTAND SINGH
SAHIB (born in 1923)
Area of State 13,000 square miles
Revenue. Rs 60,00,000
Salute 17 guns.
Population 1,587,445.

Rewa is the largest and the easternmost State in the Central
India Agency. The State is bounded on the North by the Banda,
Alhabad and Mirzapur Districts of the U.P., on the East by the
Mirzapur District and the Feudatory State of Chota Nagpur, on the
South by the Central Provinces, and on the West by the State of
Mahar, Nagod, Sohawal and Kothl. The State has a number of
'Waterfalls,' some of which, Chahcal and Keoti are famous for their
height and grandeur. The State is very rich in mineral resources.

The Administration of the State is carried in the name and under
the direct control of His Highness the Maharaja, who is the fountain
head of all authority in the state. On the executive side His Highness
is assisted by a State Council of 8 members of which His Highness
himself is the President. On the judicial side there is a Chief Court
consisting of Judges. A Raj Parishad consisting of 39 members with
the number of officials and non-officials almost equal, has also been
established to advise on such matters of public interest as are referred
to it. His Highness takes a very great interest in the Administration
of the State and in the development of trade and industries for which
purpose he has instituted a state Bank with branches all over the
State.

H IS HIGHNESS MUBARIZ-UD-DAULAH, MUZZAFFAR-UL-MULK, NASRUT-E-JUNG, NAWAB BAHADUR SIDI MOHOMMED, HAIDER MOHOMMED YAKUT KHAN, NAWAB OF SACHIN.

Born 11th September 1909

Succeeded 19th November 1930
 Married Her Highness Arjuman Bano, Sarkar Mahel, Nawab Nusrat Zaman, Nawab-Begum of Sachin the eldest sister of His Highness the Nawab of Loharu, on 7th July 1930

Educated At home and later at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot

Brothers : Captain Nawabzada Sidi Mohommed Suroor Khan Bahadur Captain Nawabzada Sidi

Mohommed Freeman Kaiser alias Salim Khan Bahadur.
 Sister Nawabzada Roshan Ara Begum

Sachin is the Senior Habsli State in India. The Rulers of Sachin are Habsli Mohommedans, and are the lineal descendants of Nawab Bahadur Sidi Abdul Karim Mohommed Yakut Khan I. Over a family dispute for the Throne of Janjira the Sidi Abdul Karim Mohommed Yakut Khan I left Janjira and joined forces with the Peshwa. In 1733 a triple treaty was concluded between the Sidi Abdul Karim Mohommed Yakut Khan I, the Peshwa, and the East India Company, on the basis of an offensive and a defensive alliance. By this Triple Alliance the Sidi Abdul Karim Mohommed Yakut Khan I took the State of Sachin. The Ruler of Sachin is a member of the Narendra Mandal (Chamber of Princes) in his own right and is internally fully Sovereign. The State pays no tribute either to the British Government or to any other State.

Sachin The Capital of the State and a pretty town on the B. & C. I. Railway.

Dumas The Summer Capital of the Ruler, is a delightful sea-resort ten miles by motor road from Surat. The only summer resort of its kind on the Western coast. Connected with Grand Trunk Telephone and other modern conveniences. Amusements in Dumas. Sea bathing, promenade, tennis, cricket, motorng, etc

Chief Minister WAZIR-E-AZAM ATYAKARAO B ACHERAKER, M.A., LL.B.

Address : QASRE SULTAN, DUMAS, (Sachin State).



R AJA BAHADUR
LEELADHAR SINGH,
the present Ruler of
the Sakti State:

Born. 5th Feb. 1892

Succeeded to the gadi
1915.

Education at the
Rajkumar College,
Raipur.



Married in 1914 Due to the demise of his first Rani
Sahiba married a second time in 1929

Her-aparent: LAL JIVENDRA NATH BAHADUR
SINGH—Born 12th August 1916.

Since the accession of the Raja Bahadur to the Gadi
a steady progress in the affairs of the State has been
made all round

Area. 130 square miles.

Population. 48,493.

Annual Revenue. Rs 1,06,243.

Annual Tribute Rs 1,500.

Diwan: RAI SAHEB PANDIT GANGADIN SHUKUL.

Raja SRIMANT YASH-WANTRAO HINDURAO GORPADE, MAHARAJA NADAR, SENAPATHI, Ruler of Sandur.

Born. 1908 Succeeded to the Throne in 1928 Assumed the reins of administration in 1930.

Married. On 22nd Dec 1929 the eldest daughter of Umadat-ul-Mulk, Raja Rajendra, Major Maloji Narasingh Rao Shitole, Deshmukh, Rustamjung Bahadur of Gwalior

A son and heir was born to the Ruler on the 7th December 1931, who is named Shrimant Morar Rao Gorpada after illustrious ancestor of the present Ruler A second son was born to the Ruler on the 16th February 1933, and is named Rajkumar Rajnit Singh A daughter was born to the Ruler on 8th February 1934, and is named Princess Nirmala Raj.



In 1923 the State was brought into direct political relations with the Government of India, in pursuance of Paragraph 310 of the Montford Report, to the effect that "all important States should be placed in direct political relations with the Government of India."

The State possesses sandalwood forests and rich manganese mines Ramandrug Sanatorium (Altitude 3,200 feet) and Shri Kartek-swami Temple are the places of interest

All temples, wells and schools have been thrown open from 1932 to all Hindus irrespective of caste or creed Education is imparted free in the State up to the Matriculation standard A Proclamation was issued by the Ruler on 10th September 1934 directing that the execution of decrees passed by Civil Courts be stayed till 31st March 1935 as a temporary palliative. A committee has also been appointed to concert measures to relieve agricultural indebtedness

The "Huzur Darbar" (Executive Council) was constituted on the 1st of April 1932 The Dewan, two Secretaries to Government and any number of extra members whom the Ruler may be pleased to nominate, form the "Huzur Darbar" The following are the Members of the "Huzur Darbar":

- (i) Shrimant Sardar B Y Chorpade.
- (ii) Meherban C T Konnur, B A
- (iii) Meherban V. Narasimharao, M A
- (iv) Meherban B V. Krishnan Kutty Menon, B A, B L

To afford to the people an opportunity for expressing their wants and wishes to the Government and to enable them to learn first hand how their actions affect the people and to have the benefit of the suggestions of the latter regarding these measures, the Ruler was pleased to constitute a State Council in 1931.

LIEUTENANT HIS HIGH-
NESS **MEHRAN SHRIMANT**
SIR CHINTAMANRAO
DHUNDIRAO alias APPA SAHEB
PATWARDHAN, KCIE, Raja
of Sangli

Born 1890. Ascended the
Gad in 1903. Educated at the
Rajkumar College at Rajkot.
Her Highness is a daughter of
Sir M. V. Joshi, Kt, KCIE,
B.A., LL.B., of Amraoti, Ex-
Home Member of the Govern-
ment of Central Provinces.

Her - **SHRIMANT** **RAJ-**
KUMAR MADHAVRAO alias RAO
SAHEB PATWARDHAN YUVARAJ

Area of State 1,136 sq miles.

Population 258,442

Revenue The gross revenue of the State based on the average of
the actual receipts for the past five years is Rs 15,95,584

Salute 9 guns permanent and 11 personal. Enjoys I Class
Jurisdiction, i.e., power to try for capital offences any persons except
British subjects

Has served as Member or first substitute member of the Standing
Committee of the Chamber of Princes since 1924 and is a member of the
Standing Committee now. Served also as a Member of the I and II
Round Table Conferences and as a member of the Federal Structure
Committee

His Highness the Raja Sahab is assisted by an Executive Council
consisting of (1) the Diwan Rao Bahadur G. R. Barwe, B.A., (2)
Political Minister and Second Councillor Rao Sahab Y. A. Thombare,
B.A., (3) Third Councillor Rao Bahadur G. V. Patwardhan, B.A.,
LL.B., and (4) Fourth Councillor Mr. Y. V. Kolhatkar, B.A., LL.B.

The total number of Co-operative Societies is 87, being made up
of 70 agricultural and 15 non-agricultural. Besides these there is
one Central Co-operative Bank and a Co-operative Sale-Shop

The State has (a) three Boys' High Schools, one Girls' High School
and one Mahila Vidyalaya or School for Adult Women, and (b) one
Hospital, five dispensaries and one Maternity Home.



THE Ruling Family in the Sant State belong to the Petwar or Parmar caste of Rajput and are the celebrated family of Vikramaditya and Raja Bhoj of Ujjain. They first came down from Dhar and settled at Jhalod and finally about the 13th Century at Sant. The founder of the family was Rana Sant who with his brother Lander was forced to leave Jhalod and established himself at Sant.

Area : 394 square miles.
Population 83,538 (1931)
Revenue Rs 4,66,342.

The present Ruler Maharaja Shri Jorawarsingh was born on 24th March 1881 and installed on the Gadil 1896. He was formally invested with full powers on 10th May 1902. He was educated in the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and was associated with the Government Administration of the State for more than a year preparatory to his being invested with full powers. He is an intelligent Prince who keenly supervises the administration of the State. During his regime many improvements have been made and the revenue of the State increased.—Provision for English education has been surveyed and regular settlements introduced.—Provision for English education made for the first time and Primary and Secondary education made free throughout the State.—Election system sanctioned for Municipality.—Free medical relief extended by opening new dispensaries in the district. During his regime such as founding of a permanent Ramesh Kelkar Fund, granting of liberal local loans to the agriculturists during the time of scarcity. Money is also advanced to the local merchants by way of encouragement at cheap rate of interest. Other improvements of utility such as installation of electricity in the towns of Sant and Rampur, clock tower, public gardens, metalled roads in parts have also been made. The regime of Maharaja Shri Jorawarsingh has been anything but a bed of roses. Revenue and lean years had made the financial condition of the State far from satisfactory, but wise management has been instrumental to keeping its head up.

The Rajah exercises full powers and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns. Primogeniture is the rule of succession to the Gadil and the Darbar's right of adoption has been recognised and confirmed by Government. During the Great War the services of the Rajah Sahib were appreciated by Government. The Government were also pleased to recognise the right of the Rajah to be a member of the Chamber of Princes.

Her appearance: MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI PRAVINSINGH was born on 1st December 1907. **Married:** Maharaj Rajkumari, daughter of Maharaj Kumar Shri Vijayarajji, Heir-apparent, Cutch State, on 15th May 1928, at Bhuj.

With effect from the 1st April 1933, all the Bombay states were brought into the Political relation with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor General for the Gujrat States and Resident at Baroda with headquarters at Baroda. Since then the Sant State has been in direct political relation with the Government of India. The supervision and management of the Vaccination Department of the State has been transferred to the State from 1st December 1933, by Government and the Chief Medical Officer of the State has been appointed as the head of the department. Unrestricted control and management of the State schools was transferred to the State by Government from 1st May 1933.



SHREEMAN RAJA JAGENDRA
SINGHI DEO BAHADUR
OF SONAHVAL STATE
Born : 1900

Educated. at the Daly
College Indore and Privately

Ascended the Gadi. on 16th
February 1930, succeeding
his father Shreeman Raja
Bhagwatraj Bahadur Singhi
Deo, C.I.E. Shreeman Dur-
bar has two brothers 1 Raj
KUMAR VEERENDRA SINGHI
2 Raj KUMAR PURUSHOTTAM
SINGHI

The Ruling family belongs
to the famous clan of Baghela
Rajputs who came from Anhilwara Patan in the early part of the
fourteenth Century. The State was founded in the beginning
of the seventeenth Century by Raja Fateh Singhi, who was
acknowledged suzerain of a large tract of country by the Imperial
Emperor of 1066 A.H. (1655 A.D.). By a subsequent sanad
dated the 1177 A.H. (1177) Shah Alum gave recognition to the
hereditary title of "Raja" and "Bahadur," the Manasab of
Chahar-Hazar and the privilege of carrying "Alum" (Flag)
and Nagara (Kettle drum). The State which yielded a revenue
of Rs 19 Lacs a year shrank in extent owing to the depredations
of the Marathas and Bundelas. It was granted a Sanad by the
British Government in 1809 A.D.

The State has now an area of 252 square miles and an annual
income of Rs. 2,25,000 including alienations. It has a population of
42,192 souls. The State has large economically exploitable
deposits of Lime Stone, White Chalk and Red and Yellow Ochres.
Among ancient relics, it contains the shrine of Shree Sharabhang
Alum and the temple of Shree Gabi Nathji.

The Administration of the State is carried on by a Council
of which the Durbar is the President and the following are
members. —

- 1 RAI SAHIB Mr. S. P. SANAYAL, *Adviser.*
- 2 PANDIT NARSINGH NARAIN MISHRA, M.A., LL.B., (*Dewan*)
- 3 DEWAN LAL JAGMOHAN SINGHI
- 4 MUNSHI BANSIHARJI, *Secretary.*
5. KHASGI OFFICER.



SAPTASRI MAHARAJA
SIR BIR MITRODAYA
SING DEO, DHAR-

MANDI, JNANGUNAKAR,
K C I E, of Sonpur State
Descended from the
Chohan Rajputs once
represented by the histo-
cal Prithviraj of Delhi
and Ajmere

Born: 1874

Ascended the Gadi in

1902.

Married in 1895, the

daughter of the Raja of
Kashipur, who is now

MAHARANI SRIMATI LADY PARVATI DEVI, 1st Class Kaisar-
I-Hind, Life-Fellow, Patna University

Her-appeant. MAHARAJKUMAR SRIMAN SUDHANGSHU

SEKHAR SING DEO, M R A S, the general administrator of the
State under the Ruler, and President of the Popular Assembly
(Vichar-Samiti)

Tikait Lal Sahab Sir Bir Pratap Sing Deo, first grandson of
the Ruler

Area 961 square miles

Population 237,920

Income . Rs. 5,17,000

Permanent Salute 9 guns.

Secretary

AMARENDRA NATH SARKAR, B L

Legal Adviser :

B. C MAZUMDAR, ADVOCATE, CALCUTTA HIGH COURT.





HIS HIGHNESS SAÏD-UD-DAULAH WAZIR-UL-MULK NAWAB HARIZ KHAN BAHADUR SOWLAT-I-JUNG, G.C.I.E., Nawab of Tonk State (Rajputana), is an Afghan of the Buner tribe known as Salarzie.
 Born : 1879
 Ascended the Gadi on 23rd June 1930 on the death of his father H. H. Sir Mòhammed Ibrahim Ab Khan Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.
 Educated : Privately and is an Arabic and Persian Scholar.
 Area of State : 2,553 square miles.

Population 317,360 according to census of 1931
 Revenue Rs. 23,00,000.
 Salute . 17 guns.

During His Highness' rule many reforms have been introduced in the administration of the State, the most important being the separation of the Executive and the Judiciary by the establishment of a Chief Court and a Sessions Court.
 The administration of the State is carried on by His Highness with the help of the State Council, which has also recently been reorganised and put on a firmer constitutional basis by the passing of the State Council Act. The personnel of the State Council is as follows —

President. HIS HIGHNESS THE NAWAB SAHIB BAHADUR.
Vice-President and Finance Member. MAJOR R. R. BURNETT, O.B.E., I.A.
Honre Member. KHAN BAHADUR SZ MOHD ABDUL TAWAB KHAN
Judicial Member. KHAN BAHADUR SHEIKH RAHIM BUKSH, O.B.E.
Revenue Member. KHAN SAHIB MOHD ASAD ULLAH KHAN
Secretary. M. HAMID HUSAIN, B.A.

HIS HIGHNESS SRI
PADMANABHA • DASA
VANCHI PAIA RAMA
VARMA KULASEKHARA
KIRITAPATI MANNEY SULTAN
MAHARAJA RAJA RAMARAJA
BAHADUR SHAMSHER JANG,
 Maharaja of Travancore

Born : 7th November 1912

Ascended . The Musnad
 1st September 1924.

Invested with Ruling
 powers. 6th November 1931

Educated : Privately

- Hew : HIS HIGHNESS
 MARTANDA VARMA ELAYA
 RAJA.



Travancore is one of the largest Indian States in South India under the Political control of the Government of India. It is bounded on the North by the State of Cochin and the District of Coimbatore, on the East by the Districts of Madurai, Ramanad and Tinnevely and on the South and West by the Indian ocean and the Arabian Sea. Travancore has an area of 7,625 square miles and according to the census of 1931, the population is 5,095,973. The State now stands in the forefront of educated India. According to the census of 1931, the number of literates per 1,000 of the population excluding children under 5 years of age is 289. For males, the figures are 408 per 1,000, and for females 168. The Ruler of Travancore is the source of all authority, judicial, administrative and legislative. The Government of the country is conducted in the name and under the control of His Highness the Maharaja. There is a legislature consisting of an Upper and a Lower House, with a majority of elected members and possessing large legislative and financial powers and powers of interpellation.

The Dewan is His Highness' sole minister

Revenue Rs. 2,38,87,200.

Salute : 19 guns, local 21 guns

Dewan . KHAN BAHADUR SIR MUHAMMAD HABIBU-UL-LAH
 SAHIB BAHADUR, KCSI, KCIE, KT, LL.D.

HIS HIGHNESS
MAHARAJADHIRAJ
MAHARANA SHREE
SIR BHUPAL SINGHYI
BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., Ruler
 of Udaipur, the Premier
 State in Rajputana.

Born. 22nd February
 1884.

Married: First to the
 daughter of the Thakur
 of Auwa in Marwar in
 March 1910 After her
 demise to the daughter
 of the Thakur of Achrol in
 Jaipur in February-1911
 and then to the daughter of the Thakur of Khudala in
 Marwar in January 1928.

Educated. Privately.

Area of the State: 12,753 square miles.

Population. 1,566,910. **Revenue:** Rs. 60,00,000.

Permanent Salute. 19 guns. **Local** 21 guns.

STATE ADMINISTRATION.

Musahib Ala Raj Mewar: Rao Bahadur Pandit Sir
 Sukhdeo Prasadji, KT, C.I.E., B.A.

Senior Minister. Dewan Bahadur Pandit Dharam
 Narainji, M.A., Bar-at-Law.

Minister: P. C. Chatterji, Esq.



D ARBAR S H R E
 Chief of Vadia State
 in the Western Kathiawar
 Agency (Western India
 States). He comes of a high
 and ancient lineage and is a
 member of the Virani Branch
 of the illustrious Kathi Clan
 from which this Province has
 taken its name.

Born. On the 15th March
 1904

Succeeded. To the Gadi in
 1930 and assumed the reins of
 the State Administration on
 the 7th September 1930

Educated: Privately under the
 supervision of a competent tutor

Married In 1921 to A S

Kunvarbaisab, the present

Rani Sahiba and has 3 daughters and two sons

Her-appearance - She is Shree Krashnakumar Aged about 4
 years Born in 1930

Rule of Primogeniture governs the succession

Area. 90 square miles
Population 13,719

Revenue Rs 2,50,000

Education is imparted free in the State—Medical relief is given
 free to all irrespective of caste and creed—Child Marriage Restriction Act
 is applied to the State—Liquor is strictly prohibited—The Farmers are
 protected by the special Rules akin to the Deccan Agriculture Relief
 Act—A State Village Bank is opened for the convenience of the farmers
 Loans are also given to the merchants to facilitate Commerce at very
 low interest A New State Hospital with a Tower Clock is built
 in Vadia which is one of the best buildings in the State

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

State Karbhari. Mr Bholanath J Thaker, B.A., LL.B

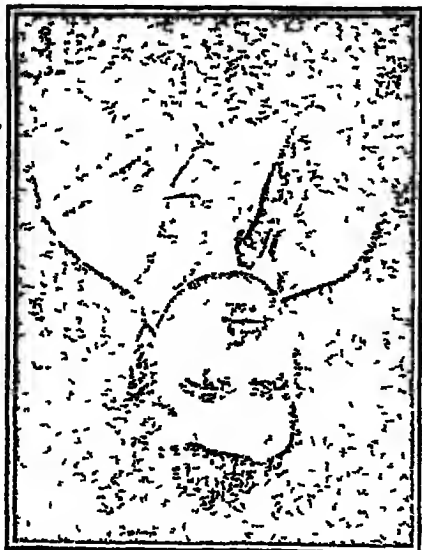
Nyayadsh: Mr SAVAJI C DHOLAKIA

Medical Officer: Mr KHODIDAS J PANCHOLY, L.C.P.S

Bank Manager & Office Superintendent. Mr HATHIBHAI R VANK

Private Secretary: Mr RAMBHAI D PATIL

Treasury Officer: Mr. PANCHAND BHAWAN SANGANI



HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAO SHRI HANIR SINGHI SAHEB BAHADUR, Vijaynagar State, a second class State enjoying plenary powers.

The rulers are the descendants of Jaichand, the last Rathod Raja of Kanour, and belong to the famous section known in history as the Solar Race.

Born : 3rd January 1904

Date of Succession : 27th June 1916.

Installed on the Gadi . 26th October, 1924

Educated : At the Mayo College, Ajmer.

Area of the State . About 175 sq miles. Population 8,491.

Married . The daughter of the nephew of His Highness the late Maharaja Dhuraya Shri Alaharana Sahab Sir Fatehsinghi of Udaipur, and on her demise again married the daughter of the late Raja Sahab Shri Bhagwat Raj Bahadur Singhi of Soharwal State in Central India

Recreation . Shooting, Riding, Tennis, Cricket, Hockey, Football.

Her-Apparant . MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI PRATAP SINGHI SAHEB, born on 24th September, 1930.

Places of Interest . SHRI VIRESHWAR MAHADEV, with most charming and natural scenes on the hill side.

Political Relations . With the Government of India, directly through the Honble the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India, Rajkot

Dewan . MR RANCHHODLAL MATHURDAS TALATI, B.A.

Private Secretary : MAHARAJ SHRI GULABSINGHI SAHEB
Chief Medical Officer : DR. RAMANLAL M. DESAI, I.C.P.S.,



**THAKOR SHREE SIV-
SINHJI VIJAYSINHJI ZAI A
MAKAWANA**, the Ruling
Chief of Hol State in the Sabai
Kantha Agency under the
Western India States Agency.

Born on the 31st December
1910
Succeeded to the Gadi on the
18th October 1927

Ascended to the Gadi on the
1st April 1935, with full jurisdic-
tional powers appertaining to
the State

Education At the Scott Col-
lege, Sadra for 7 years. There-
after proceeded to England, the
company of Col Gordon, the
then Political Agent of the old
Mabhi-Kantha Agency, from
where he returned, equipped
with higher education, ideal training and varied experience, necessary
for an Indian Ruler, after about 4 years. He is free from any vice and
worldly temptations, chose to live a life of a bachelor until he
assumed the powers of his State. He is still unmarried.

Rule of primogeniture prevails

Area . 19 Square miles

Revenue Rs 55,000

Population 4,662

There are stone quarries and mines of white, yellow and red clay
deposits. Cotton is also produced in the State

Almost every village has a primary school where education is
imparted free. In Hol itself there are primary schools for boys and
girls and also for the depressed classes. There is also one English
school.

There is also a State Hospital, the advantage of which is taken
not only by the State subjects, but also by those of the adjoining
States.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS

State Karbhari Mr CHUNILAL K BUTALA
State Nayadhash Mr HARILAL J TRIVEDI

ORIGIN

The Ruling family belongs to the Surya Vanshi Zala Makawana
clan. The present Ruler is the descendant of Vijaypal, the son of
Kesar Makawana and grandson of Vihas who is said to be the descendant
of the original man, born from the mouth of Rushi Markand



Raja KALYAN SINGH
of Bhinai Estate,
Ajmer-Merwara,
Rajputana.

Born: 20th October

1913.

Succeeded. To the Gadi on the 6th October, 1917, on the death of his father Raja Jagmal Singh and is the 9th successor to the Bhinai Raj.

Education: At the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he studied for 12 years.

Having successfully passed the Diploma Examination in April 1931, he studied for the Higher Diploma Examination for three years. After receiving practical training, he was invested with powers on 20th October 1934

Married The 3rd daughter of the late Rao Raja Bahadur Shri Madho Singhji, K C I E of Sikar in 1931.

Family History The rulers of this family are Rathore Rajputs descending from Rao Jodha, the founder of the city of Jodhpur (Marwar) Karamsen, the grandson of Rao Maldeo (1581), was the head of this family. He came to Ajmer, and having by stratagem intoxicated Madha, the Chief of a band of Bhils, who ravaged the country near Bhinai, slew him and dispersed his followers. For this service Bhinai and seven other Parganas were bestowed upon him in Jagir by Emperor Akbar. Subsequently, the title of Raja was bestowed on Bhinai House in 1783 by the then ruler of Jodhpur as a reward for military service. The head of this house is the premier Raja of the district

Annual Revenue. Over Rs 1,00,000.

Area. 122 square miles.

Recreation. Polo, Squash and Hockey.



CAPTAIN NAWAB SIR MUHAMMAD AHMAD SAID KHAN, KCSI, KCIE, MBE, of Rajput clan of Lal-Khanis of Bulandshahar district
Born In December 1888 in the Rohtak district of the Punjab
Educated In the late M A O College, Aligarh, and is well versed in Urdu and Persian, besides being a Hafiz, i.e., one who knows the Holy Quran by heart

The Nawab Sahib has been in public life since 1910 and has taken a leading part in social, political and educational activities. He was elected President of the Rajput Reform Conference at Kalanaur, Punjab. He is patron of the Muslim High School, Bulandshahar, which owes its existence to his generosity.



He entered the Provincial Legislative Council as an elected member in 1920 under the Montford Reforms. He was the first elected non-official Chairman of the Bulandshahar District board under the new District Boards Act which was passed in 1922. He was a member of various committees appointed by the Government. In 1923 he was appointed a Minister and worked in that capacity till January 1926, when he was appointed Home Member. Both as a Minister and as Home Member he always tried his best to carry the Council with him. In 1928, after the unexpected and untimely demise of Sir Alexander Muddiman, Sir Ahmad Said Khan was called to act as Governor of the Province for about two months. Early in 1932 he also acted as a Member of the Governor General's Executive Council for about two months. He was a member of the Indian Round Table Conference, and attended two of its sessions.

From April to November 1933, the Nawab Sahib was appointed Governor of the U P during the absence of Sir Malcolm Hailey. Soon after his retirement from the official life of the province in that year, Nawab Sir Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan was called upon by his community to accept the chairmanship of the All India Muslim Conference, a premier political organisation of the Mussalman in this country, and has been working in that capacity since then. He is also the president of the U P Zemindars' Conference, having been elected to that office by the land holders of the province in February 1934. The Nawab Sahib is essentially a man of peace and stands for good relations between the two important communities, i.e., the Muslims and the Hindus, and has worked for this all his life. He was made a Nawab (personal) in 1915, and hereditary in 1919. During the War he was awarded MBE, CIE in 1918, KCIE, and KCSI in 1933. He is only 46 and has many years of useful life before him to serve his country.

NAWAB K. G. MOHAMMAD FAROQUI, the only son of Kazi Kayazuddin Muhammad Farouqi, born in the year 1891, belongs to one of the few historic families of Bengal. He is the eleventh in descent from Kazi Omar Shah Farouqi, a lineal descendant of Hazrat Omar Farouqi, the second Khalif of Arabia who migrated to India and settled at Delhi. He was sent out to Bengal as a military commander by Emperor Ferozkhan and in recognition of his meritorious services was given the grant of extensive jaghir of two parganas in the district of Tippera, and the original Sanad conferring the jaghir by Emperor Ferozkhan is in the possession of the family.

Kazi Aftabuddin Farouqi, the grandfather of Nawab K. G. M. Farouqi rendered great help to the Empire at the time of the Sepoy Mutiny. His only son, Kazi Kayazuddin Muhammad Farouqi, the father of Nawab K. G. M. Farouqi was recognized as the most influential leader and was highly respected by all communities. Nawab K. G. M. Farouqi was the first non-official Chairman of the Tippera District Board, Commissioner of the Comilla Municipality, Member of the A. B. Railway Advisory Board, Member of the Dacca University Court, an Honorary Magistrate and a Member of the Governing Body of the Comilla College for several years before he entered the arena of higher politics.

He has been a member of the Bengal Legislative Council since the introduction of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms and was the non-official Chief Whip of the Council till he was appointed Minister in 1929 in charge of Agriculture, Industries, Co-operative, Veterinary Departments and Public Works. He has been appointed Leader of the House in the Bengal Legislative Council.

Among his many activities may be mentioned that he successfully piloted the State Aid to Industries Act, and that he evolved a scheme for solving the unemployment problem in Bengal amongst the Bhandaraj class by reviving small cottage industries. He also took steps to establish co-operative land mortgage banks for relieving the agriculturists of their indebtedness.

He enjoys the confidence of all sections of the people in the province. In recognition of his meritorious services and activities he was honoured with the title of "Khan Bahadur" in 1924 and with the title of "Nawab" in 1932.

He married Quatrina Begum, eldest daughter of the Hon'ble Alhady Nawab Bahadur Sir Abdelkrem Ghuznavi, Kt., of Didduar, Ex-Member of the Executive Council, Government of Bengal, in the year 1916.



NAWAB SIR AHMED HUSSAIN K C I E, CSI, I. D., of Hyderabad, Feshi Sadr-ul-Muham to the Nizam (that is, Minister-in-Waiting on His Exalted Highness). Born on the 17th August 1863 at Madras. The boy Ahmed devoted such keen attention to his studies that in matriculating from the Church of Scotland Mission Institution, where he was "Cornham Bursar", he obtained the blue ribbon of University Endowments at Madras, viz the Governor's Scholarship, meant for the prosecution of further studies with distinction. Ahmed Hussain joined the Madras Christian College, where he became one of the favourite "boys" of the Rev Dr Miller. He won the Miller's Prize and graduated B. A., second in the list of successful candidates of the year 1885. He then decided on pursuing the legal profession and accordingly joined the Law Class of the Presidency College, Madras, obtained his B. L. Degree in 1889 and in the next year secured the M. A. Degree of the Madras University. He was the only successful candidate of the year in Philosophy. His attainments in Oriental Languages were such that he was appointed one of the Examiners to the University soon after his graduation. After taking his B. L. Degree, Moulvi Ahmed Hussain read Law in the Chambers of Mr. Eardley Norton, who was then known as "the Lion of the Bar". Before enrolment as High Court Vakil (he is now Advocate of the Madras High Court), "the Moulvi", as he was then generally known, was offered the post of Deputy Collector, the highest in the Revenue Department to which an Indian was then eligible. Mr. Hussain resigned the post and joined the Bar at Madras. Mr. Norton, who was in Hyderabad in 1893, telegraphed Mr. Hussain to go there for a few days to appear with him in a big civil suit in the Nizam's High Court. But within three days of his arrival in Hyderabad he was appointed Assistant Secretary to the Nizam. When Nawab Server Jung, Feshi Secretary, retired in 1896 his Assistant reluctantly stepped in his shoes to hold the most difficult and dangerous appointment in the State. The Moulvi had to serve and satisfy not one but three masters—the Nizam, the British Resident, and the Prime Minister—whose views and wishes were not and could not always be identical. The day after the death of Nizam, the Sixth Asaf Jah, Moulvi Ahmed Hussain resigned his post, but the new Nizam, induced him to remain in his service. The Moulvi attended the Delhi Durbar of 1902 as Feshi Secretary to the late Nizam and the Coronation Durbar of 1911 as Chief Secretary to the present Nizam. It was at the latter Durbar that he received at the hands of the King-Emperor the insignia of CSI, K C I E, in 1922.



KISHUN PERSHAD—
 RAJA-I-RAJAYAN, MAHA-
 RAJA BAHADUR,
 YAMIN-US-SULTANAT, SIR,
 G.C.I.E., HEREDITARY PESH-
 KAR, Prime Minister from
 1901 to 1912, and President
 of the Executive Council
 of Hyderabad State from
 25th November 1926

Born. 28th January, 1864,
 direct descendant of Maharaja
 Chandoolal, the first Hydera-
 bad Statesman to have reali-
 sed the importance of alliance
 between his sovereign, the
 Nizam, and the British Power
 and who first laid down the
 tradition for charity and
 philanthropy in the family

lives up to these two ideals of the House. He was educated
 first at the Nizam's College and then privately in Persian
 and Arabic, particularly in the teachings of Sufism. Under
 the nom-de-plume Shad he loves to write verses both in
 Urdu and in Persian, mostly lyrics full of mystical thoughts.
 He has also written many works in prose but mainly in Urdu.
 Besides literature, his present hobby is sketching, particularly
 landscapes in water colours. Maharaja Chandoolal as a des-
 cendant of Todar Mal, the Minister of Akbar, culturally belonged
 to the School of Akbar. According to the tradition of the House
 and the custom of inter marriages inaugurated by Akbar, Maha-
 raja Sir Kishun Pershad has married both Hindu and Moham-
 madan ladies

Her RAJA KHAJA PERSHAD also called RAJA ARJUN
 KUNWAR

Born 17th May 1914.

Area of the Jagir . 490 Square miles

Population 1,23,691

The Jagir consists of 8 Taluqas with 196 villages and has the
 Sessions powers as well as full powers in civil

Revenue . Rs 10,16,003

Mr GUNDE RAO is the Estate Secretary and Session Judge.



SYED MOHIDDIN ALI KHAN, NAWAB MOHTUD-DIN YAR JUNG BAHADUR, B A (Cantab), known generally in the public as "Hunter Sahib," and among the Hindus particularly as Govindachary, was born in 1864 in Hyderabad-Deccan.

Is a descendant on his father's side of Nawab Razi Ali Khan (a Farooki by birth), Ruler of Khandesh and Nawab Najeeb Khan, Salar Jung of Delhi, on mother's side of the Nawabs of Poona and Tipu Sultan

Educated At the Aligarh College and the Trinity College, Cambridge Passed History Tripos in 1892, and returned to Hyderabad-Deccan by the end of that year



He was appointed on his return from Aligarh as Hon Attaché at the Residency and served Mr. Cordery and Col Ross by turn, the then Residents at Hyderabad, till he departed for England to complete his education there. On his return from England he was offered a Commission in the Bersais, but he preferred to serve the country of his birth and its Ruler, like his ancestors, and joined the service of H. E. H. the Nizam's Government instead, and served it, with the interval of 2 years (1332-33F), between 1302-1336F. Rose from Division Officer, one after the other, to the posts of Collector, Division, Famine and Customs Commissioner, and finally retired as Director-General of Revenue, Telangana Districts, by the end of 1927 on the highest possible pension sanctioned by H. E. H. the Nizam in appreciation of the services rendered to the Government

Married In 1886 before going to England the only daughter of Nawab Nazim Jung Bahadur, and after his return from England made another Nekah. He has one daughter from the former, who is married, and one son from the latter. He is a young man of good promise, and is at present a Customs Superintendent

The Nawab is a keen and well known sportsman and risked his life several times by saving the lives of beaters and others from the grips of infuriated wounded tigers by shooting them face to face on foot.



NAWAB : MUHAMMAD MOIN-UD-DIN KHAN, NAWAB MOIN-UD-DOWLA, BAHADUR, the only son of the late Nawab Sir Asman Jah Bahadur, one of the three great Paigah Nobles of the Hyderabad State, was born in Hyderabad Deccan in the year 1891. Nawab Moin-ud-Dowla's Paigah or feudal state covers an area of 1,281 square miles and has a population of 276,533, while its annual revenue amounts to Rs. 22 lakhs. He carries on the administration with the help of a Council consisting of a President and two Members

In 1919 Nawab Moin-ud-din Khan Bahadur was given the title of Nawab Rynath Jung, and in 1922 the title of Nawab Moin-ud-Dowla. In 1923 he was appointed Minister in charge of the Industrial Department and also a Member of the Executive Council. The next year he was given charge of the Military Department and in 1927 he resigned the post, for, by an order of His Exalted Highness the Nizam, his Paigah Estates were released from the Court of Wards and he was made the Amir of the Sir Asman Jahi Paigah.

Though at one time a keen rider, Polo Player and Racing Noble, Nawab Moin-ud-Dowla Bahadur's present main recreation is shooting. He is also passionately fond of watching cricket, and he has done much to encourage the game and raise its standard not only in Hyderabad Deccan but in the whole of India. The All-India Gold Cup Cricket Tournament, which was started four years ago as a result of his munificence, attracts to Hyderabad most of the best Cricketers in India. The last M.C.C. fixture in Secunderabad, Deccan, was also due to his keen interest in Cricket and his generosity.

NAWAB SALAR JUNG
BAHADUR (MIR
YUSUF ALI KHAN),

one of the premier noblemen
of Hyderabad Deccan, and
the sole representative of
the illustrious family of
Sir Salar Jung the Great of
the Mutiny fame

Born: 13th June 1889 at
Poona.
Educated At Nizam
College

Was Prime Minister
between 1912-15, has
travelled all over Europe,
Iraq, Persia, Syria,
Palestine, etc.; keeps a
Polo Team, has got a fine library, takes interest in the
Industrial Development of the country and is Director of
seven Companies.

Area of Estate 1,480 square miles

Population: 202,739.

Revenue Over Rs 15 lakhs

Administration is divided into several departments on
modern lines, and is under direct control of the Nawab Sahab
who personally supervises the work

Family History. About the middle of the 17th century
the great-grandfather of the Nawab Sahab migrated from
Medina to the Adil Shahi kingdom of Bijapur where he
settled and married into a noble's family. After the fall of
the kingdom, the members of the family took service under
the Moguls. Later on they transferred their allegiance to the
family of the Nizams and served them as Prime Ministers,
who are as follows. —

(1) Shair Jung; (2) Ghayur Jung, (3) Dargah Khuli
Khan Salar Jung, (4) Mir Alam, (5) Alim-ul-Mulk, (6)
Siraj-ul-Mulk, (7) Sir Salar Jung I.; (8) Sir Salar Jung II;
(9) the present Salar Jung.

Address: Hyderabad (Deccan).



NAWAB MOHAMED MUKHTAR-UD-DEEN KHAN OF Hyderabad who has the following titles—NAWAB NAMWER JUNG, IKHTIDAR-UD-DOWLA, SULTAN-UL-MULK BAHADUR, is the eldest son of NAWAB SIR VIKAR-UL-UMRA BAHADUR, Prime Minister to the late Nizam. The Nawab Sahib's mother Jehandar Unnissa Begum Sahiba is the daughter of the late Nizam Nawab Afsal-ud-Dowla Bahadur. The Nawab Sahib was born in Hyderabad on November 3rd, 1875; and on March 4th, 1888, on the occasion of the late Nizam's birthday the above mentioned titles were conferred on him. He was educated privately by tutors specially appointed, in English and Oriental languages. He went to Europe for general education where he stayed for a considerable time. In Berar C. P. he gained much experience in Revenue and Judicial administration. After the demise of his father, Sir Vikar-ul-Umra Bahadur, the Nawab Sahib acted as administrator of the Estate from February 16th, 1902, to July 9th, 1907, and in 1927 he was acknowledged the Amir of Nawab Sir Vikar-ul-Umra's Pargah. According to the latest census the Estate of the Nawab Sahib has a population of 1,87,098, and an area of about 8,25,271 acres. The annual revenue of the Estate is about O. S. Rs 15,97,654.



RAJA VIKENDRA SHAH JU
DEV BAHADUR OF JAGA-
MANPUR RAJ

Born 28th July, 1915

Educated. At the Mayo

College, Ajmer, and the Colvin

College, at Lucknow, and had a

brilliant career throughout

his student life he proved him-

self to be a keen and an all-

round sportsman, and won

innumerable medals and cups

He was the captain of the

College Hockey Team, and was

the Lieutenant of Riding. He

takes keen interest in hunting

and has bagged two tigers and

ten panthers

Succeeded 5th February, 1927

Marriage In 1932—with

the only Princess of Major His

Highness Maharaja Lokendra Sir

Govind Singh Ju Dev Bahadur G C I E, K C S I, Ruler of Daria, C I

Younger brother Lal Narendra Shah Ju Dev—a student of the

Colvin Taluqdars' College, Lucknow, under the charge of Pandit

Mabeshi Lal Tiwari, the late Tutor-Guardian of the Raja

New. Raj Kumar Rajendra Shah Ju Dev—Born on 14th

February, 1934.

Capital Jagmanpur

Area 80 square miles

Population 25,000

Income Rs 1,60,000

After the death of the late Raja Sahab, Lt Raja Lokendra Shah

Ju Dev Bahadur, O B E, his dowager Rani, Rani Basini Ju Dev,

carried on the administration of the Raj with great ability and success

during the minority of the present Raja

The Raja is the head of the Sengar Rajput Clan. His family

descended from Shringi Rishi who married the niece of Maharaja

Dashrath of Ayodhya. Vishok Dev, one of the ancestors of the family,

married the daughter of Maharaja Jas Chand, Rathor, King of Kanauj,

and obtained in dowry a large territory, then called Kanauj, and esta-

blished this principality about 1100 A D. Raja Jagman Shah built

the town and the fort after his own name in 1593. The fort at Jaga-

manpur was rebuilt by Raja Rup Shah, the grandfather of the present

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS

Dewan RAO SAHIB B M LAGHATE, B A

Medical Officer/Private Secretary DR F C SUKRI, L S M F

Darbar Secretary KR CHHOTU SINGH (Silaha)

Household Officer K L CHAUBE

Office Superintendent, S L GUPTA

Personal Asstt. KR Y N. SINGH



RAJA SRI RAMACHANDRA
MARDARAJ DEO of Khallikote and Atagada Estates

Born January 1900. His father, the late Raja Harnhara Mardaraja Deo belonged to the Rana family of the Solar Dynasty and was famous for his philanthropic works, munificent gifts and steady loyalty to Government. He endowed the college at Berhampore with a lakh of rupees, presented to the Berhampore Municipality a spacious Town Hall and was the founder and patron of the Khallikote College. He earned the title of Rajah by his golden deeds. The move for the creation of a separate province for the Orissas originated with Raja Harnhara Mardaraja Deo.



Educated At the Newington Institution and the Madras Christian College

The Estate of Khallikote and Atagada are the richest in the Ganjam District. The enlightened Raja Sahab occupies various posts of trust and responsibility both in the district and outside it. He is a member of the Madras Legislative Council and President of the District Board of Ganjam and the Ganjam Landholders' Association and he has rendered distinct services to the District. He represented the Madras Presidency and gave valuable evidence at the Indian Auxiliary Force and Territorial Force Committees in 1924. He was Lieutenant in the Indian Territorial Force for about 4 years. The young Raja holds advanced and broad views on social, religious and political matters and while at the College rendered immense service during the famine in 1919.

The Raja Sahab gave very effective and sound evidence before the O'Donnell Committee appointed to enquire into the possibilities of having a separate province for the Orissas. He was invited for the 3rd Round Table Conference and also to give evidence before the Joint Parliamentary Committee.

The Title of Raja (personal) was conferred in June 1929, and in appreciation of the Raja Sahab's public work this title was made hereditary by the Governor-General in 1934 which he rightly deserved.

RAJA SAHEB MEHARBAI
I-DOSTAN RAJA RAO
SRI RAMAKRISHNA
RANGARAO BAHADUR, M.L.C.,
of Kurliampur Estate in the
East Godavary District

Born. On 29th August 1892,
is the 2nd son of the late Maha-
raja Sir V S Rangarao Bahadur,
G.C.I.E., C.B.E., of Bobbili
belonging to the tribe known as
Velma Doras who are equal to
the Rajputs and of a warlike
disposition

Educated Privately.
He also received military train-
ing in the Indian Defence and
Territorial Forces during the
Great War having been made a Lieutenant in the Army. He was
also given good administrative training before he was put in
possession of his Estate



He is a man of very liberal and advanced views in all matters
of religious, social and political importance. He often visits his
Estates and is ever ready to attend to the needs of his tenants. Like
his father he has also been managing his Estates with tact and ability
and with the accumulated savings thereof has purchased estates
yielding an annual gross income of about ½ lac of rupees. He has built
a secondary school at Kurliampur, where free education is afforded
without caste or creed to deserving students. He also built a sugar
factory to improve the economical condition of his tenants as sugar
cane is the principal crop of the estate. The Royal Swimming Bath
in the People's Park at Madras constructed at considerable cost is
one of his gifts to the public.

The Raja Sahab has travelled extensively in India and Europe
Recently he went round the World also. While in London he had the
high honour of attending H. M. the King's Levee

Sports. Tennis and Shikar

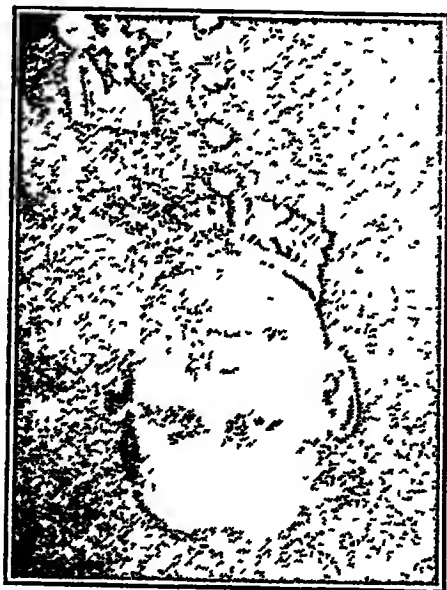
Married in 1912 Has two Sons and a Daughter

R AJA BHADUR
RAJENDRA
BHANJA DEO,
Kt
(1933), OBE, (1918), F.P.U.,
M.R.A.S., F.R.S.A., of Kanika.

Born Aul, Orissa, 24th March
1881, and son of the Raja of
Aul. Adopted to Kanika family
in 1896

Educated Ravenshaw Col-
legiate School and College,
Cuttack. Received Manage-
ment of Killah Kanika from
Court of Wards in 1902.

Married Of the family
of the Raja and Feudatory
Chief of Nayagarh. Has one
son and one daughter



The Raja Bhadur was President of Utkal Union Con-
ference, 1906, Member of the Bengal Legislative Council, 1909-12,
Member of the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, 1912-16,
Member, Imperial Legislative Council, 1916-20, Co-opted Member of
the Committee on the division of functions between Central and
Provincial Governments; Member of Reformed Legislative Council of
Bihar and Orissa, 1921, Member, Reformed Legislative Assembly
of India, 1922, Member of the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council,
1923-28, Fellow, Patna University, 1917-19

Elected Member, Patna University Senate, 1919-22, Nominated
Member, 1927-29 and since 1932, Ex-officio Member, 1929-32, Member
of Committee to co-operate with Simon Commission, 1928, Member
of the Bengal Fishery Board, Member, Governing Body, Ravenshaw
College, Cuttack

Member of the Patna University Committee, 1913. Title of
Raja (conferred as a personal distinction) in 1910, and as hereditary
distinction in 1919, Title of Raja Bhadur conferred as personal
distinction in 1934. Received Coronation Medal in 1911. Member
Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1929-34, Vice-President, 1931-34

Recreations Billiards, Tennis, Shikar

Her Tikayet Sailendra Narayan Bhanja Deo, Chairman,
District Board, Cuttack

Address Cuttack, Orissa, India

NAWAB MIRZA MOHOMED SADIQ ALI KHAN (SHISH MAHAL), TALUGDAR OF KUNWA KHERA, district Sitapur
 Born : In 1876.

Succeeded : January, 17, 1921, on the death of his father Nawab Mirza Mohomed Bagar Ali Khan

Residence : Lucknow, Sadig Manzil, Golangany
 Her : NAWABZADA

HAIDAR ALI KHAN, alias SIKANDER NAWAB.

Estate : Old name of the Taluqa : Kunwa Khera, present name Makampur-Rahimabad.

Education . Graduated in 1898 and called to the Bar on 1st May, 1901.

Title : " Nawab " recognised Hereditary.

The Nawab represents the eldest or the main branch of the " Shish Mahal " family. His great-grand-father Nawab Munawar-ud-Daula was Prime Minister to two kings of Oudh, without taking any salary. Before him Nawab Munawar-ud-Daula's uncle Nawab Muntazim-ud-Daula was also Prime Minister to two successive Kings of Oudh. On mother's side, he is descended from Nawab Burhan-ul-Mulk, the first Nawab of Oudh. One of his ancestresses descended from Shah Abbas Safwi, Shah of Persia.

The Nawab has a seat in " Durbars " amongst the ex-royal family.



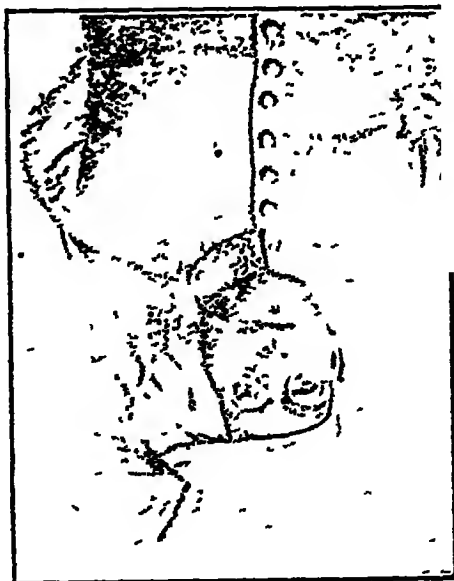
THE HON'BLE RAJA RAGHUNANDAN PRASAD SINGH, M.C.S. of Mon-ghyr (Bihar).

Born . November, 1882, in an illustrious Haihaya Kshatriya family of Zemindars, a family which has been honoured with the high distinction of "Raja" four times in three generations Raja Raghunandan Prasad Singh has enriched its noble traditions by his manifold personal virtue and his remarkable public services. His late grandfather, Babu Ramprasad Singh, his late father, Raja Kamleshwar Prasad Singh (Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medalist), his late elder brother, Raja Sivnandan Prasad Singh, made their marks in public life by their public activities and generous donations. The "Welcome Chat", the Municipal market, the Water works, the pucca drains, a H. E. School, the beautiful Baker Town Hall are only a few of their many gifts.

The Temple of Love at Monghyr and Sri Radhanobhan Temple at Brindaban (Muttra) built and endowed at a total cost of Rs. 5,35,000 are unmistakable monuments of Raja Raghunandan's devotion to religion. His inexhaustible patience, indefatigable industry and rare administrative ability enable him to manage his extensive zemindary and other business single-handed.

He was the sole elected representative of B. & O. land-holders in the Legislative Assembly for two successive terms and just now he is one of the two elected representatives of B. & O. Non-Muhammadan Constituency in the Council of State.

His public charities have run into seven figures. The Stephenson Male Ward and the X-Ray installation in the Monghyr Sadr Hospital, the Lepet Asylum at Bhagalpur, his handsome donation to the Imperial Leprosy Relief Fund are but a few of a formidable list of public benefactions standing to his credit. His gifts in the cause of education in his native town and outside have been equally numerous and princely. He is the chief patron of the All-India Haihaya Kshatriya Mahasabha. His nephew, Raja Devaknandan Prasad Singh, F.R.U., was a nominated member of the local Council for two terms and the first non-official Chairman of the Monghyr Municipality and District Board. His never-to-be-forgotten gift to his Province has been the "Wheeler Senate Hall" at Patna constructed at a cost of about 2 lacs. His heir, Kumar Sachinandan Prasad Singh is a bright, promising boy of 12 autumns who promises to be the worthy son of his worthy father.



RAJA MAHAMMAD AMIR
BAHADUR, RAJA OF
MAHMUDABAD (OUDH), is the
scion of a very noble family,
distinguished in all periods
of Indian History for piety,
highest ecclesiastical, military,
administrative position and
power, since his ancestor
Qazi Nasrullah, Qazi-ul-quzat
(i.e. Grand Qazi) of Baghdad
came to India in the reign of
Emperor Shahbuddin Ghori
He traces his descent direct
from the first Caliph (Abu
Baker)

MAHMUDABAD is the premier

Muslim Estate in Oudh

Emperor Jehangir confirmed it and bestowed a jewelled sword of
Honour, Khalat and several pieces of jewellery which form the

Estate : The estate comprises of villages in Sitapur, Bara

Banki, Khern and Lucknow districts

Born : on the 5th November 1914

Married : In 1927 to the Rani Sabea of Bilehra, a collateral
branch of Mahmudabad. There are two daughters from the

Brother : MAHARAJ KUMAR MOHAMMAD AMIR HYDER
KHAN, the younger brother of the Raja Sabea, who is living

with him.

Succeeded : His father the HON'BLE MAHARAJA SIR MOHAM-
MAD ALI MOHAMMAD KHAN, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., on May 23rd

1931

Educated : In La Martinier College, Lucknow and under
European and capable private Tutors at Home.

The present Raja is highly cultured and very broad minded.
He has extensively travelled in Europe and the Near East. He
knows English and Persian well, and is a very promising "Mar-
sia" poet of Urdu. He is deeply interested in education, social
reforms and Politics, Reading, Natural History, painting,
photography are his chief hobbies.

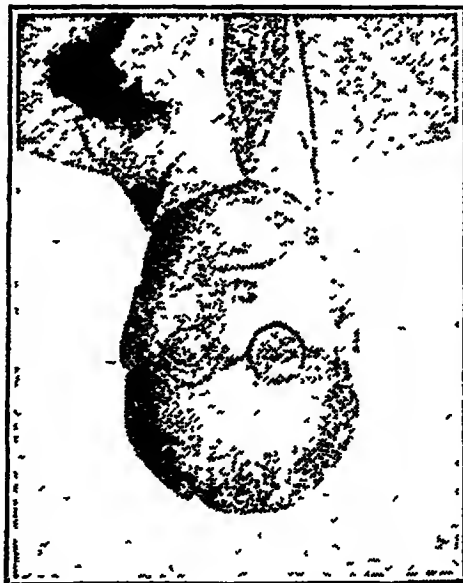
Recreation : Tennis, Motoring and Riding.

Address : Butler Palace, Lucknow, Qaisarbagh, Lucknow,
Galloway House, Naini Tal and Mahmudabad (Oudh).



RAJA SYED MOHAMMAD SAADAT ALI KHAN, the present Raja of Narpura Estate. Born in the year 1904. Educated at the Colvin Talu-dars' College, Lucknow. His father Raja Syed Mohammad Asfaq Ali Khan was a poet of great repute and author of many books. His late mother Rani Mohammad Sarraz Begam of the Mohamdi estate, district Lakhimpur Khern, Oudh, was well known for her efficient management of the Estate, and acts of benevolence.

During the Great War Rani Mohammad Sarraz Begam helped the British Government with men and money. The Lucknow University owes her its gratitude for a substantial donation as well as the King George's Medical College.



Raja Syed Mohammad Saadat Ali Khan possesses in him the literary qualities of his learned father and the managing capacity and generosity of his benevolent mother—to which he has added the vast experience of a traveller having visited many times the continent of Europe and the near East.

There are many Muslim organisations which are indebted to Raja Syed Mohammad Saadat Ali Khan for his financial help and guidance.

Raja Syed Mohammad Saadat Ali Khan is a sportsman in the real sense of the word. He is fond of shikar and is a good shot. He plays tennis, polo and swims. He is also a member of the U P Legislative Council and Vice-President of the British Indian Association of the Talu-dars of Oudh—and a patron of the U P Aero Club.

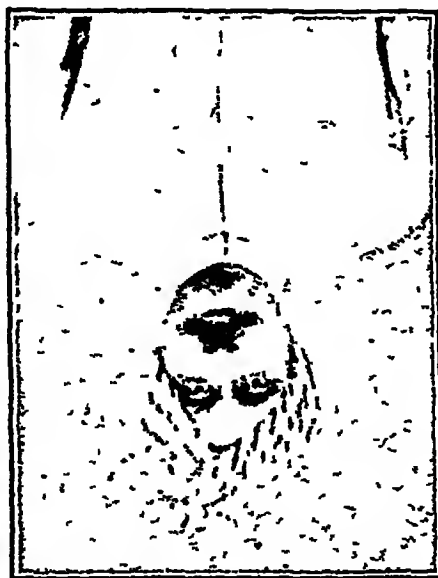
Raja Syed Mohammad Saadat Ali Khan also succeeded to the Narpura Estate in the year 1911—thus bringing both the Estates of Narpura and Mohamdi under his sway. Hence he is generally known as the Raja of Narpura—a premier estate in the province of Oudh. The estate of Narpura has a special reference to its history in the Gazetteer of the Bahrach district. Raja Sir Jang Bahadur Khan, K C S I, maternal grandfather of Raja Syed Mohammad Saadat Ali Khan, can well be styled a personality of power and great influence. The title of Raja to the House was conferred in 1763 by Nawab Shuja-ud-Daula, King of Oudh, and recognised by the Government as hereditary. Both the Estates of Narpura and Mohamdi are very old and reputed for their loyal traditions and royal history.

Govt Revenue : 3 Lakhs

CAPTAIN RAJAH SRI SRI
SRI KRISHNA CHANDRA
GAYAPATHI NARAYANA
 DEO, M.L.C., RAJAH OF PARIAKI-
 med, Ganyam District, in
 the Madras Presidency. The
 Rajah Sahab is the owner of
 the Pariakmed Estate with
 an area of 615 square miles,
 and of Gouduguranti and
 Boranta villages in Budarasangi
 Estate and the Malukdar Estate,
 Anandapuram, in Chicacole and
 the Delang Estate in Orissa.

Born 26th April 1892.

Education: At Rajah's College,
 Pariakmed, and Newington
 College, Madras



The Rajah Sahab was a member of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, a delegate to the First Indian Round Table Conference, an associated member of the Orissa Boundary Committee and was selected in 1933 as a representative of the All-India Landholders' Association to give evidence before the Parliamentary Joint Select Committee in London. He is a member of the Madras Legislative Council and Honourable Adviser and Visitor to the Agricultural College, Coimbatore. He has been taking a prominent part in commercial and industrial advancement and owns a railway line of 57 miles. He maintains a big Rice Mill, a progressive carpentry School, a large Second grade College, a Sanskrit College, two large Girls' Schools for Orissa and Telugu and an Agricultural Demonstration Farm.

He has to his credit a long list of magnificent public services. He contributed Rs 1,00,000 to the Research Institute, Coonoor, and Rs 20,000 for higher studies in Agriculture. During the Great War he subscribed Rs 3,10,000 towards War Loans and Funds and recruited men both for Combatant and Non-Combatant Forces. He has been holding Honourary Commission in the land forces of R. I. M. since 1918. In recognition of his meritorious services and the interest taken in improving the condition of his Estate and its people he was awarded the title of Rajah (personal) in 1918, Rajah (hereditary) in 1922, made Honorary and Lieutenant in 1918 and subsequently promoted to the rank of Captain. The Rajah Sahab is keenly interested in big games having bagged many panthers and tigers besides other wild animals and is also a keen Cricketer. He is a member of several important Clubs of this Presidency and of the East Indian Association, London.

A VIGAR-UL-MULK, NAWAB
SIR LIAGAT HAYAT KHAN,
Kt., O.B.E., K.B., Prime
Minister, Patiala, is the eldest
surviving son of the late Hon'ble
Nawab Mohammad Hyat Khan,
CSI, of Wah in the Attock
District of the Punjab
He entered the Punjab
Government Service in 1909
as a Deputy Superintendent
of Police and received unusually
early promotion to the Imperial
Police where he held several im-
portant appointments with con-
spicuous success. His services
were recognized by the grant
of the "King's Police Medal" and
the titles of "Khan Bahadur"
and "O.B.E." as also a grant
of land from Government

In 1923 his services were lent to His Highness the Maharaja
Dhruj of Patiala as Home Secretary, but His Highness soon raised
his status to that of Home Minister placing under his control the
administration of some of the most important Departments in the
State. In 1928 his meritorious services to the State were recognised
by Government by the grant of the high title of "Nawab" which
is now a rare distinction

After seven years' loyal and efficient service to the State His
Highness was pleased, as a mark of favour and appreciation, to appoint
the Nawab Sahib as his Prime Minister and confer upon him the
following honours and rewards —

- (1) Title of Aitmad-ud-doula, Vigar-ul-mulk, "Nawab" and
Tazim (Hereditary).
- (2) Jagir and Biswedari yielding an annual income of Rs 51,000
(Hereditary)
- (3) Cash reward of Rs. 1,01,000.
- (4) First seat in Darbar to the left of the Caddi (Masnad-i-Shahi).
(Hereditary).
- (5) Khillat of Rs. 1,700 on all Khillat occasions for him and
his heirs.

He represented the State twice at the Round Table Conference
and again as a delegate to the Parliamentary Joint Select Committee.
In January, 1933, His Majesty the King-Emperor conferred upon
him the honour of "Knighthood."
During the last ten years the Nawab Sahib has introduced many
important reforms in the State, and has proved himself to be a very
capable and efficient administrator and a statesman of high order.
His politeness, impartiality and keen sympathy with the people of
the State have made him immensely popular with all classes of His
Highness' subjects.



R

RAJA BAHADUR BRAJ
NARAYAN SINGH,
RAJA OF PADRAMNA

Ray, in the Gorakhpur District (U.P.), was born in 1875 and succeeded his father, Raja Udit Narayan Singh, in 1900. This family of Gaharwar Kshatriyas came into prominence in the first half of the 17th century. In 1686 the head of the family, Rai Nath Rai, received a Naukar grant of 33 villages and 5 Aruns from Aurangzeb. The title of Raja Bahadur was conferred upon the present



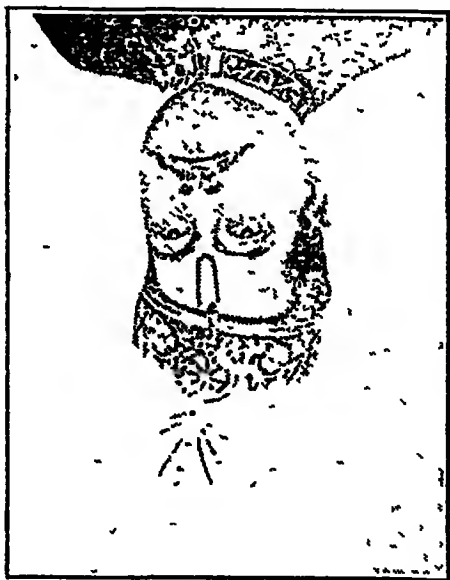
Raja as a personal distinction in 1919 in recognition of his meritorious services during the Great War, the title of Raja being hereditary. The Raja Bahadur is a second class Hony. Magistrate for life and was a member of the Provincial Legislative Council in 1924-26, where he proved himself to be a man of great tact and resourcefulness. He is liked both by Government and the public for his numerous services to them. His efficient management of the estate has often been considered a model in the Province. Among his great public benefactions in the estate may be mentioned Victoria Memorial dispensary, Peace Park, an agricultural bank, an Anathalaya, buildings for the local Vernacular Schools for boys and for girls, the latest being the Udit Narayan Kshatriya High School which has been endowed with property bringing an annual income of 8,000. He is a sincere religious man who makes the old family temple of Radhakrishna a live centre of various activities throughout the year.

The estate comprises 460 villages in the district of Gorakhpur, Ballia, Ghazipur, Azamgarh and Champaran, and owns two sugar factories. The town of Padramna can be said to possess most of the amenities of modern life including electricity.

RAO BAHADUR JAGDISH
NARAYAN SINGH,

the younger brother of the Raja Bahadur of Padrama, is his right hand and no account of him or of the estate can be considered complete without a mention of the prominent part he has taken in its amelioration. He was born in 1885, and

made a Rai Bahadur in 1923 for his meritorious services. He is an Hon'y Munsiff for life and a widely travelled man. His tour of Europe, where he came in contact with many important personages has left a great impress on him. He is a born engineer and businessman. He introduced motor cars and machines into the estate some years back. The inauguration of the first sugar factory of the estate was the result of his enterprise, of which he is the managing director. It was followed by the establishment of one of the largest sugarcane farms in the province, which is worked by an expert under his supervision. The creation of all the public institutions mentioned under the Raja Bahadur must be considered to be the joint work of both the brothers.



Raja KRISHNA CHANDRA
MANASINGHA HAR-
CHANDAN MARDARAJ BHRA-
MARBAR RAY of Parikud, Orissa

Born In June 1906.

The Rulers of Parikud claim their descent from the warrior class (Rathors) of Northern India and the first Raja Sudar-son Ray had a small kingdom at Japur about forty miles to the north-east of Cuttack in Orissa. His son Raja Jaduraj was the real founder of the dynasty who established his kingdom at Bonkado in Bampur.

Orissa. In course of time the family removed to Parikud, consisting of a group of islands and bounded on three sides by the lake Chilka and on one side by the Bay of Bengal. The land area is 67 sq. miles and water area of Chilka Lake is 450 sq. miles

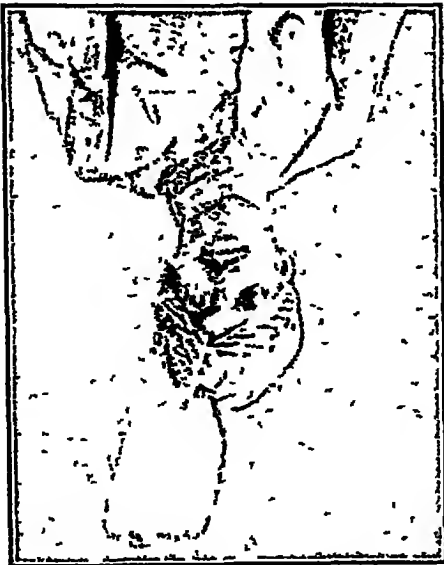
The family obtained the hereditary title of Raja from the British Government in 1872 and as such holds the first position in Bihar and Orissa. The present Raja is the 22nd heir of the family. His grand-father, Raja Gour Chandra Manasingha Harichandan Mardaraj Bhramarbar Ray and great grandfathers Raja Chandra Sekhar Manasingha Harichandan Mardaraj Bhramarbar Ray obtained the titles of Raja Bahadur and C.S.I., respectively, from the British Government for their humanitarian service in helping people at times of famine in 1866 and 1892. The family is well known for its fidelity and loyalty to the British Government

Education : At the Raykumar College, Raipur.

Succession . In August, 1930, on the demise of his father Raja Radhamohan Manasingha Harichandan Mardaraj Bhramarbar Ray.

He was made a member of the Advisory Committee of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway in June 1933 and the Chairman of the District Board, Puri, in the latter part of 1933. He is also a member of the General Council, Raipur College.

Married : The sister of the Ruling Chief of Athamallik (Orissa) in March 1931.



BIRA SRI GAJAPATI
GODESWAR NABAKO-
TIKARNATOKALA
BIRADHIBIRABAR BARCWSA-
RADHIRAJ BHUTAVAIRABSA-
DHUSASONOTKIRNA KOUTARAJ
ATULABALAPARAKRAM SANG-
RAMASAHASRABAHU KSHETRIA-
KULADHIVAKKETU MAHARADHI-
RAJ SRI SRI SRI RAJA
RAMACHANDRA DEB RAJA OF
PURI (B & O) belongs to the
famous Ganga Vanshi Rajput,
Descendant of King Chodagang,
Deb who came from Southern
India. The present Raja is the
direct lineal descendant of the
Hindu Kings of Orissa

Maharaja Dibya Singh Deb,
the grandfather of the present
Raja, was conferred with the
title of Maharaja by the present Government
conferred on this family the hereditary title of Maharaja
Many of the Rajas and Ruling Chiefs of Orissa were under the
sovereignty of this house until the British conquest and many of the
Rajas and Ruling Chiefs still use the title conferred on them by this Raj
which was the fountain of honour.

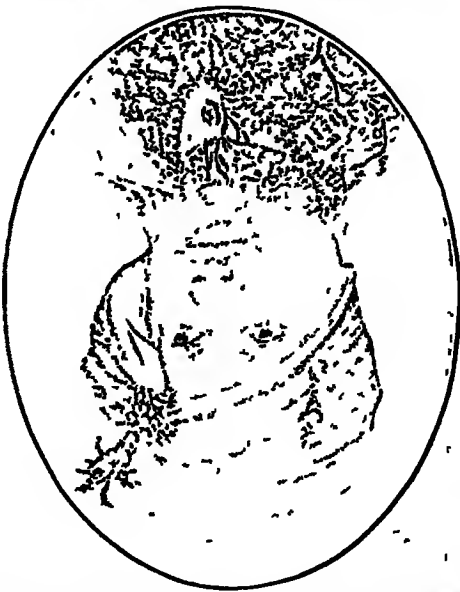
The Raja is the hereditary guardian of the famous Temple of
Jagannath at Puri. Electric lighting has been installed in and around
the temple for the comfort of the pilgrims visiting the Temple
Born 6th November 1898 as 3rd son of Raja, Satchidanand
Tribhuban Deb, late Chief of Bamra, a native State of Orissa, later
got adopted to Puri family. Succeeded his late father Raja Mukund
Deb on 14th February 1926

Married A Princess of the famous Bhanj family of Mayurbhanj
Educated At Bamra State High School and then at Calcutta
He is the 1st educated Raja of Puri

New-Apparent Sri Sri NITKANTH DEB JENAMONI, born 2nd
July 1929 **2nd Son** Sri Sri RAJRAJ DEB SANJMONY, born 8th
May 1933 **Daughter** RAJKUMARI KASTURIKAMODINI DEBI, born 1931
2nd Daughter RAJKUMARI CHAPALA KUMARI DEBI, born 1934

STAFF.

Dewan Babu Bipin Behari Gupta **Asst Dewan** Babu Ram
Sahay Lal
Temple Commander. Babu Jadumoni Das
Peshar Babu Biswanath Rajguru, **Treasurer** Babu Gurucharan
Debartapatnalk Bill Dept. Babu C Bose **Nazir** Lala Gopnath
Landed Estate's Officers Lala Shyam Mohan and Babu N C Patnalk
Law Babu Ganeswar Misra **Sanitary Supervisor** Dr. Dinakar
Rao, L M F
Domestic. Babu Padmalochan Naik
Works and Repair. Babu D B Patnalk
Testidars of different circles Babus Bainsidhar Bebartapatnalk,
Bipari Patnalk, Damodar Das, Birabhadra Mohanti, Mathuramand
Mohanti, Brahmanand Mohanti, Atchutanand Misra
Agriculture. Babu Jayadeb Dash, A O.



Raja HARNAM SINGH,
R. S., Rai SAHEB,
Raja of RAMNAGAR
Dhameri Estate, Bara Banki
District, is the owner of
Ramnagar Dhameri Raj.

Born . 1884.

Educated : At Colvin
Talugdar School, Lucknow.

Married : 1904.

Accession : In 1927 at
the age of 43, when his
father - Raja Udit Narain
Singh died.

Revenue of the Estate : Rs. 226,000.

The rulers claim their descent from the Raja of Qanauy. Their ancestors always maintained good relations with the Moghal rulers for which they were rewarded at various times. The Raikwar Rajas of whom they are descendants were held in high esteem and occupied good positions under the Delhi Kings. At a time when the finances of the estate were in a very bad position, the father of the present ruler by his prudent and wise administration brought the estate to its present solvent position.

Raja Harnam Singh takes interest in public service and was for some time chairman of the District Board, Bara Banki. For his services in this connection, the title of Rai Sahab was conferred on him in January 1927. The present ruler and his predecessors have given large amounts for various charities. The Raja Sahab is very much fond of riding. His permanent residence is Ramnagar. He is a good linguist having a good knowledge of English, Urdu, and Hindi. His father Raja Udit Narain Singh has endowed five Villages for the maintenance of a Sanskrit Pathshala at Ramnagar in 1926.



RAJA BARKHANDI MAHESH PRATAP NARAYN SINGH OF SHIVAGARH RAY, (district Rae Bareilly, U.P., Agra and Oudh) and head of Amethia Gaur clan of Rajputs.

Born: 19th December 1896.

Educated: At the Colvin Taluqdars College, Lucknow, where throughout his career, he was known for his social, frank and amiable nature and was spoken of very highly by the Principal, teachers and his colleagues. After finishing his education, he received practical administrative training in the various departments under the able guidance of his father, the late Raja Rameshwar Bux Singh.

He hails from a very ancient line of rulers of the well-known Suraj-Bansi race of Rajputs, tracing his descent back to Pushkal son of Raja Bharat, the brother of Maharajadhiraj Sri Ram Chandraji of epic fame. Adipur was the most prominent figure among the early rulers of Bengal who belonged to this branch of Rajputs and made Lakshnauti capital known as Gaurdesh Bengala. The members of this illustrious family of Bengal succeeded in carving out small principalities in the different parts of India.

In the dynasty of Raja Pirthu Chandradeo of Nar Kingdom came the ancestors of Shivagarth Ray. His son Raja Kandoo under orders from Maharaj Govind Chandradeo of Kanauj proceeded to Amethi pargana in Lucknow district to suppress the reactionary and turbulent Bhar community. He won the day on the great festival Holi and founded a kingdom where they reigned till Raja Dingur Shah made himself master of Amethi known as Amethi of Dingur Shah. His father Raja Rameshwar Bux Singh added to his hereditary possessions the estates of Semarpah after obtaining a decree of the Privy Council, London, July 1906, and many other villages near by and thus raised the revenue and brought the estates to a prominent and flourishing condition.

The present Raja Sahib maintains the tradition of his father and has made several further improvements in the Estates in various branches and ameliorated the condition of the tenantry. He has always looked to the interests of the cultivators through a sympathetic eye. **Her-Apparent:** Raj Kumar Uday Raj Singh, and son Raj Kumar Jai Raj Singh. Both are at present receiving education in Colvin Taluqdars College solely founded for the education of "Barons of Oudh." It is an impartible Raj. The estate gives high guzaras to the members of the family.

Area: 65,322 acres.

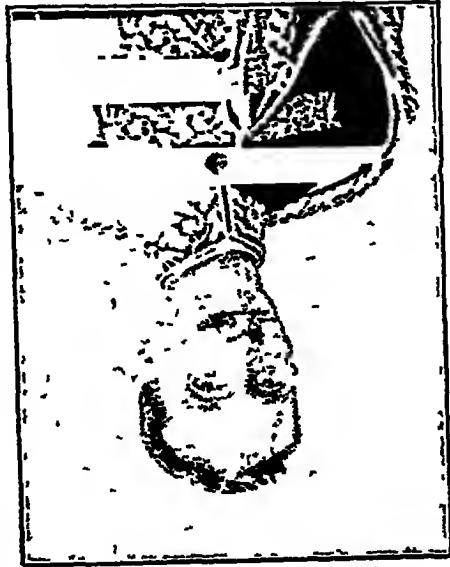
Gross Income: About Rs. 4,00,000. **Railway Station:** Bachhrawan, E. I Ry., 10 miles pucca road.

AGA SHAH ROOKH SHAH
NAWAB SHAH ROOKH
YAR JUNG BAHADUR

Born At Mazagon, Bombay, in 1874. Eldest son of the late Aga Akbar Shah, ex-Sheriff of Bombay; grandson of His late Highness the first Aga Khan and first cousin of His Highness the present Aga Khan.

Educated In English, Persian and Arabic.
Married. Eldest daughter of the late Aga Shahabuddin Shah in 1897, at Poona

Nawab Shah Rookh Yar Jung Bahadur was appointed Honorary A.D.C. to H. E. H. the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1918, and Honorary Private Secretary to His Highness the Aga Khan in 1900. He was President of the Poona Suburban Municipality for two consecutive terms from 1925 to 1931, and Chairman of the School Board of that body from 1925 to 1928 in which capacity he promoted primary education to a great extent. He was the founder and President of the Servants of Islam Society, Poona, in 1926; Director of the Queen Mary School for Disabled Indian Soldiers at Kurjee from 1923 to 1933, Jt. Honorary Secretary of the Lloyd Polo Club, Poona, from 1923 to 1928, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Poona and Kurjee Boy Scouts Association from 1931 to 1932. Elected life fellow of the Royal Society of Arts, London, in 1927, President of the Poona District Muslim Educational Society from 1928 to 1931. Nominated as a member of the Bombay Legislative Council in 1932; Chairman of the House Accommodation Committee under the Cantonment Act, at Poona in 1924. Elected President of Dairat-ul-Adab, Bombay, in 1933.



He is a member of several Clubs and Societies in Bombay and Poona. As a born loyalist he has always stood by the Government. He is an amateur artist in oil colours and is also fond of sport. He regularly hunted with Bombay and Poona Fox Hounds from 1889 to 1898 and participated in many point-to-point races in Poona. He was a keen cricketer and used to captain his family and school teams between 1892 and 1898.

TAMKOH Ray in the Gorakhpur District (U.P.) dates its prominence long before the Mohammedan Rule in India though recognition of titles and Mansabs were obtained during the reigns of the Emperors of Delhi by Raja Kalyan Mal and Raja Hamir Sahi, and from the British Government in the time of Raja Kharag Bahadur Sahi.

Raja Indrajit Pratap Bahadur Sahi, the present Raja Sahib of Tamkohi, at

the age of 5 years succeeded his father, Raja Shatrugit Pratap Bahadur Sahi after his death in the year 1898, since when many improvements have been made to the Estate in almost all directions—Political, Industrial, Social and Educational. The Raja Sahib has been a member of the Legislative Council since the time of the Reforms of 1920 though at present has discontinued his connection temporarily owing to some important Estate affairs requiring his personal attendance. He is still on the roll of many Government and Public Institutions and has contributed a lot to the well-being of his ryots and for the progress of the Estate during the short period he has had charge of the Ray. He is popular among all sections of the Public of Gorakhpur acting presently as the President of the District Board. He is a good shot and fond of manly games.

The Raja Sahib is closely related to His Highness the Maharaja of Benares in U. P. and of Bettiah and Tekari in the Bihar Province.

The Estate comprises of 462 villages in the districts of Gorakhpur and Basti in U.P. and Chhapra, Gaya, Muzafferpur and Darbhanga in Bihar Province.



**CAPTAIN RAJA
DURGA NARAYAN
SINGH OF TIRWA, district
Farukhabad, United
Provinces.**

*Born in 1896. The
estate was taken under
Court of Wards in 1907,
and was released in 1917.
It is one of the premier
estates in Agra Province.*



Educated in Mayo College, Ajmer.

Tirwa house claims descent from Baghel family of Rewah. The hereditary title of Raja was conferred by Emperor Shah Alam.

The Raja Sahab was a member of the Legislative Council from 1923 to 1927, and took notable interest in framing the present Agra Tenancy Act. He takes keen interest in the social, educational and political activities of the country, and has founded a High School in Tirwa. He is the President of the Provincial Hindu Maha Sabha, Secretary of the National Agriculturists' Party of the Agra Province and Vice-President of the Agra Province Zamindars' Association.

Visited foreign countries in 1928, obtained Captaincy in 1924 and is attached to 7/10th Rajput Regiment.

NAWAB GULAMJILANI
Bijlikhan of Wai
Born 28th July 1888

Succeeded October, 1894
Termination of Minority Ad-
ministration 1909

Married . The youngest sister
of H. H. The Nawab of Jaora,
29th July 1909 Has one son
and two daughters

Educated : At the Rajkumar
College, Rajkot, and served in
the Imperial Cadet Corps, Dehra
Dun, for two years He was in-
vited to rejoin the Corps during
the Coronation of the King
Emperor in 1911.

Heir : Sabezada Saeedud-
din Haider

The founder of the family
held a high command in the army of the Emperor Aurang-
zebe who invaded the Deccan and conquered the kingdom of Bijapur.
When the Emperor returned from Bijapur to Satara, Nawab Bijlikhan
was left at Wai for the protection of the territory conquered from the
Marathas. For carrying out successfully several expeditions and political
missions he was rewarded by the grant of a jagir. He died in 1700
and was succeeded by his son Sheikh Miran I. In 1708 when Shahu the
grandson of Shivaji, returned from Delhi and approached Satara he was
opposed by Tarabai, his aunt. Nawab Sheikh Miran I espoused Shahu's
cause and placed him on the throne of Satara. In return for this
service he received the Parganas of Erondol and Daryapur, and the
highest honours that the Chatrapati could bestow upon him. When
Raghunada, the father of the last Peshwa, was sent as a state prisoner to
Kopergaon in the Ahmednagar District Sheikh Miran II held both father
and son in captivity till 1796 when Bajirao was brought to Poona
by Maharaja Daulat Rao Scindia of Gwalior.

In 1820 after the conquest of the Deccan by the British Government
the possessions of this family were restored under a Treaty dated 3rd
July 1820 and included the pargana of Erondol, and numerous tracts of
land in the Deccan, all the territory in the Nizam's Dominion being
resumed. The present Chief Nawab Gulamjilani Bijlikhan takes
precedence over all the first class Sardars in the Deccan. He was an
additional member of the Bombay Legislative Council for two years till
1920, and member of the Legislative Assembly from 1921 to 1923. He
was elected Vice-President of the Bombay Presidency Muslim League,
and is permanent President of the Satara District Anyuman Islam. He
was appointed an Hon. A.D.C. to H. E. The Governor of Bombay in
1929, and was for some time President of the State Council, Jaora State
Address . The Palace, Wai



The Calendars.

The *Parsi* year was derived from a combination of the *Hejira* and *Samsat* years by the order of Akbar; it is *Luni-solar*. The *Bengali* year seems also to have been related at one time to the *Hejira*, but the fact of its being *Solar* made it lose 11 days each year.

The *Samsat* era dates from 57 B.C., and is *Luni-solar*. The months are divided into two fortnights—*sway*, or bright, and *dark*, or dark. Each fortnight contains 15 tithis, which furnish the dates of the civil days given in our calendars.

A full Calendar will be found at the beginning of this book. Below are given details of the other Calendars in use in India.

The *Jewish* Calendar is in accordance with the system arranged A.D. 358. The Calendar dates from the Creation, which is fixed as 3,760 years and 3 months before the beginning of the Christian Era, the year is *Luni-solar*.

The *Mohammedan*, or era of the *Hejira*, commences from the day after Mohammed's flight from Mecca, which occurred on the night of July 15, 622 A.D. The months are *Lunar*.

PUBLIC HOLIDAYS IN 1935.

Hindu.	
Makar-Sankranti	Jan. 14
Maha Shivratri	March 3
Holi (2nd day)	20
Rama Navami	April 12
Cocosant Day	Aug. 14
Ganesh Chaturthi and Samvatsari	Sept. 2
Dusseera	Oct. 7
Diwali	" 26 & 28
Jewish.	
Pecach (2 days)	April 18 & 24
Shabbath	June 7
Tishabeb	Aug. 8
Rosh Hoshana	Sept. 28
Sukkoth (1st day)	Oct. 12
Jain.	
Chaitra Sud 15	April 18
Shravan Vadi 13, 14, and 15	Aug. 26 to 31
Rajasthan, Bhadarva Sud 5	Sept. 3
Kartik Sud 15	Nov. 11
Christian.	
New Year's Day	Jan. 1
Good Friday	April 19
Easter	" 20 & 22
Christmas	Dec. 25
New Year's Eve	" 31

Parsee (Shenshahi).	
Jamshed Navroz	March 21
Avan Jashan	April 14
Adar Jashan	May 18
Zarthost-no-Diso	June 14
Gatha Gabambars	Sept. 6 & 7
Farai New Year	" 12
Khorbad Sal	" 12
Parsee (Kadmi).	
Avan Jashan	March 16
Jamshed Navroz	March 21
Adar Jashan	April 18
Zarthost-no-Diso	May 16
Gatha Gabambars	Aug. 6 & 7
Farai New Year	" 13
Khorbad Sal	" 13
Mahomedan (Sunni).	
Ramzan-Id	Jan. 8
Bakri-Id	March 16
Muharram	April 18
Id-e-Milad	June 14
Shab-e-Barat	Nov. 14
Mahm Far (Bombay City only)	Dec. 11
Mahomedan (Shia).	
Ramzan-Id	Jan. 8
Bakri-Id	March 16
Muharram	April 18
Id-e-Milad	June 14
Shab-e-Barat	Nov. 14
Mahm Far (Bombay City only)	Dec. 11

Note—If any of the Mohammedan holiday shown above does not fall on the day notified, the Mohammedan servants of Government may be granted a sectional holiday on the day on which the holiday is actually observed in addition to a holiday on the day notified.

Maahomedan.

[illegible]

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